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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Proceedings

OF THE
SIXTY-FIFTH ANNUAL MEETING
HELD AT
SEATTLE, WASHINGTON
JULY 3-8, 1927

VOLUME 65

The National Education Association
1201 Sixteenth Street N. W.
Washington, D. C.

MEMBERSHIP FEES AND PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND ITS VARIOUS DEPARTMENTS

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. (9 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 entitles one to the publications and privileges of the \$5 membership for life.

Several departments of the National Education Association have separate membership fees and issue department 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 follows:

1. The Department of Superintendence—\$5 membership entitles one to receive for one year: (a) The Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, which includes a list of members of the department; (b) The Official Report of the Winter Meeting; and (c) bulletins.
2. The Department of Elementary School Principals—\$3 membership entitles one to participate in the work of the department and to receive its bulletins issued in October, January, April, and July. The April number of the Bulletin is a Yearbook containing approximately three hundred pages including a list of members of the department.

This volume of Proceedings is sent to all members of the National Education Association paying an annual fee of \$5, or it may be purchased by nonmembers for \$3. 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 co-operated 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.

FOREWORD

THE ASSOCIATION year 1926-27 marks the turning point in the life of the Association. The administration of President Francis G. Blair emphasized larger responsibility for the Board of Directors and closer relations with affiliated state associations in all of the activities of professional organization. Progress was also made in the development of the Headquarters Staff, including the adoption of a salary schedule and a plan for retirement as shown in the minutes of the Board of Directors.

Both of the 1927 meetings were held away from the largest centers of population. Both broke previous attendance records. The Department of Superintendence held its winter meeting in Dallas, Texas, bringing the Association into the great southwest for the first time in its history. The summer meeting at Seattle, Washington, brought thousands of teachers to the Pacific Northwest intent on combining a vacation with professional enrichment. Both of these meetings afforded opportunities of attendance to hundreds of teachers who have been unable to attend meetings held in the central and eastern states.

The *Proceedings* this year brings together the best material presented before the Association and its seventeen departments. An effort is made each year to improve the *Proceedings* by paying more attention to the careful selection of material for its content.

A new department appears this year for the first time; the Department of Lip-Reading.

The complete list of the Association's publications from 1857 to 1924 appears on pages 1041-60 of the *Proceedings* for that year. It is supplemented by tables in *Proceedings*, 1925: 1080-81; 1926: 1185; 1927: 1219.

The strength of the educational advance is suggested by the increase in the published output of the Association during the past few years. The grand total during 1920-21 for all the Association's publications was 22,951,650 pages; for 1926 it was 129,239,035 pages. This growing literature on the problems of the profession reflects the inspiring devotion of American teachers to the public school. The ideals which the teachers pass on to the children are the most precious things in the national life.

DIVISION OF PUBLICATIONS OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION.

HOW THIS BOOK IS BUILT

THE CONVENTIONS of the National Education Association are great congresses which bring together a wide variety of interests. This volume reflects these interests. Persons who use it will save time by forming a picture of its contents and arrangement.

The opening pages cover the speeches before the General Sessions at the Seattle meeting. These are followed by the reports of the Association's active committees. The addresses and minutes of the National Council of Education are next in order and are followed by addresses and minutes of the Association's departments. The closing pages are devoted to records and information pertaining to the Association since its organization in 1857. The volume as a whole represents the efforts of hundreds of persons engaged in all branches of educational activity.

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General Sessions

THE TEACHERS OF AMERICA—the Republic's first and last line of defense—their economic, social, and professional welfare, the chief concern of state and nation," was the theme selected by President Francis G. Blair for the sixty-fifth annual meeting of the National Education Association at Seattle, Washington, July 3-8, 1927. Teachers from all parts of the country were attracted to the playground of America, the great Pacific Northwest. There, in the shadow of snow-covered Mt. Rainier, life-interest was revived and fresh thought inspired. The attendance is estimated at 15,000 with registration the heaviest the Association has known in many years. The Convention opened with a Vesper Service in Volunteer Park on Sunday, which began a week of fruitful activity for the profession. Evening sessions were held in the great stadium of the University of Washington and the business sessions in the Fifth Avenue theater, with general sessions in nearby churches running parallel to the meetings of the Representative Assembly for persons not participating therein.

In addition to the various department meetings the following conferences and allied groups were included in the program: American Classical League; American Home Economics Association; Conference on Art Education; Conference of Corrective Speech Teachers; Conference on Student Participation in School Government; Conference of Superintendents of Schools; National Congress of Parents and Teachers; National Council of Administrative Women in Education; National Council of Geography Teachers; National Council of Teachers of English; National Federation of Modern Language Teachers; National League of Teachers Associations; National Organization of Secretaries of State Education Associations; National Vocational Guidance Association; School Garden Association of America.

THE GOD-GIVEN TEACHER

MARK A. MATTHEWS, PASTOR, FIRST PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH,
SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

And he gave some, apostles; and some, prophets; and some, evangelists; and some, pastors and teachers.—Ephesians 4:11.

THE origin and position of the teacher cannot be questioned. The great profession is of divine origin. God ordained the method by which knowledge is to be imparted and instruction given. The dissemination of knowledge is secondary to the training of one to acquire knowledge. The teacher has a double responsibility. Whether in the religious or academic world he is charged with the duty of training the pupil in the art of acquiring knowledge; he is also charged with the duty of inspiring the pupil to be an unselfish benefactor in the dissemination of knowledge.

Let us consider a few stubborn facts:

First—We are not charged with the responsibility of making the pupil but of training him.—All of the antecedent conditions must be taken into consideration when passing upon the work of the trainer. Some people cannot be trained because of their inability to receive training. Others cannot receive training because of the false training previously done by parents. These facts should be taken into consideration when passing upon the qualifications of teachers or upon the results of the teachers' work.

The cradle filler is the builder of nations and the moulder of rulers. You can't change God's plan. Only a woman can fill a cradle. Therefore, the nation needs Christian mothers, and the world needs the family altar if the material submitted to the teacher for training is to be the right kind of material. If the pupil committed to the teacher has been deprived of the right kind of home influences, of the touch of a Christian mother, and the atmosphere of a family altar, then the work of the teacher is made more difficult.

We are required to make citizens. We are expected to give to the state trained, finished products in order that they may make their contributions and repay the state for everything it has done or contributed toward their perfected citizenship. How can we make citizens—righteous citizens—if the raw material comes from un-Christian homes, atheistic or bolshevistic homes? We have not the ability to remake the pupil. We are required only to train the pupil. We can not make a sweet singing canary out of a hawk or a crow. However, we are required to train both the crow and the canary. It is demanded that we give to the state perfect citizens. We cannot give to the state a uniform product equal in all respects when we have such varied raw material from which to produce the product. Therefore, America's greatest need is Christian mothers, Christian homes, family altars, and loyal cooperation on the part of the home forces with the teaching forces of the state and the church.

The three factors are indispensable to each other. The school without

the church would produce an unbalanced product. The school and the church without the Christian influences of the home may produce a very dangerous product. All three factors resting upon a firm spiritual and moral foundation can produce for the state a Christian citizen.

Second—Sustaining facts.—These conditions are sustained by stubborn facts. Whatever may be said about the derelictions of the youth of today does not reflect primarily upon the public school teacher, nor does it necessarily indict the forces of the church; but it does indict the home forces. The home has the first chance, the continuous chance, and the greatest authority and responsibility.

The youth of the land is being today unjustly criticised. The young people are not so much to blame. Their parents are to blame. It is not the criminality of youth, but the criminal negligence of the aged, of the mature men and women, of the fathers and mothers, that is responsible for the conditions found in the juvenile world.

The public schools are furnishing the education, are training the youth of the land; but the public schools cannot change the character of the child, nor can they give the domestic touch necessary to character. We have turned one hundred years of boasted liberty and light into license and lawlessness.

It matters not how far you may advance the child's intellect. If his heart and his character and his background are not equally advanced, then you have made a potential criminal out of him. The parents, the home, the church must be held responsible for the character, the moral stamina, the real worthwhileness of the child before you can train him and make of him a righteous citizen, and thus give to the state a finished, contributing product.

To do this we must overcome another difficulty. The material progress of the world is far greater than the intellectual and spiritual progress. We are living in a world of selfish indulgence, of prodigal luxury, and of disastrous ease, comfort and happiness. We are living in a material age, in an age of material progress and development, both in the conveniences and in the sciences of the world, and yet we are incapacitated intellectually and spiritually to appropriate these great blessings and to use them for the moral advancement of the world. Our moral and spiritual advancement are not commensurate with our material progress. You cannot build a real character out of material things, nor can you build a real spiritual citizen on a wholly materialistic plan.

We made a serious mistake when we put into practice the doctrine of scholastic election. When we applied that doctrine to the juvenile age we made a serious mistake.

The home has abandoned discipline and is allowing the youth of today to select his course, to outline his curriculum, and to decide on his method of approach to the great problems of life, including even the domestic and the religious problems. The insanity of such a doctrine applied to the

youth of the country is demonstrated in the crime wave, and in the dereliction of the youth of the land.

No man can be brought to the high point of a finished scholar or citizen unless he passes through a most rigid discipline. Discipline is God-decreed; it is nature's weapon, and it is the indispensable factor in making good government as well as in producing scholastic perfection. When the home abandoned discipline, its effect upon the school and the government was immediately felt.

The lust for pleasure has destroyed the love for work; the lust for ease has destroyed the heroism of toil. The maddening desire for speed has wrecked the ambition for scholarship. You cannot make a scholar by touching an electric button. Scholars are not made by mere matriculation. They are made by the constant burning of the midnight oil, by incessant application, by spending weeks and months and years acquiring knowledge and becoming trained, and being made capable. Where is the child who today is burning the midnight oil? He is burning the gasoline on the highroad of pleasure. He is basking in the white lights of dissipation. You cannot make a scholar on the gasoline road of pleasure.

Your task is doubly hard because the home is failing to cooperate, and because it is furnishing you with raw material cursed with the wrong environment, wrong training, and the wrong atmosphere.

Third—The fruitage of undaunted heroism.—No one can question or justly criticise one for saying that your task calls for unparalleled heroism. Because of the facts, the impediments and the difficulties that we have previously mentioned, your task is made doubly hard. There is, however, a word of encouragement. No honest labor has ever failed to bear fruit. The fruitage of your heroism is in the future. The teacher and the honest parent may not be able to make ideal products out of all the raw material, but by the right kind of cooperation we will be able to give to the state and to the world products that can overcome and counteract the influences of the untrained, un-Christianized, and undomesticized youths.

No teacher has ever yet received just compensation. No public school teacher, no college professor, no university instructor has been paid or can be paid adequately for the services rendered. States are too selfish, legislatures are too ignorant, and taxpayers are too miserly to furnish an adequate compensation. Even if they tried they could not, because no power on earth can pay for the influence of a Christian teacher, can compensate for the smile which plays over the face of one who loves her profession, for that one is imbued with the right spirit and has a conscience clear because her duty has been well performed.

You are living in the lives of thousands. You will live in the hearts of millions, and at last, when the scroll is unfurled, our blessed Redeemer, Jesus Christ, who died for our salvation, will say, "Well done, good and faithful servant; enter thou into the fruitage of your spotless life of undaunted heroism."

A CRIMELESS GENERATION

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

A crimeless generation is as feasible as a mosquitoless city. It is as easy to eliminate juvenile crime as yellow fever or smallpox. The schools can do it—must do it.

In order to insure America against juvenile crime we must account for every one from 14 to 18 in school or at work every minute. This means a card catalog, uptodate of every one in those years in every school district in every state in the union.

This is actually done in one district in Utah and will be done as completely in every school district in that state. The law went into effect seven years ago, but until two years ago a boy or girl could report at school or at work at the opening of the school year at any time thereafter, leave school, or work, or move from the district and the law was useless until the next September. Now the record is revised each month and every child is card-cataloged so that escape is impossible.

There are men, or women, who do not teach but who are skilfully attentive to every boy or girl who chafes under school life or in the work in which he is engaged. Teachers are required to report every one from 14 to 18 who is seriously dissatisfied with the life of school or industry and this is card-cataloged as is success or failure in remedying it.

For instance, a lad of fourteen simply could not be kept in school. He was a nuisance when there and he would not come regularly. The free-lance nonteaching member of the school force succeeded in getting the confidence of the lad who was up at five o'clock every morning trapping muskrats and selling them. And he had no other interest but was simply crazy over this. He said, "I would go to school if they would teach me how to tan these skins."

In due time one of the high school teachers was ready to teach him to tan these muskrat skins. He was provided with books about other furbearing animals and he would talk to the school about muskrat skin tanning and the habits and value of all sorts of furbearing animals, and would write about it all. He studied the dictionary furiously and would ask how he should write this or that sentence.

You could no more keep that boy away from the high school than you could keep him in bed after five o'clock in the morning, but he was foot-free so far as the curriculum was concerned. There were people who wanted him to be held down to the curriculum even if it sent him to the devil.

Another typical case was that of a lad of sixteen, who would not come to school or behave when he was there. The specialist in such cases learned that the lad was crazy over automobiles and machinery. The specialist agreed to get him a job with General Motors in the evenings if he would stay in school and establish a record.

The General Motors people agreed to take him when he had demonstrated that interest in earnest by earning \$150 and having it in a bank. There was never a better student in school or a more industrious one out of school. When the specialist was in every way satisfied with the young man, he went to the company's plant in Michigan.

The specialist had interested the Lions Club in him, so that secretary wrote to the Lions Club in Detroit. The lad was met at the train, taken to his boarding place, and in a few months was promoted in the business to an important position.

Recently when the superintendent's budget was before the financial council, the expert of the tax-dodgers association objected to two items in the budget. One was because of a "fad." Seven hundred dollars for accounting on the ground that that had never been in any oldtime school. The other was the salaries of two teachers who were not teaching at all. When the superintendent explained why they had the "Accounting" and what these teachers, who were not teaching did, the tax-dodging representative withdrew his objection, saying that he had not understood it.

When a child goes from one school to another in a city, his monthly "accounting" goes where he goes. When he goes to another city it follows him. And the day is not distant when no boy or girl from 14 to 18 can escape the sympathetic attention of the specialist who will see to it through the school system that everyone can find something that will give a thrill of achievement.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME

BERTHA K. LANDES, MAYOR OF SEATTLE

As mayor of the city of Seattle it becomes my pleasure and my privilege to extend to the officers and delegates of the National Education Association the official welcome of Seattle and her citizens.

This welcome which we extend to you today is a very cordial one. It is official because it comes from official circles. It is fitting that you be welcomed in that manner, but in addition our welcome is also an outward expression of an inward joy and pleasure at your presence here. It is an outpouring of real hospitality, cordial and sincere in every way. It is also a humble welcome, in that Seattle feels honored to have as her guests men and women who are giving of themselves in the service to which you have dedicated your lives—men and women who are working, with the home, to develop the citizens of tomorrow, creating high ideals and right standards, and training the youth of this land in the use of the tools necessary for the carrying on of life's work successfully and well. You are the people of broad vision, of creative minds and of culture—the people who are shaping the destiny of our nation along many and divers lines and helping to decide the place of this nation among the other nations of the world as to civilization, education, and leadership.

Again, our welcome is a simple one. We are not attempting to clothe it in fanciful or flowery language, in flights of eloquence or of oratory. Can one say more, after all, than can be said by these simple words: "You are welcome! Our hearts and our homes are open to you. The city is yours."

We know that we are to reap great benefits as a city because of your convention here. We know that our own people who work along educational lines are to be quickened and inspired to greater efforts. We believe that your influence will extend directly or indirectly into the large majority of the homes of this city and result there in better thinking and hence in better living.

Nothing finer can come to any city than the quickening of its thought life. It means always spiritual and intellectual progress. We gladly acknowledge the debt under which you place us, but we hope that we, in our turn, will be able to send you back to your homes refreshed in mind and body, with a broader outlook upon life and with new conceptions of this section of our land, of the vastness of our country, and the possibilities of future greatness inherent in it.

Did you but know the history of the growth and development of this city and other cities of the great Northwest and the Pacific Coast, you would feel stirring within you the thrill of romance and of accomplishment. The story of the physical growth and changes reads like a fairy tale. Stand with me on the top of old Denny Hill, rising 300 feet in the air above the coming city. Watch it being hydraulicked grain by grain down into the waters of Puget Sound, its place being taken by level streets and lofty buildings. Picture the five-acre tract comprising the downtown campus of the state university, once a shady, scholastic retreat, now the center of our present business district. See the university buildings disappearing, their places being taken by the Metropolitan Theater, the Olympic Hotel, the Cobb Building, business blocks, and the like. Watch the city grow from 80,000 in 1900 to more than 400,000 in 1927. Walk along our waterfront and realize that Seattle and her great hinterland are sending their cargoes to all ports of the world to be used by people speaking many and strange tongues; that the salmon from our waters, the lumber from our giant firs, the ores and minerals from our mines, together with the products of our soil, grains and fruits of all kinds, are going into strange corners of the earth and carrying with them messages of goodwill and fellowship from America and its people. Commerce and trade have their spiritual as well as their materialistic side. They open avenues for world understanding, world peace and world fellowship, as well as world business. Seattle is playing well her part in this great drama, and the romance of it casts a glamor over her daily life. She is still so young—barely in her teens, so to speak, compared with the old and settled communities of the east—so romance is still with her; but coupled with romance and walking by her side are energy, progress, and the experience of past years, the heritage passed on to her by these older cities.

Come under the spell of our beautiful scenery, our mountains, our lakes,

and our sea. Enjoy our cool and delightful climate, shadow and sunshine intermingled, with rain to cleanse the earth and freshen the air. Then you will realize why we are fast becoming the summer playground of the nation. Yet, after all, wonders of nature and gifts of God, fine buildings and industries, manufactories, commerce and trade, do not make a city. A city's greatness can only be measured truly by the greatness of its people, their ideals; their citizenship, their culture, and their quality.

So we open our homes and our hearts to you today and bid you come in and make yourself at home. Test us by any fair test, and Seattle and her people in general will ring true.

Come into our homes, simple American homes, and learn to know us as we really are, hospitable and friendly, with our lines reaching back to the east and the north and the south, from whence you have just come; unconventional, free, and independent, as befits our background of wide open spaces and towering mountain peaks.

The citizens of Seattle are at your service, as is the city itself. Command us. We are your servants. Our hope and our desire for you is the most successful of conventions, the happiest time of your life, with nothing to mar the pleasure and serenity of your sojourn here. When it is all over, we are going to wish you God-speed, a safe return to friends and loved ones, and a pleasant memory of Seattle and her people, joined with the hope that some day you will journey our way again.

A DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

HENRY SUZZALLO, SEATTLE, WASH.

One hundred fifty-one years ago our nation was created in audacity by a declaration of independence. It has been perpetuated for more than a century and a half by a consecrated leadership and a devoted citizenship, which have managed to keep themselves in the power and influence of an ascendant majority in the nation.

We have grown more democratic in our aspirations and realizations with each passing year, not because we have found new principles with which to meet old and new dangers, but because we have had the practical understanding and ingenuity to devise new ways and means, new social tools for making old and fundamental ideals work a little better among increasing numbers of men and women.

Many changes have been made in our political machinery since the Constitution of the United States was adopted, a few by constitutional amendment, many by acts of Congress and Legislature, but the chief aids to a better operation of our democratic government and society have not been those concerned with new statements of political principles or with reforms of political machinery; they have been those which fostered the improvement of the character, the intelligence, and the will of the political rank and file.

Institutions do not exist on paper, they exist in people. Governments and societies live fully or die, as men and women generally believe or disbelieve in great political and social principles. As citizens feel, think and act on them, or neglect them, do nations rise and fall.

There have been many aids to political intelligence and social understanding developed during the past century, such as better communications, a more active press, and a freer social converse among men of all classes. But none of these instrumentalities can be compared in power and influence with the American system of public education. It is the most unique and significant institutional development of the last century.

There can be no profound understanding of the trend of American life, political and social, material and spiritual, without some approximate comprehension of the position and effect of the public schools of American life.

Judged by the expense account public education has become the largest enterprise of the state. That fact is not overlooked; but it is sometimes misunderstood. That budget is not the product of one body, such as the Federal Congress, or a comparatively small group of bodies, such as the state legislatures; it is the final outcome of the aspirations and realizations of hundreds of thousands of American communities, large and small, each acting upon its own initiative and moved by its own local public opinion. No public expenditure in all American life is more truly democratic than this. It is a response to something fundamental in our American spirit, which exists everywhere in the nation by a universal community sanction. It looks very much as though all America was going to school, as it sometimes goes to war, for the preservation of some principle. And that is the historic fact.

The great public school system of the United States has evolved into the most dependable instrument that America has for safeguarding equality of opportunity and liberty under law, two cornerstones of the Anglo-American structure of democracy. It is for this reason that President Coolidge has said that the American conception of popular education is our greatest national contribution to civilization. We were the first great liberal nation in western civilization to make public education of the whole people an instrument for the improvement and perpetuation of democratic life and government.

How does the public school system contribute to equality of opportunity? I speak of this first, because the "fair chance" or the "square deal" is the most fundamental attitude in the Anglo-Saxon spirit, particularly as you observe it in the American. The greatest source of discontent in the United States is the sense of violated equality of chance. "Fair play" is precious to us. It is this attitude, more than any other which set up "liberty" and craved "fraternity." It is this attitude which created parliaments and congresses, adopted constitutions and bills of rights, developed popular suffrage, and set up courts of justice. It is this same basic craving which created the American public school system. The practical American mind

began early to sense, later to define the fact that an equal opportunity in adult life, under the liberty of an open competition meant nothing to the untrained man who had to race a trained competitor. Equality of opportunity in adult life is only half a chance. The whole chance depended upon equality of opportunity of education in childhood. And the public schools provide this. So precious is this right, as precious as legal justice, that the Americans are always saying we want no politics in either our schools or our courts. They both deal with a very fundamental right about which there can be no compromise or barter.

The public schools cannot make people equal. God made them different to begin with, not merely different in quality, but different in the degree of the possession of every quality. Fortunately, we have no way of knowing in advance how weak or strong any person is. We must have a trial and development ground, and this the public school system of America supplies. It starts in the gutter and reaches through the university. It is as tall as the tallest and as short as the shortest. There are different kinds of rungs to climb on for different kinds of people, as should be the case. But every kind of a child has a right to find out what God gave him and to develop it to the utmost degree. This is the meaning of equality of educational opportunity, one of our most sacred rights, one which we declare today is in the custody of our profession to be conserved, enlarged and protected by it, individually, and collectively, with personal influence and with organized power.

But what is it we have to fear? Nothing if this basic function of the public schools is widely understood—many things if it is not.

Because of the incidents of history the autonomy which schools and courts have in the American government are differently based. That of the courts rests on public opinion and constitutional enactment; that of the schools on public opinion alone, without constitutional aid. Therefore schools are subject to a more insidious influence and a more coercive interference.

When the great federal constitution was written and adopted a public school system, as we now conceive it, had no existence. The federal constitution left education to the states, not because of any definite and well reasoned theory of the relation of public education to our form of government and society, but because education as then provided by local and largely voluntary agencies, was regarded as adequate to the needs then sensed, and the constitution builders left the situation as they found it in the hands of the states where it had been since the earliest colonial days. So there was nothing said of education in the federal constitution.

The state constitutions, particularly those of the western states which were formulated when education was more advanced and its need more strongly felt, guaranteed that an educational system of common schools should exist. Some went so far as to provide in the constitution for higher schools.

But there was one thing that most of the constitutions did not do in any adequate way. They did not guarantee the public schools that autonomous status and mode of operation which would allow schools to develop and perform their functions without undue interference from those social and political forces inimical to their well being and to the protection of those democratic values which the state had commissioned the school to conserve. Such had been done for courts, for legislature but not for public schools, at least neither directly nor adequately. Public opinion had incorporated some less stable protections in statutory law, which of course suffers the defect of being subject to amendment or repeal with every partisan and turbulent change in public opinion.

Without the needed protection, public schools in the United States are being subjected anew to political interference of various sorts.

Not long ago a leading politician boldly asserted that "the man who signed the pay check was the man who should decide what should be taught in the schools and colleges." Now that statement is characteristic of the attitude of a considerable number of the enemies of public education. It is as full of fallacies as it is of implications. •

If the author of this statement meant to carry over into government and education the full methods of business operation in industry, which might be the case, then he did not seem to understand enough of social history to know that we have different institutions because we need different kinds of social tools to do different kinds of social work. The methods of one are never transferable bodily to another. Not even an orphan asylum, scientifically managed, can take the place of a good home.

But there is a more serious specific fallacy involved in the theory that the man who signs the pay check shall decide what ought to be taught in schools. It is the abrogation of expert service and human efficiency in democracy. Does the patient who pays the hospital bill decide what therapeutics and operative procedures should be part of the treatment? If he does, he lacks good sense and risks his health if not his life. He had better leave it to the trained profession of doctors. They are not infallible, but they are wiser than laymen in this matter. It is the same with education. Democracy with good sense cannot escape reliance on expert service in education any more than it can in law, engineering, or medicine.

The laity can and ought to decide the ultimate purposes of schools in terms of the very general democratic purposes to be served; it should decide how much sacrifice it can make for their realization in terms of money sacrifices either in public taxes or in the length of period that young people are to be supported in economic leisure, but the laity is not competent to decide on the specific means which will accomplish the particular results demanded for the money available. This is the business of the scientifically trained scholar and educator. And he must not be frustrated with ignorant or selfish interference.

But the worst consequence of the theory mentioned when carried into practice is that it opens the way to the corruption of education for the

disinterested purposes of human personality and society by the ease with which it would allow schools to be used for propaganda.

Shall we subscribe to the doctrine that whoever gets control of the schools by controlling the governing boards, directly or indirectly, shall determine the subjects to be taught and the methods of instruction to be used?

Russia has subscribed to that dogma completely, and class prejudice and twisted facts now take the place of God's truth scientifically revealed, in the curricula of Russian schools. They are not free schools liberating the mind, but captivating institutions enslaving it.

Germany before the war, in a milder and more partial way, used its schools to hypnotize its young citizens with the imperial destiny and greatness of the German Empire. This made it easy for the governing class to hurry an uncritical country into a fatal foreign war, and to bring down on their own heads a domestic revolution. Infinitely safer is a democracy that gives its youth the truth about everything and trains them in the power to think sincerely for themselves. Schools should not be made into mental prisons where minds are closed by propaganda instead of opened by the search for truth, which is the chief use that good schools have.

Truth, justice, liberty, and fraternity have their well established facts and principles and neither the will of a dictator, nor an oligarchy nor a majority of the populace can change or abolish them. They are to be respected and obeyed in good government and good educating exactly as a good engineer discovers, reveres and obeys the laws of physical forces. All that can be invented in an arrangement of living and working so that the natural and spiritual forces, undeniable and irrefutable, will serve man's better purposes.

We are in the United States, beginning somewhat subtly but dangerously to respond to special pressures to use the school for propaganda, good, indifferent, and bad. Chambers of commerce, clubs, corporations, industries and other associations are exerting an influence which will break up the balanced human program of the schools designed for the development of wholesome human character and personality and the ultimate service of the general public welfare. Their insistence that special school days and weeks be set aside for some special interest or purpose, however good, opens the way to every organized special interest that would like to work on youth when its plastic innocence makes it an easy victim. These children must be safeguarded by the educational profession.

In one year, fifty-four such requests came to the desk of a single public school administrator. Submission to all these requests would have given the young students the most lopsided and prejudiced course of training that could have been devised. The public school cannot be made an intellectual handmaiden to all the special interest advertising campaigns now under way in this country. From all these, we must declare our independence, that the schools themselves may be free to perform their real functions,

There is another kind of propagandist, infinitely more shrewd and ambitious. What he cannot do with school men and local school boards, he tries to do through legislatures. He is usually a reformer who pleads that public good is to be served. So he blocks out a portion of the curriculum and claims it as his own, getting the legislature to say that that time in this and that school must be given to teaching the thing he or his group wants. The purpose is noble and he succeeds in getting a law, but not always a result. His method is bad. He wants an operation on society through the school and its children and he does not know how to operate. The result is a failure. At the close of the war, many states passed laws under post war fervor calling for compulsory physical training. But no provision was made for the special training of teachers in this field. The law was to go into effect at once, so the incompetents at hand proceeded to do the work or the law was neglected, which is not good for laws. This is merely a sample.

The same disposition to get big results quickly is seen in the recent tendency toward the centralization of functions and powers in government. It threatens effective government and engulfs education. It usually occurs in connection with the economy movement in government. Give the executive or some board, complete power, says the financial reformer, and you do not have to convince or coerce a thousand local communities and a million citizens. A few public officers can be managed particularly if they are appointed or elected with this in mind. This may make for quick action, but it unmakes democracy. It is substituting for the rule of the people, the rule of pseudo-kings manipulated by coercive minorities behind the thrones. One of the greatest problems in our contemporaneous life is to determine what properly belongs to a centralized government and what to local governments, what should be operated by autonomous boards or commissions and what swept under the control of a general executive. Education in the course of recent years has been dragged too far away from local and separated government control where it has operated best. The dangers of centralized bureaucratic control are real for education, and so are those which come from dumping educational management into a general executive's hopper where non-partisan matters are influenced by the other affairs subject to partisan solution. Education should court direct responsibility to the people as a whole and avoid the direct responsibility which passes through a partisan faction temporarily in power, in order to solve certain political problems which are not closely related to education. It is better to have boards of trustees for schools elected by the people than appointed, and expert school officers should be appointed, not elected.

For awhile reform in municipal government such as the establishment of the commission form dragged education into the maelstrom of general political government but we have largely extricated ourselves from that difficulty and regained our traditional freedom. The establishment of city managers has not repeated the mistake. The lesson had been learned.

Practically everywhere, save for a few conspicuous exceptions in large cities, elementary schools and high schools have their own school districts not necessarily coincident with political units for general political purposes. Such districts elect their own school trustees, and the common council or aldermen have practically nothing to say about schools. They levy their own taxes and vote their own bonds under a general grant of freedom circumscribed by state law.

No such spirit or method obtains in higher schools which serve a state wide district, except that they have their own governing boards. But too often these governing boards are appointed by the governor and as a matter of convenience, instead of being elected by the people, and often this leads to the appointment of politically-minded rather than educationally-minded trustees or regents, and in extreme cases of abuse, to the appointment of puppets who merely do a governor's will, giving a one-man control of higher education, the reverse of everything which is truly popular and democratic. A few states protect their colleges and universities by constitutional provisions which serve as special charters as in the case of Michigan and California. But the lamentable incidents which have recently occurred in Kansas, New Mexico and Arizona and which are likely to be repeated at any time in a half dozen other states are indicative of the fact that the common schools are better safeguarded than higher schools, where science and research in untrodden fields is more likely to need protection for truth speaking.

Education cannot be declared free of partisan politics until the great national profession of educators and the public which understands the true relation of public education to government has effectively turned its attention to the state control of higher schools and to the municipal control of common schools in some of our largest cities. Chicago is an example of a city where the most disgraceful demagoguery of recent days has dragged the school management through a campaign of misrepresentation which is almost unparalleled. The mayor of the city should have nothing whatever to do with the control of the schools. A special board of education elected directly by the people from a Chicago school district should be charged with their management. There are other less dramatic instances which might be cited.

Wherever state boards of education have managerial powers over schools and school appointments, they too should be elected by the people, and state superintendents of public instruction should be appointed whenever they are the chief executives of such boards.

On all these unsolved problems the American profession of education should study the experience and agree upon the principles which should be incorporated into school charters and codes. It is distinctly a professional obligation to let the people know how it can keep all its schools as free from partisan politics as is possible in a democracy. The public will give the required support sooner or later as it always had when properly informed.

We have now come upon a day when theological factions are beginning to interfere with public schooling, in spite of the fact that church and state are separate in America. Long ago history taught us through the tragedies of persecution and martyrdom, that they were better apart. When we separated church and state, including the state's schools, we at the same time guaranteed to every man the right to follow his own conscience in matters of religious belief. Those that are themselves free are not always tolerant. They would even use the state to deprive the students in the state's school of the right to arrive at their own beliefs outside of school with a full basis of modern scientific knowledge which they must get in schools.

They do not propose positively to inject the teaching of their own special beliefs into the public schools. Their method is round-about and negative. They do propose to get control of legislatures and have them by legislative act of prohibition, veto the teaching of any scientific or scholarly fact, principle or theory which is uncongenial to the religious conviction of their group. Religious interference with the public schools even through a kind of veto is only a step toward injecting theology into the state and the state's affairs. This tendency must be halted by an appeal to history and experience and to sound principle, in the confidence that well-informed people will readily give us a protecting public opinion.

Our state schools must not in the slightest degree become partisan, class or factional schools. There is only one set of canons that determines what is truth for the schools. It belongs to the distinguished institution of science and scholarship. Its methods of determining truth have been long established. The schoolmaster must be scholar enough to know them and to accept the truth they deliver as the best that can be had. It is the product of the disinterested and arduous labors of scholars the world over.

Better than laymen, lawyers know the law, engineers the applications of physical science, and doctors the facts of disease and health. In the same disciplined way scholars know their truth. Once depart from their standards and there is no stopping place. The schools will belong to any person, group or faction that can grab a majority vote of the legislature upon scientific matters. But alas, no majority vote of a legislature or even of the people as a whole can make the world flat when science knows that it is round. The vote of a democracy direct or representative is as futile as the vote or dictum of mediæval monarch.

Scholarship may be inadequate and incomplete, it may go wrong part of the time, but on scientific matters it will be mistaken once where the completely-lay mind will be wrong a thousand times. It is the most dependable thing we have for the purpose and the schools must depend upon it.

And whatever truth we have it is the student's right to receive all of it. We have no more right to keep the truth away from the thinking, growing mind than we have to keep food away from a hungry, growing child. That is what schools are for to give every child in America an equal

access to truth and learning. It is part of the American code and we must live up to it.

But what about that other function of the school, its other corner stone, where freedom is made into liberty by the intervention of education, when freedom would only be license without it? We know that the law, honor, and liberty of a democracy can be sustained only when men are made firm in character and finer in intelligence, and this the public schools aim to do. On this subject I can be brief.

We all know that our modern life has become a race between education and license. If the former cannot overtake the latter, in the disciplining of the human spirit our democratic civilization is lost. I have but to call your attention to the fact that those countries which have accepted dictatorships for more than the brief moments in which some special crisis have had to be met quickly, have, generally speaking, been nations without an adequate system of public education either defective in touching too few citizens, or defective in the training it gave in truth and thought to those it did touch. In such nations the citizens are too uncritical and dull as to be docile to any strong will, or so suggestible that they are the ready victims of any propaganda that reaches their credulous imaginations. This is as true in Europe and the Americas as it is in Asia and Africa.

A nation made up of well-schooled minds knows enough truth about things in general to check up a masquerading lie; it knows how to think both individually and collectively, with sufficient power to suspect that a plausible half truth is not a whole truth.

It may tolerate for awhile, but it will not acclaim for long those arch-foes of democracy—the demagogues—who stimulate the passions of a low selfishness or lie to decent citizens in the hope that they will not be found out.

When Abraham Lincoln suggested that however part of the people could be fooled all the time and all the people part of the time, that all the people could not be fooled all the time, he expressed his faith in the practical ability of the American people to devise ways of keeping themselves intelligent among the growing complexities of a democratic civilization. The public school system is the answer to Lincoln's faith in the common people. Everyone who knows the history of the public school system knows that it was the creation of the common people. It was not handed down by the favored classes.

Just common folks put a primary school within travelling distance of every home whether that home was in the desert, on a mountain or out on the prairies. It was they that democratized our secondary schools, they that cast out the Latin school because it was too exclusive, they that cast out the less exclusive, but still too exclusive private academy, and established the public high school. They are still trying to make secondary schools suit the needs of all kinds of folks, reaching down with the junior high school and reaching up with the junior college.

They developed the state university. And as common folk have flooded through the gates of the high school they are now crowding through the doors of the higher schools and colleges.

The whole tale has been an epic in the folk creation of a great institution fitted to their personal aspirations and suited to their democratic necessities. Behind it was a double determination first, to give their sons and daughters a full chance to be whatever God intended them to be if a school could reveal it, and second to make the liberty of their fathers safe for their children.

The public school is consecrated to these two great purposes, among the most fundamental is American life. And we the educators of this country cannot work in these temples without being consecrated, too. But it means more than service to children, it means an obligation to keep our schools free from all the interferences which would hamper the pursuit of great ends. This can only be done by reawakening that public opinion which once created our school system and must again sustain it, to the end that the integrity of public schools may be maintained and their work kept free from the interferences of the arrogant whom the accidents of politics have brought to transient power, of the demagogue who has temporarily grabbed the public mind, of the selfish who would sell the children into the half slavery of a poor education, and of the ignorant who know not truth or wisdom and yet assert it.

PRESENTATION OF GAVEL

CAROLINE WOODRUFF, PRINCIPAL, STATE NORMAL TRAINING SCHOOL
CASTLETON, VERMONT

On the front page of an old geography is the picture of a boy standing with outstretched arms looking toward the north pole and underneath it says, "If you face the north your right hand will point to the east, your left to the west and south will be behind you." There is a symbolism herein that reminds me of you, Dr. Blair. You stand in your home in Illinois facing north or south—one hand reaching out to grasp the hand of New England, the other the palm of the Pacific, drawing them close together and placing one within the other. You occupy a strategic position in the educational world today, holding together in one the conservative east with the free and boundless west; the chivalrous southland with the frugal, practical north—whichever way you face, your arms outstretched to join the hands of all.

Washington and Vermont are far removed geographically. One with its nearly 70,000 square miles of territory could swallow in one county the other with its less than 10,000 square miles. One with its 1,350,000 people far outnumbers the other with only 350,000—less in number than those within the walls of the city in which we are gathered. One had its birth less than forty years ago and is today acting as gracious host to this great organization; the other this very year is observing its sesquicentennial with dignity becoming its age. And you, son of the middle west, are the

bond today that professionally makes us all one in a common interest—that interest the children of America, east, west, north, south.

It seems to us in Vermont a fitting occasion to show some recognition of the President of the greatest national body of educators known on earth, by the state in which was born the President of the greatest nation on earth. And so today on its one hundred and fiftieth birthday, the little state which existed as an independent commonwealth for the first fourteen years of its history; the state in which was founded the first normal school in America at Concord in 1823—this little state through one of its normal schools today presents you this gavel.

The base is made from wood grown on the site of the old hall in Westminster, where, in 1777, Vermont declared her independence through a little group of hardy, intrepid pioneers who had settled in what was then known as New Hampshire Grants. It signifies freedom and self-reliance.

The wood from which the head is made grew on the field of the Battle of Bennington, which took place August 16, 1777, and is considered by historians the turning point in the Revolution. It signifies courage, sagacity and indomitable will.

The handle signifies authority, leadership, power. It came from a tree still standing on the little Plymouth farm, where fifty-three years ago this very hour on July 4, 1874, Calvin Coolidge first saw the light of day and who, himself, has graciously given the wood to be used for this purpose.

The State Normal Training School at Castleton, Vermont, in presenting this symbol of authority, expresses to you, Dr. Blair, and through you to all this great organization of which you are the chosen leader, the greetings, the love and the loyalty of the Green Mountain State.

THE AMERICAN MELTING POT

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
AND STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

(Stenographic Report)

"America is the melting pot of the world."

That statement has been declared by one of our literary critics to be the greatest figure of speech ever coined in this country. The man who uttered it, though born upon foreign soil, had become a truly, soundly American citizen. Some doubting Thomases who, seeing the influx of foreign elements into our country feared their disorganizing influences, knowing that every European war had found its response in America as something of the bitterness and hatreds were wafted across the ocean. They feared that these latent prejudices would endanger the unity, the solidarity of American life. To these doubters this foreign-born American citizen made his famous statement, 'Fear not, for America is the melting pot of the world.'

Everyone knows the concrete background of this figure. He has seen the junk man as he goes about collecting old iron. Here he picks up an

old sewing machine, with its bearings worn out, here an old hay rake, a threshing machine, a stationary engine, no longer fit for service. He loads them on the flat car, carries them to the foundry; where they are broken into little bits and heaved into the great caldron. There in that sparkling, sputtering mass we cannot tell where sewing machine begins or hay rake leaves off. This molten stream is run through conduits into new molds to fashion new sewing machines, new hay rakes, new threshing machines, new stationary engines, after a more modern model, to do a larger quantity and a better quality of work within a given time.

The gentleman who coined this figure no doubt saw these human machines coming from the four corners of the earth, bringing with them their ancestral differences, their national prejudices, their difference in religious creeds; he saw them all cast into the great caldron of American life, melted down and molded into his conception of the new American citizen, who should live and work with his fellows in a spirit of good sportsmanship and in unity of effort toward the achievement of American ideals.

Of course, every figure of speech has its limitations. We do not want to melt out of these foreign elements those great qualities which have contributed so much to the upbuilding of our republic. We do not want the melting pot to take out of the Lindberghs those transcendent qualities that prepare them for preeminent American citizenship.

If this figure is a true expression of American influence, what is it in this country that does the melting? No doubt the great expanse of our country with its diversity of climate and natural resource does something in this line. No doubt the spirit of our form of government as expressed in its Declaration of Independence and its Constitution has something to do with it. No doubt our great principle of religious freedom has wrought mightily in this unifying process. But, speaking without any prejudice, I believe that the great American school system is the very pit of this melting pot. Here the ancient foreign prejudices are melted out of the youth and the best that was brought and the best that is here are fused together.

What in the American school system tends toward this accomplishment? First, the playgrounds in connection with our schools. I believe that the American school playground is the greatest kindergarten of democracy ever conceived. Here children of native and foreign-born citizens meet and mingle together under the most favorable circumstances.

To illustrate: In one of our central Illinois cities there lived a gentleman of English extraction, of great wealth and high social standing. He owned the major stock in one of the large banks, large tracts of farm land, and blocks of city property. Having an Englishman's predilection toward a private school, he had his three children in a small private school, where there were six teachers for the seventeen pupils enrolled.

One day this gentleman approached a schoolmaster who had come to the city the year before. "You may or may not know," he said, "that I have my two daughters and my son in a small private school. I believe

it is good for my daughters, but I fear it is not good for my son. I fear certain snobbish, aristocratic tendencies which are appearing. I want to put him in a larger school where he will have contacts with a larger number of boys. I have decided to put him in a public school, and have come to you to ask your advice as to what school I should choose."

The schoolmaster said that on coming to the city the year before he had been given the option of sending his two sons to one of two central elementary schools, and that he, after a study, had chosen a certain one. The gentleman said, "That is the reason I came to you, and my preference is for the school you have chosen for your sons, but my wife has heard that the boys are inclined to be rough on the playgrounds, and she desired that I should ask you particularly about that point." The schoolmaster assured him it was true, that there had been some rough practices upon the playgrounds, but that he felt that some of the best lessons his sons had learned had been learned in their contacts with the boys in their games and play.

The gentleman thereupon said, "I am going home to tell my wife that my son will have to deal with these boys when they are grown to be men, and if he cannot hold his own with them, we had better find it out now."

The next Monday morning, some three weeks after the school had begun, this distinguished gentleman came down to this ward school, leading his son by the hand. When they came to the gate in front of the school building the principal, looking from his office, saw the stately father say a word of goodbye to his son, then with body erect, never turning his head to look back, he walked down the street.

The young lad, dressed like a little Lord Fauntleroy, to express the fancy of his mother, entered the gate and started toward the school building. Now, the average boy who enters a public school for the first time and finds lined up on either side of the walk some of the boys who are on familiar ground, is timid and hesitant about his first approach to the school building. Not so with this scion of English aristocracy. He stepped upon the ground with an air of superiority, as if to say to the other boys, "Take a look at me and see who has condescended to come down to your school. My father owns large tracts of land, large blocks of city property, and bank stocks."

Well, the boys took a look at him and then expressed their opinion, not perhaps in these words, but with this meaning: "Why, you little upstart, do you think you can come down to this school and have your father's wealth and social standing carry you through? Here upon these grounds it is the principle of Bobby Burns which obtains:

What though on hamely fare we dine,
Wear hoddin gray and a' that;
Gie fools their silks, and knaves their wine,
A man's a man for a' that.
For a' that, and a' that,
Their tinsel show, and a' that;
The honest man, though e'er sae poor,
Is king o' men for a' that.

Ye see yón birkie, ca'd a' lord,
Wha struts, and stares, and a' that;
Though hundreds worship at his word,
He's but a coof for a' that;
For a' that, and a' that,
His ribbon, star, and a' that;
The man of independent mind,
He looks and laughs at a' that.

When the shades of night had fallen on this boy's first day in that school, and he meandered home, he bore unmistakable marks upon his face and clothing that something rough had happened upon the playgrounds. And when his mother took her fond offspring upon her lap to patch up the bruises and smooth out the wrinkles, she realized for a certainty that her delicate son had hit up against the rude world of democracy in a brand new way, and that he was learning some of the lessons which he needed to learn through the rude pedagogy of another boy's hand.

He came down to that school with his first name William. He had not been there ten days until the boys had tacked on to him the name Pete, which name he carried through the elementary school and through the high school. And in the seventh grade he became a member of the football team, whose captain was called Chappie, the son of the man who ran the laundry.

One afternoon when the ground was muddy and the order came for Pete to get down the line, he did not comply. The captain slapped him on the back saying "Get down when I tell you. Do you think you are at one of your mother's pink teas?"

Pete always resented any kind of an allusion to his mother or his sisters, and left the grounds in a temper, telling his father that he was not going to play any longer on the team "with those roughnecks from the laundry." The father asked: "Did you engage to play the season through with those lads?" "Oh, I did, but I am not going to have them bawling me out in the rough fashion they did this afternoon."

The father, who has told the story with great pride, said to his son: "If you engaged to play the season through, you will go back and finish it, or you are no son of mine." The father had the satisfaction in a few weeks of having his son come to him and invite him to go out and see the team play another seventh grade, and of having his son say "I know what I said about Chappie, but I have learned to respect him. I see now why he was chosen captain of the team; he knows how to get the boys to pull together."

Not far from where Pete sat in that seventh grade room was a lad with a copper-colored skin, whose father sold fruit down on the streets of the city. Pete, knowing the lowly calling of the father, would not have recognized this boy as being one of his class, but one day, as the seventh grade sang, he heard one voice rising above the others like the song of a meadowlark. He looked, he could not be mistaken, it was Tony, the son of the fruit peddler.

Pete went home to say to his mother, "You know this matter of singing—I have thought it was all right for women and girls but not for men, and least of all for boys, but I have found one boy in our school who sings as I never heard anyone else sing. I want you to invite him to our home so that you and my father and my sisters may hear him."

One June evening toward the close of that year Tony was invited and came, dressed up as perhaps he never was before, and as he stood by the piano with one of Pete's sisters playing, through the open window came the voice of Tony. Into his blood corpuscles and nerve cells music had been singing itself for thousands of years, but Pete would never have discovered him had he not been thrown into these contacts in that kind of a school situation.

Not far from where he sat in the eighth grade there sat a son of the then governor of that state. Some days before it had been decided what school the governor's son would attend, Pete had spoken often at his home about their desire to have the governor select their school, but when the selection had been made and the governor's son had entered the class, Pete became noticeably quiet on the matter.

The father asked him why he did not speak more about the governor's son. Pete's reply was "He is a sore disappointment to me. You know, I always thought that the son of a governor would be born into the world with the multiplication table already worked out in his memory; that he would know all that needed to be known about geography, history, and the other subjects, but he is as dull as I am; in the arithmetic class he is even more stupid."

The father in narrating it said, "My boy evidently had the idea that the great achievement of the father would descend with his name like a mantle upon his son. He was learning the great lesson that in this republic every one must work out for himself his own salvation with fear and trembling."

In the same class there sat two boys, the sons of a coal miner, a thrifty coal miner who had purchased his residence down in that part of the city. Pete would not ordinarily have paid any attention to these boys, but in the arithmetic class, as often occurs, one of these boys was the leader, and Pete was very dull. With the same selective power of his father, Pete soon found the ones who knew, and sought their advice and assistance.

One day when Pete's mother came down to the school in her limousine to straighten out some difficulty that her boy had gotten into, she entered the school at recess time and found her boy sitting on one end of a single seat, the other end of which was occupied by one of the coal miner's boys. When she sought an explanation of this, she found it. They had the book open at the miscellaneous problems following common fractions, and the coal miner's boy, with his pencil, was opening the doors of these mathematic mysteries to the dull mind of Pete, and he was coming to realize that ability did not always bear the label of distinguished families.

When the midwinter promotion came in that grade, out stepped Pete.

the son of the banker, by his side Tony, the son of the fruit peddler, the coal miner's boys, Chappie, from the laundry, and the governor's son, all marching down to the high school, keeping step to the music of American education.

I do not hold that it is necessary to the soundest kind of democracy that Pete shall always be inviting these boys to his home. One's own social circle he must determine for himself, but I can see Pete in the future sitting out in front of his father's bank, and one day as he looks out recognizing the coal miner's son, and beckoning him to come in, and saying to him: "Old man, I don't get to see enough of you." I can see him on another day driving through the streets and suddenly stopping his car, throwing open the door, and grasping the hand of Tony and saying to him: "Old man, I haven't heard you sing in a long time. I want you to come over and spend an evening with me."

It is in just such situations as these that we are shooting to death those ancient antipathies and prejudices which annually drench the soil of Europe in blood.

Barnum gave to America the happy family idea. He took the cubs and the kittens of jungle animals, with their ancient hatreds, he put them together in the same cage. He let them eat together and play together. They grew up to maturity as if they had been born out of a common womb, but other cubs and kittens that had been kept separate retained their same jungle animosities.

It is the great opportunity which the American playground offers in bringing together the boys and girls before these prejudices have developed too far, and allowing them to meet and to know each other, that constitutes it an important part of the melting pot.

Now, when we enter into the schoolroom itself, what influences are at work there in this unifying, up-building process? First of all, the American school system must see to it that the children of foreign born and native born alike shall come to read and think and write in a common language. That is one of the most unifying of all the educational influences.

I do not wish to be misunderstood; I have no prejudice against the teaching of any foreign language in our schools. I think the American people made a sorry exhibition of themselves in the heat and temper of the Great War. In one Illinois city a protest was made against the board of education offering German in the high school. When the board did not accede to this protest, a mob came down to the school building, took every book that was printed in German, piled them in a heap in the street and burned them. Amongst that number was *William Tell*, one of the greatest primers of democracy ever written.

I have no prejudice against the teaching of any language as a subject of instruction, but as the language of the country there can be but one. If I had been born and reared in some European country which had been conquered by an enemy which sought to thrust down my intellectual neck the language of the conqueror, I should have resented it, but America has

forced no one to come to its shores. Coming as they do, they must know that here the English language is the language in which we read and think and write and converse, therefore, we are not violating any principle of personal rights when we insist that everyone shall acquire this medium of expression.

A nation that is like a Tower of Babel can never be unified in spirit or in action. I once attended a parents' meeting in a coal mining district. There were some seventy mothers present. I noticed sitting on the seats toward the front several women with shawls over their heads. They were apparently very interested in the program. When it was over the principal asked me if I would not like to meet some of the mothers. I replied that it was a short winter day and I had no doubt they would need to get home early, and I would not detain them. "Oh," he said, "we are going to have refreshments. The girls are here to serve us now, and I could introduce you to a number of them if you would care to have me." Turning to the women with the shawls over their heads, I said, "I would be pleased to meet some of those ladies, they seemed so interested in what I had to say." He said, "You have asked an impossibility. I know most of them I have been in some of their homes. They have been in this country, some of them, ten or fifteen years, but they work like beasts of burden; they have large families, and they have not had time to learn much of the English language. I do not think I could introduce you." Then he stopped and said, "What am I thinking about—I can have you introduced." And motioning to one of the girls who was getting ready to serve, he said, "Louisa, will you please come to the front?" Down the aisle came a girl who must have been fifteen or sixteen years of age, neatly dressed, rather homely looking. The principal said, "Louisa, Mr. Blair would like to meet your mother." And with as fine grace as I have ever seen in a drawing room, Louisa said, "I will be pleased to introduce you to my mother." She did, and to two or three of the other women.

Now, between Louisa and me there was perfect understanding. I spoke, and my words hit full of meaning upon her ear. She spoke and I understood, but Louisa's mother, who listened with such apparent respect and attention, could not understand many of the words I uttered, and though I knew something of the high language of the country from which she came, she spoke a dialect which I could not understand.

How easy it would have been for Louisa's mother, not comprehending what was said, to have gone back to her neighborhood and have said, "The superintendent of public instruction says so and so," whether he said it or not.

In America, if we are to think as with one brain and feel with one heart and act as one man, we must all come to read and think and write and speak in a common language.

Another force that acts mightily in the melting pot process is the music in our schools. There was a time during my boyhood days when music

was not much of an educational influence; it was more of a physical exercise. But through the trained teachers and supervisors of music, it has introduced into our school system one of the most formative and creative influences in the unifying of the American spirit.

Two boys may sit in an arithmetic class and get up hating each other because of the competitions and rivalries which are aroused, but let those two boys stand and sing the same song and the spirit of kinship arises within them.

Many of you knew as I did Henry Pattengill, of Michigan. He was a school teacher and the leader of music. Once in a Pennsylvania institute I worked with him. At that time he was not in good health, and after the institute was over he and I were sitting on the mountain side as the sun was setting. He became somewhat reminiscent. He said he had been in practically every state of the Union, and that wherever he had gone into the schools he had asked the children to join with him in singing one song; that in all these undertakings he had never been disappointed from the third grade up to the high school. He would sing one line of that song and the children would come back with the other line, and so together to the end of the song. Then he said, "I hope some day before I go hence that I may, at least in my imagination, be placed on some central mountain, from which with gifted vision I may look out over this vast country; that by my side I may have a great choir leader; that he may stand and say to the twenty-five million of school children of America, "Boys and girls, Mr. Pattengill, who has heard some of you sing in every state in the Union, desires before he goes to hear you sing that song he loves." Then, as these twenty-five million of children stand, the great song is lifted—"My country, 'tis of thee, Sweet land of liberty, of thee I sing; Land of the pilgrim's pride; Land where my fathers died; From every mountain side let freedom ring."

Who can doubt, as that mighty song lifts above the Allegheny Mountains, sweeps across the Mississippi Valley, and over the Rockies to the Golden Gate, that out of its womb these twenty-five million of children are born into a feeling of kinship, one with the other, into a spirit of national unity?

Another force within the schoolroom which cannot be overlooked is the influence of our historic ideals.

I grant every nation the right to select and hold before its youth the lives and character of its great men, but I cannot avoid the feeling that the teachers of America are peculiarly favored in having two such great characters as George Washington and Abraham Lincoln to hold up before the youth of this republic; very unlike in some respects, one the wealthiest man in his country at the time, the other perhaps the poorest man, and yet so strikingly similar in the main outlines of their character; both so simple we can teach them to the children in the kindergarten, and yet so deep in their thought and statesmanship that our scholars in the universities are still studying them.

I can see on a certain day a teacher in a schoolroom turn the pages of her history, which she touches with the finger of her imagination, and down from Yorktown and Valley Forge comes the stately form of George Washington, entering the schoolroom, in order that the children may see and understand and be invigorated by his great personality and his great character.

On another day I can see her turn another page of that history and at the door stands the gaunt form of Abraham Lincoln. Stooping, he enters, walks down the aisle and takes his seat by the children, moving aside his mantle in order that they may feel the throb of his great heart and feel the elemental force of his great life and his great character.

In this Americanizing influence, ladies and gentlemen, the lives of these two great men are of more value than all the output of our fields and our mines and our forests, greater than the output of our factories, greater than all other influences which we can bring to bear in the school upon the lives of our children.

The last influence in this great puddling pot which I shall mention, and in my mind the greatest of all, is the teacher. Above school grounds, athletic fields, buildings, laboratories, libraries, courses of study, rises supreme the character and influence of the teacher. If the teacher fails, the entire system fails. If she succeeds, all is success.

Some years ago I was called by a county superintendent in Illinois to visit a school, which he called "the disgrace of Illinois."

It was a coal mining community. People had gathered from every corner of the earth around these mines, and a town had grown up. My first view was of a great, ugly eight-room frame school building, painted a dark green. The school yard was covered with slack from the coal mine. Old benches were sitting on the outside with tin pans for the children to wash their faces and hands in before entering the school.

It was a warm October day. The first room I entered was the first grade or primary room. Here I learned there were seventy-two children enrolled, representing nationalities that spoke seven different languages. There were children in the room ranging in age from six to fourteen years. The room had a stove in its center; there were old double seats filled with three children on a seat, and a number were sitting on the platform around the teacher's desk.

I looked out of the window and saw the forbidding sight of houses and saloons that encircled the school building. I considered the bad physical equipment and the crowded condition of these children and agreed with the county superintendent that it was a disgrace to Illinois and the nation.

My attention was attracted by one girl sitting in the middle of one of these two-seated benches. She must have been nine or ten years of age, dressed in heavy black clothing, heavy black wool stockings and heavy shoes. Her long, black hair was plaited and tied with a ribbon. She had an earnest, serious and somewhat homely face. In her hands she held a

slate and was copying off of the board a word which the teacher had written.

I said to myself, "Is this what we do in this boasted republic to make American citizens out of the foreign born? Can we instill into them the ideals of America by crowding them into such a situation as this and setting them to copying a word off of the board?"

I thought of the mother, a mere beast of burden, who had prepared that girl for school that morning. In my mind's eye I could see her as she plaited her hair, and hear her saying to herself, "I have never had any joy or comfort in life, but I will send this girl down to the public school and she will become a fine woman." And we had taken her and put her into such a situation.

I stepped over and saw one remarkable thing, that every time she copied the word it was an improvement over the previous effort. This was conclusive that she came of foreign-born parents. But just as I was feeling downcast over the situation, I heard the voice of the teacher as she stood in the door talking to the county superintendent. She was a beautiful young woman, not beyond twenty-two years of age, beautifully dressed. As she stepped into the room every child seemed to fix its eyes upon her, and as she moved down the aisle there was adoration in the eyes of all those who looked upon her. As she passed near the desk where the girl sat with the slate in her hand, I saw this girl reach around the girl on the side of her and touch the skirt of the teacher as she passed by, and it seemed as if the girl were saying, "If I can just touch the hem of her garment I will be a better woman."

I began to see that with all the untoward physical conditions into which these children had been thrown that here was the saving element—the teacher.

I was told that every morning when the children came to this room they came in to speak to the teacher and to linger about her desk. Every noon and afternoon when they went home they came to tell her goodbye. I understood afterwards when the chairman of the board of education, five members of which were born upon foreign soil—the president, Italian born—I understood what he meant when he asked me how they could keep the children away from the school before eight o'clock in the morning, protesting in his broken language that the children wanted to come to the school to see the teachers. Why shouldn't they? Many of them had never looked into the face of a mother who had the time to understand and to appreciate them. Here was a woman of rare intelligence and rare personality, who, I came to believe, was rendering a larger service to the state and to the nation than any other type of public official that I knew of; that she was doing the real missionary work of the republic; that she was the master workman in the great puddling pot of the school. And, ladies and gentlemen, on this the natal day of our republic, I believe that we can declare without hesitation that the perpetuity of this wide-flung nation, its solidarity, its unity of aim and purpose and effort, are

more in the hands of that kind of teacher than in any other one influence at work in America.

To change the figure, as long as the five hundred thousand teachers of America are painting upon the canvas of the minds and hearts of twenty-five millions of children the great American ideals, the great faces of Geroge Washington and Abraham Lincoln, we can feel a large sense of security in the future of this republic. This great Association, whose objective is to elevate and exalt the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education throughout the United States, is giving over this program to the consideration of the economic, social and professional conditions and needs of the teachers of America—the first and last line of defense of the republic.

We believe that the citizens in the districts, counties and states of the republic must come more and more to see that the having and holding of the right kind of a teacher in the schools of America is the chiefest concern of the growing republic.

THE POLICY OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION TOWARDS THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY AND THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, PRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, AND
STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

I have heard that in a discussion in a colored church where a great deal of heat was being had over the question of evolution and fundamentalism, one of the brethren became highly heated, and he expressed himself in somewhat this language: "Ah'm not so interested about where Ah came from as in where Ah'm at and where Ah'm gwine." And I believe a discussion of the status of any individual or any organization by practical minded people will disclose the fact that they are at the present time not as much interested in where they are as in where they are headed for, but I do believe in considering the present status of the National Education Association. We can well heed the words of Patrick Henry when he said, "The best lamp by which we can light the path of the present and the future is the lamp of experience." And we cannot avoid a little bit of historic fact when we come to consider the present status of this great Association.

I think perhaps I am the oldest active member present. I am going to assume so. I joined this Association as an active member in 1897, when there was a membership of a little over seven thousand, with a total income of less than twenty-five thousand dollars; when the secretary's office cost this Association less than six thousand dollars—a secretary, a stenographer, a clerk, and something like that, constituting the entire force.

Now, from that beginning in 1897 we have come to a great Association with an income of between four and five hundred thousand dollars; with a great central office consisting of a hundred and twenty members, with

an annual cost in salaries alone of somewhere around one hundred forty thousand dollars, and other expenses, making this great central office cost around two hundred thousand dollars a year; with a great membership of a hundred seventy-five thousand delegates and members. From these facts we can very easily see that what might have been perfectly proper and effective in 1897 may not properly meet the needs of the new emergencies which this growth has brought upon us. It is, therefore, nothing at all in the way of criticism upon any man or any group of men, who, as these things have come about, have met the situations as they saw them, who have met them courageously, met them intelligently—I say it is no criticism upon them that once in a while we review the situation, the whole situation, in the National Education Association; that we inspect our incorporation, that we inspect the constitution and bylaws to see if they are functioning, and to see if there is needed any new adjustment to meet the changed conditions, and to provide for the future.

When your present president was elected at the Philadelphia meeting there was never a shorn lamb on the north side of a strawstack in December that was ever more unfurnished in his knowledge of the inner workings of this Association than I was at that time. I felt I knew nothing. I had enjoyed going to these conventions since 1897, and I wanted to hear the programs. I wanted to meet with the great personalities that came to these conventions, and I was perfectly willing for the men and women who had a desire to guide the Association to guide it. I had never read the charter or the bylaws of this Association. I make that as a confession, but one of my first duties, called to my attention by this vigilant individual on my left (indicating Secretary Crabtree), was that there was to be a meeting of the Executive Committee in Chicago, and he began to outline to me the things that would come before that committee. Appropriations amounting to over two hundred thousand dollars were to be made by the Executive Committee; great policies were to be considered and adopted by it. With twenty years' experience in public office, where I always had to know what my authority was for doing things, I began to inquire into what authority the Executive Committee had in managing the affairs of this Association, in making appropriations, in taking initial action on great policies, and I became convinced after reading over the charter and bylaws that the Executive Committee was just as its name indicates, merely a committee to carry out and to carry into execution the policies of legislation of the Board of Directors as passed upon officially by that Board.

I consulted three of the assistant attorneys in the attorney general's office of the state of Illinois, and they all agreed that the Executive Committee was merely an administrative body to carry into effect the legislation enacted by the Board of Directors. And after I had read through the bylaws, the constitution and the minutes of the National Education Association from 1859 down to the present time, save about six or eight years when the minutes had not been printed, after I had done that, before

going to that committee meeting at Chicago, I formulated what I called some objectives. I presented them to the committee at Chicago. They have been printed, they have been sent to you, but I wish to read them in order that they may become a part of the minutes of this Association.

1. The committee which was authorized at the Philadelphia meeting on delegate representation and other kindred subjects should make a thorough study of the charter and bylaws, and with competent legal counsel prepare a report on what changes should be made in the charter and bylaws to make clear the respective powers and limitations of the Representative Assembly, the Board of Directors, and the Executive Committee. I believe that unless such a study is made and such action is effected that grave misunderstandings and obstructions of the work of the Association will be inevitable.

When that committee came to be appointed I looked the country over to find a man who had the vision and the courage to do a piece of work of that magnitude, as Mr. Crabtree and others had suggested it should be done, and it came almost, as I thought, like an inspiration who that man should be. The one man cut out for this place was Superintendent Claxton, now of Tulsa, Oklahoma, former United States Commissioner of Education.

When I first presented it to him he said he did not like to undertake so big a task, but finally consented. He has given his great abilities and strength to this task. I never saw such a glutton for work in my life. He has kept that committee in session every time I have been with them past twelve o'clock at night, and has gone into the whole matter thoroughly, and he is going to make a report to this Association which I am sure you will consider and reflect upon.

You may not agree with all of it, but the more you reflect upon it the more you will come to realize that this committee has done a fine piece of work, looking toward the future growth of this Association.

2. That the large work undertaken by the committee on committees should be carried forward until every committee which is covering the field of any existing department shall be made an organic part of that department, leaving of course the matter of funds allotted to them in the hands of the Representative Assembly and the Board of Directors.

There is no criticism at all in what I say, but when I discovered almost one hundred committees on research and investigation, many of them covering identically the same field covered by a department—a sort of a pedagogic double-headed rooster, one head attempting to go north and the other south—it was out of the heart and mind of Mr. Newlon, I think, that the idea came at the Philadelphia meeting that committees covering the same field as the departments should be made a part of that department.

After reading that report I believe that you will agree that when the history of this Association is written it will be put down as one of the most forward-looking, courageous pieces of work ever undertaken by this Association. And if you could have seen some of the follow-ups when

these committees were disposed of, how difficult the situation was, and how Mr. Newlon and the officers in charge had to steel their hearts and minds in order to stand by that, you would more fully understand the courage it required.

I believe these departments will become greater as the working laboratories of the Association, when each committee that covers the field of a department shall be merged into that department and become responsible to that department.

3. All departments of the Association should be strengthened to make them more productive in the line of research, and more constructive in formulating principles and policies of educational procedure.

I believe there is no danger to this Association in giving a large degree of autonomy to these departments. I believe in the next fifty years this Association is going to grow through their growth. This year one of the greatest achievements within twenty or twenty-five years will be the organization of the Department of Junior Colleges and Senior and Junior High Schools. It will be on about a par with the Department of Superintendence.

The Representative Assembly and the Board of Directors, both of them legislative bodies, are going to legislate for this body and make the appropriations for this body, but the departments are going to be the great educational laboratories of this Association.

In absence of those whom I asked to discuss the future of the departments, Mr. Newlon will discuss that along with his other topic.

4. No more important objective is before us than a thorough-going effort to make the Representative Assembly a real, deliberative, legislative body, and placing before it only definite proposals from departments and committees for their consideration, discussion and action. These proposals should be referred to the committees formed within the delegate body and reported back for action. This great assembly should not be a mere passive, listening body. It should be an active, formative, legislative assembly.

I have become convinced, ladies and gentlemen and delegates, that the one greatest thing done in this Association within the last quarter century was the formation of this Representative Assembly. The men and women who conceived it were men and women of vision, and I wish we had them here to do honor to them.

I have been told by the man who was most instrumental in getting this assembly organized that they were afraid they could not keep the body engaged. They began the practice of the presentation of reports of special committees, and I am sure that plan served a useful purpose, but in the last three Representative Assemblies I have attended I became convinced that this representative body was having too much of its time taken up in listening to reports, and not enough time was being spent in considering and passing on the concrete objectives and plans of the organization. Already this year a beginning has been made in having the reports of these special committees made to the Executive Committee, the Board of Direc-

tors and the Board of Trustees, and only definite proposals requiring discussion and action to come before this assembly.

5. Either the charter should be amended so as to do away with the Board of Directors, or we should set ourselves resolutely to restore this body to its great functional place as the chief legislative authority on all the large business interests of the Association. Without any criticism of anyone, I feel that the Board of Directors has become a mere receiving, listening, approving body for the Executive Committee. If it should be decided that the interests of the Association can be transacted in a more economic and efficient way by the Executive Committee, let the charter and the bylaws confer upon it the powers of the Board of Directors. The educational effect on the members of the Representative Assembly and of the Board of Directors can be measured by the amount of responsibility which they feel they are to bear and the amount of power they feel they have to exercise.

This topic will appear on the program for discussion during the meetings of this Representative Assembly.

6. Without abating any of the force of attention and action which it is now centering upon the Capitol at Washington, we should turn the face of our National Education Association more directly and more permanently towards the various state capitols, adding the momentum of this vast and powerful organization to those state forces which are fighting each year to secure better school conditions and opportunities for their children.

Superintendent Davidson and Miss Williams will appear before you and will set forth the ideas of the Legislative Commission. In each state of the union except one is organized a committee that works like the fingers of this great Legislative Commission's hand. Whenever the state wishes to have the momentum of the National Education Association, with its great research department, its great publicity department, whenever the state wants the National Education Association, through its Legislative Commission, to give it help, that Commission and the Association stand ready to render such aid and succor as the state may desire. No obtrusion, no offensive crossing of the state lines, but whenever you want the strength of the National Education Association placed at your disposal it can be done. It has been done the last two or three years, especially in the state of Pennsylvania.

I believe anyone who knows the situation knows this Association has been and is now deeply interested in the national legislation which it has sought to have enacted, but I have become convinced that its power should be brought to bear more than ever in aiding the school forces in the several states of the union.

7. While maintaining its cordial and respectful relations to other national organizations, to private educational foundations, and the corporations engaged in the manufacture of school books, apparatus and supplies, the officers of this Association, its departments, its special committees and its central office force, should be ever vigilant to guard against what may have the appearance of lending the name and influence of the National Education Association to a purely commercial enterprise. The Association has a large enough income and enough expert ability and energy to carry its own investigations and reach its own conclusions

on educational matters, sharing the results, of course, with other organizations working in similar fields.

The efforts of some of these organizations are vigorous, sometimes almost offensive. They are business men, they are "go-getters," and have been sent out with a certain purpose in mind, and they say that their work can be done by taking this Association into a partnership. But with our hearts and minds open to every worker in the field of education, whether under private means or public, we must see to it that this Association shall not lend its name in any way to mere private commercial enterprises, under however inviting or illusive name that association or organization may appear.

8. Without subtracting any of our interest and our sympathy from nation-wide, world-wide, social, civic, and political affairs, we should reconcentrate and reconsecrate our attention and effort to the promotion of the great cause for which this Association was founded, namely, "To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of education in the United States.

Ladies and gentlemen, if we want to know where we are and where we are going, it is once in a while a good thing for us to formulate our objectives and to consider them.

If some of these appeal to you, they may get written permanently into our procedure. If they seem to be ephemeral, if they seem to come out of some temporary emotion, I am sure they will only meet with your attention for the time being, but in preparing this program I have tried in the main to bring before you those questions that, to my mind at any rate, are of large moment and large consequence in the immediate future of this Association—I hope I have not set too bad an example in taking too much time—but I hope to provide after each one of these presentations ample time for discussion. At this time I am going to throw open this meeting for a discussion of these objectives and for any comment or any discussion that the Representative Assembly sees fit to make upon them.

THE RELATION OF COMMITTEES TO THE ASSOCIATION AND ITS POLICIES

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

As long as there is a National Education Association it will have a committee problem. The Association can never function without committees. There must always be committees reporting to the Representative Assembly and others reporting to the Executive Committee or the Board of Directors. The departments likewise will always have numerous committees. The committee habit is so strong on the American people that there will always be a tendency to rely too much on committees and too often to substitute committee reporting for discussion in the deliberations of this and other governing bodies of the Association.

We are all familiar with the old evils that have characterized the committee work of the National Education Association. (1) There has been a

tendency to create too many committees. (2) There has been a tendency to make these committees too large. (3) These committees tend to continue their deliberations over many years. Frequently committees that have done little work have exhibited a remarkable tendency to longevity. (4) There is no doubt that some have looked upon committee appointments as carrying with them opportunities to take trips, but personally I do not think this has been a very great evil in the life of the Association. Nevertheless with a limited budget, with work to do that far outruns the budget, and with the weakness of human nature in mind, there must always be a strict administration of committees in respect to this matter. (5) Committees with important work to do have been compelled to hold their sessions in connection with our annual meetings. With a multiplicity of committees and a lack of funds no other recourse was possible. But no committee dealing with fundamental problems of education requiring study and profound discussion can do satisfactory work amid the distractions of a great convention. (6) Finally, there has been a tendency to appoint committees that duplicated the work of departments. For example, there have been committees on classroom teacher problems, on rural education, and on visual education with departments already in existence covering these fields.

In this connection I refer you to my report as president of the Association made to the Representative Assembly at Indianapolis in 1925, and to the report of the Committee on Committees made to the Representative Assembly at the Philadelphia meeting a year ago. During the incumbency of the last three presidents of the Association an attempt has been made to control the committee situation by the reduction of the number of committees reporting to the Representative Assembly. Committees duplicating the work of departments have been eliminated. Committees doing work in subject-matter fields have been referred to the curriculum commission of the Department of Superintendence on the theory that it is not the business of the Representative Assembly to consider problems of the technic of teaching in any particular field, but that our business here is to deal with broad questions of policy. Other committees have been requested to report to the Executive Committee or the Board of Directors.

As a result of this committee policy conditions have been very greatly improved and one of the good results has been an improvement in the meetings of the Representative Assembly. It is especially noticeable this year that President Blair has allowed a maximum amount of discussion from the floor and has reduced the amount of time given to perfunctory committee reporting.

At least three good results are bound to flow from this policy:

1. A larger amount of the funds of the Association will be available for productive research and for the aid of committees that will greatly influence the course of public education in America. It is not necessary to point out how certain great committees of the Association in years past have

profoundly influenced the development of public education. We might call the roll of the Committee of Ten, the Commission on Secondary Education, the Commission on the Emergency in Education, the Committee on Tenure and other notable committees. The honor roll is already a long one.

These committees have dealt with questions of broad general policies touching every aspect of American education. We shall have similar committees in the future. At the present time there is such a committee existing in the Department of Suprintendence. I refer to the Committee on the Articulation of the Units of the American School System. This committee will deal with some of the most fundamental questions in American education in our day. It should have the hearty cooperation and financial support of the parent Association. Its work can never be done at meetings in connection with conventions. A large amount of research and investigation will be required. The committee must spend long hours in most exacting debates and deliberations.

The new policy as regards committees will place the association in a better position to aid in the work of committees such as I have just described.

2. The Representative Assembly will be free from the incubus of too many committee reports.

3. The work of the Board of Directors and of the departments will be very greatly enhanced in importance and in amount and the Association will in turn be strengthened by the more effective functioning of these bodies.

The Board of Directors of the Association is small enough in numbers to permit of extended discussion. It can meet more frequently than the Representative Assembly. The Board itself is truly representative of the membership. It must play a more important rôle in the future.

Likewise the work of the departments should be enhanced. It is a waste of effort for the Association to duplicate by committees or in any other way work that can be done by the departments.

After as much work as possible has been referred to the Executive Committee, the Board of Directors, and the departments, there will be an ample amount left to be done by committees reporting to the Representative Assembly. As stated in the report of Committee on Committees a year ago, as long as we have a legislative program we must have a legislative commission. We shall always have committees reporting to this body dealing with the major problems of American education. There will always be a committee on resolutions.

There are now 170,000 members in our Association. It is utterly impossible to think that all members of the Association can ever serve on its committees. Only a fraction can ever have that privilege and they should be chosen solely with reference to their fitness to make contributions to the committee work in hand. With relatively few committees to appoint from

a great membership, it is useless to try to interest many people in the work of the Association by committee appointments. That object must be achieved through the work of the departments. Therefore the committees reporting to the Representative Assembly should be relatively small. Of course, in the case of such a committee as the Resolutions Committee there should be and must be, not merely because the bylaws require it, a representative from every state in the Union; but when committees are appointed to deal with problems as fundamental as those that were considered by the Committee of Ten or by the Commission on the Emergency in Education they must in the future be made small enough to permit of efficient work and of adequate financing.

I have already said explicitly and implicitly that the work of the departments of the Association must be greatly enhanced. In this connection I think we face two important questions: First, the problem of adequate financial support for the departments, and second, the far more fundamental question of how the Association and all of its departments are to be integrated.

So far as the question of finance is concerned, in my judgment the time has come when the establishment of adequate membership dues should be a condition to the creation of a department. Departments should no longer be financed out of the funds of the general Association except in cases where it is desired to invest money to promote a new department. The Department of Superintendence and the Departments of Secondary and Elementary School Principals, for example, now maintain dues sufficient to cover practically all of their expenditures, and this should be required of all other departments. Many have no dues at all. Those who are guiding the destinies of the departments are very shortsighted if they do not advocate the payment of fees. The establishment of adequate departmental fees will not only release a considerable amount of the funds of the general Association for important investigational and research work but these dues will improve the efficiency of departments. Membership in a department that is not worth at least one dollar a year is not worth very much. In my judgment it is absolutely not worth having.

Nor do I think it can longer be urged that teachers cannot afford to pay these dues. Let us assume that the Denver classroom teachers are rather favorably situated as regards salaries. I find that the average salary of a classroom teacher in Denver at the present time is about \$2150. I find that the Denver classroom teacher pays professional dues as follows:

To the Denver Classroom Teachers Association.....	\$2.50
To the Colorado Education Association.....	3.00
To the National Education Association.....	2.00
To the local Parent-Teacher Association.....	.25

The total of these dues is \$7.75. It is the exceptional classroom teacher who is paying dues to any other organization of a strictly professional character. But let us assume that a dollar or two dollars may be added for membership in such an organization as the National Council of English

Teachers or some other professional society covering the field of the teacher's special interest. The total then would not be over ten dollars. Many Denver teachers pay a fee of either five or fifteen dollars to the Denver Teachers Club, but this is a mutual insurance association and should not be regarded as a professional organization in the sense that the other organizations are. The teacher presumably gets value received in the form of insurance. Nor should we count as strictly professional the semi-social organizations to which many teachers and executives belong. I dare say Denver is a representative case as regards dues, and I maintain it will work no hardship on the classroom teacher even if he pays annual dues of one dollar to the Department of Classroom Teachers and dues to the Association or departments covering the field of his special interest bringing the total invested annually in professional associations up to a maximum of, say, ten or twelve dollars. Certainly this is not an excessive sum even for a beginning teacher in a rural neighborhood.

Finally we come to the problem of integrating the departments with the Association. The conclusion I have reached regarding this problem is that the Executive Committee and probably the Board of Directors of the Association must eventually be reconstituted. The present Executive Committee is in no sense representative of the varied interests of the Association. It is too small; it is too largely *ex officio*. At present our Association is a loose-jointed affair. It should be unified. I do not propose to go into a discussion of this matter further than to make one or two suggestions.

It might be possible to classify the departments into two groups and give to those in one group representation on both the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors. This group would consist of those departments that are all inclusive in character; such as the Department of Classroom Teachers, the Departments of Elementary School Principals and of Secondary School Principals, the Department of Superintendence and possibly later certain departments composed of those who administer higher education. If the Association of University Professors should affiliate with the National Education Association we would have here another department to be included in this list.

The second classification of departments would include those representing special fields of interest, such as visual education, rural education, research, and the like. These departments might be given representation only on the Board of Directors. This would enlarge the Board of Directors to from one hundred to one hundred fifty members, but inasmuch as this board already consists of about sixty members and is too small to function as an executive board, its enlargement to one hundred fifty would not seriously endanger its usefulness, although it should not be allowed to go much beyond that number.

An arrangement might be made whereby the Executive Committee would have, in addition to present members, representatives on it from the all-inclusive departments named in the first classification or it might be left to a Board of Directors with a membership representing both the states and

the departments to choose a majority membership in the Executive Committee. The Executive Committee then would be enlarged, say to ten or fifteen members, but it should always be kept small. In order to keep it small it might well be a committee created by the Board of Directors and directly responsible to it. Under such conditions a committee of six or nine members would be feasible. Another method of reconstituting the Executive Committee would be to increase it to eight or ten members, all elected by the Representative Assembly. A plan of allocating a part of this number to certain departments on some rotating basis might be worked out. The Representative Assembly would then choose from nominations made by these departments.

Any such reorganization as I have suggested will necessitate asking Congress to amend the charter. It must be evident to all that the present organization is faulty, and that as the Association grows in numbers and in departments it will be necessary not only to reconstitute the Representative Assembly on which problem a committee is now working, but that we shall be forced to a consideration of the problem of integrating the departments with the main Association. It is my prediction that sooner or later we must ask that the charter be amended. Therefore, it will be well, with the membership growing apace, to begin the consideration of these problems.

I want to make it clear that I am proposing no plan of reorganization. My only desire is to emphasize the importance of the problem of integration. The National Education Association should again be made truly national in scope. It must represent not only elementary and secondary education, but higher education as well. To that end a further reorganization is necessary.

At first blush it may seem that I have strayed quite a ways from the consideration of committee problems, but it must be evident to all that the committee problem cannot be considered apart from the work of the departments and that therefore it is proper in the discussion of committee policies to consider some of the department problems. This in turn inevitably raises the issue of a better integration of the component parts of the Association, and that raises the question of how to bring the representation of colleges, universities, and professional schools into active participation in the work of the Association.

THE POLICY OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION TOWARD STATE ASSOCIATIONS

ARTHUR H. CHAMBERLAIN, STATE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, CALIFORNIA
TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

The state teachers' associations bear a relationship to the National Education Association similar to that borne by the states of the union to the federal government. The federal government is an entity aside from and independent of the individual states. In like manner each state has an individuality quite apart from its federal relationships. Stated

differently, the National Education Association and the state associations are cooperating factors in an equation; comrades in a mutual undertaking; partners in a joint enterprise.

The soundness of this statement of relationship can be established on determination of the respective functions of the National Education Association and the several state teachers' associations.

Leadership of the National Education Association—The National Education Association has for three quarters of a century been one of the chief centers of educational leadership in the world. Indeed, so far as the public schools are concerned, the National Association has occupied first place. From it has flowed the tide of educational inspiration. Out of it has come the sentiment for increased professional standards, for training of teachers and for improvement of teachers in service. The results of the investigations and reports of its committees and those of the National Council of Education have laid the foundation for the best practices in the matter of appointment, salaries, promotion and tenure of teachers; for advanced certification requirements; for modernized courses of study and for developing workable relationships between the home, community, and school.

The National Education Association has become the court of final appeal in the matter of investigations, studies and reports on school problems. It has been, and will continue to be, the central clearinghouse for educational ideas and ideals.

Fundamental nature of state associations—Under our form of government, education is, in the last analysis, a matter of state concern. The National Education Association can act in an advisory capacity to the states. On the other hand, legal and authoritative action lies within the states themselves. While the fundamental principles underlying educational philosophy are the same throughout the states, their application and detail differ from state to state. School organization, courses of study, certification requirements, financial support, compulsory attendance laws—these and other matters are in the hands of the authorities in the individual states.

In like manner the various state associations represent directly, even though non-governmentally, the educational activities of the several states. These state associations should be the direct feeders of the National Association. The foundation, the growth and the perpetuity of the National Education Association are conditioned directly upon the strength and enthusiasm and productive activities of the state organizations.

Historically the state associations in their earlier forms were the progenitors of the National Education Association. Strong state groups with outstanding leaders existed here and there, especially in the older states. From these groups spread the impulse to create a national organization of teachers. Local consciousness here, as in other social groups, preceded the larger national vision, which, in its turn, has given rise to the international body, namely, the World Federation of Education Associations.

When some years ago, before re-organization of the National Education Association had been realized on the delegate basis and before the state

teachers' associations were functioning effectively, membership in the National Education Association was a few thousand only. This membership fluctuated from year to year. In 1912 but one state association had a full-time secretary; in 1923, twenty-four states had full-time secretaries. Today, thirty-four states are thus served.

Fifteen years ago the membership in our state associations was meager and fluctuating. In 1923 there were scarcely more than 300,000 members in all the state associations combined. Today there are in excess of 560,000 state association members.

The growth in membership of the National Education Association from 8000 to 175,000, as at present, is in large measure owing to the growth of the state associations and participation of the latter in National Association affairs.

Only recently have the state teachers' associations, through re-organization, become so powerful an influence in shaping public education. They have, nevertheless, for many years been important factors in all that pertained to education in state and nation. Before the year 1870 there were permanent state-wide organizations of teachers in twenty states of the union. It is worthy of note as showing the influence of state associations in the earlier day, that the call for the meeting at Philadelphia in 1857, at which time the National Teachers' Association was formed, was signed by the presidents of ten state teachers' associations. These states were Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Massachusetts, Missouri, New Hampshire, New York, Pennsylvania, Vermont and Wisconsin. The National Teachers' Association was the forerunner of the National Educational Association, now the National Education Association.

The logical relationship of the state association to the national organization was thus early understood. There were held many informal conferences of those interested in state associations and in the upbuilding of the National Education Association, to discuss the necessary inter-relationships and to establish desirable points of contact. The results of earlier conferences took definite shape eighteen years ago at the Denver meeting of the National Education Association. At that time there was created an organization which later gave rise to the present Association of Secretaries of State Teachers' Associations.

The foregoing historical facts have been cited to make clear the significance of the National Education Association and the fundamental nature of the state associations and their importance in building and maintaining a great national organization of teachers. In this connection your speaker had occasion to say as early as 1916, that the state teachers' association is the one essential form of teacher organization. It is as true today as in 1916, that each state association must have a representative central body; in other words, a delegate system. This body must be truly representative. Schools, children, education, in their broadest aspects, must be given prominence, rather than overemphasis upon special teaching interests or teachers representing special types of schools or special subjects. Every teacher in the state should be a member of the state association.

In the National Education Association every teacher in America should have a voice. This is made possible through proper integration of the state association with the national organization. In 1916, before the formation of the original Committee on Organization, of which the present speaker was a member, we advocated a plan of local, state, and national affiliation such as would give every teacher an equal voice and vote. To quote from our earlier statement before the National Education Association: "In order to make the National Education Association more far-reaching in its influence, a delegate system should be devised whereby there will be a certain number of delegates to the Association from every state, depending upon the number of active members in the state association." In other words, we advocated in 1916 a plan of organization under which local groups—county, city, club, and so forth, should find representation in the state association, the latter organization in turn to function directly in the National Education Association. In this way there will result perfect integration of state and national bodies.

The above is offered only in the interest of more effective cooperation for the future. Let it be thoroughly understood that no prejudice is directed toward the local association. The national and state organizations must foster and stimulate the locals. The significance of the local group in developing memberships and enthusiasms is given full consideration. These groups must continue to play their part—indeed, an ever-increasing part—in the programs of the National Education Association.

This part must be played, however, by these local groups in their respective state associations. The state association thus becomes the summation of all the local groups in the state; and the state association, made up in large measure of these various local groups, will carry over into the national organization as one unit rather than as a series of independent and disassociated units. In this way the morale and responsibility of the state association is maintained. For, without this unity of action and this state morale and responsibility, the very foundations of the National Education Association itself will be shattered and its perpetuity endangered.

Every effort must be made to do away with any possible friction between state association and national organization. Difficulties have been experienced in some states in writing state association memberships, because of overwhelming interest of local groups in making National Education Association membership take precedence over state membership. While, on the other hand, in certain of the state associations, the cause of the National Education Association has not been sufficiently stressed. These difficulties must be ironed out. The interdependence of local, state, and national groups must be realized. The report of the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions of the National Education Association will, we feel, serve to clear up points at variance, such as have been brought on by the tremendous growth of our National Association and the increasing demands made upon our state organizations. With the proper working unity established between the local groups and the state association, the latter may more easily cooperate fully with the

National Association. The writing of membership in the National Education Association may readily be handled through the state association, as is already done in some states, thus tending to reduce overhead and to do away with duplication of effort.

Each state association will act as the clearinghouse for its respective state in the matter of researches, studies, and investigations. The results of these should be passed up to the National Association. Here again, with the National Education Association acting as national clearinghouse, duplication will be lessened and economy and efficiency attained. Effective as are our associations, the results of the investigations and studies in the National Education Association do not get back to all parts of the state as they ought. Nor, do the findings of the state association reach fully into the local groups. Complete cooperation means effective service. And finally, no state association should expect the National Education Association to fight its personal battles; neither should there be interference by the state association in matters that strictly pertain to the national organization.

To summarize: Local groups can function most effectively by a plan of representation in the state association. The state association, among its many other activities, can also serve as the appropriate liaison body between the great national society on the one hand and the local group on the other. The integration of local groups into the state association, making the former a part of, instead of apart from the state association, will yield best results. A series of proper relationships between local, state, and national associations, will make most effective the work of each.

As the federal government is no stronger than is the joint strength of its constituent states, so the strength of the National Education Association depends upon the power and enthusiasm of its constituent state teachers' associations.

Increased growth, development and effectiveness of the National Education Association will be found to be conditioned upon like growth, development, and effectiveness in the state associations and in the cooperation of the latter with the National Education Association.

THE TEACHER'S ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, AND PROFESSIONAL WELFARE AS RELATED TO TENURE

FRED M. HUNTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OAKLAND, CALIF.

The National Education Association has taken a great interest in movements which make for the good of the teaching profession. In fact, the campaign for better salaries, the trend toward better provision for retirement, and the pressure for a more stable profession have become primary responsibilities of the Association. This is true because the National Education Association exists for the improvement of the schools and the service of youth. The Association has taken the stand in the past and maintains the stand now that this view is fundamental and sound and holds that whatever best serves and upbuilds the teaching profession best serves and upbuilds the schools and the education of youth.

The Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Teacher Tenure is the organ of the Association charged with the investigation of teacher tenure throughout the United States. It assays to speak for the Association in an advisory and an expert capacity. It assembles data and attempts to formulate a program by specific recommendations to the Association and to the members of the profession everywhere.

Inasmuch as the problem of tenure is a legislative matter—and in some states a political issue—wisdom and foresight are highly essential in making recommendations from a national organization like ours. The Committee seeks to spread the latest available information everywhere so that state legislatures and state teachers' associations may be advised as to prevalent practices, data concerning teacher tenure, and insofar as is possible, the results of the several kinds of tenure.

What kinds of tenure may be considered?

In analyzing prevailing conditions as to the length of time teachers are employed, there appear to be these four types of tenure:

1. *Tenure at pleasure of employing board*—Under this form of tenure there is no contract and a teacher can be dismissed at any time. This plan has been practically abandoned in favor of the annual contract.

2. *Specific contract following election*—In the case of the superintendent of schools, the contract is often from one to five years. In the case of teachers, in most communities elections are held annually and contracts are for one year only. Under the annual election plan every teacher, principal, and superintendent is automatically out of a position at the close of every school year, and the burden rests upon them to see that the school board re-employs them, instead of the burden resting upon the school board to dismiss those it does not want to retain and explain their reasons for so doing.

In the absence of tenure legislation, the court decisions throughout the United States hold that the specific contract type is almost universal.

3. *Indefinite tenure*—Under this plan annual elections cease for all time, the teacher being merely continued in the service from year to year without any action on either side, and until such time as the board, for cause, and upon the recommendation of the superintendent shall see fit to terminate the contract.

The assumption on the part of both parties to the contract is that the teacher will continue to serve in a particular school district as long as such service is competent and faithful, provided, of course, such services are needed in the schools of the district.

Dismissals, of course, will continue to take place and will be at times necessary. They will, however, be the exception; and for the vast majority of teachers the question of the teacher's retention will not arise in the indefinite tenure plan. Indefinite tenure contemplates the dismissal or elimination of incompetent and unfit teachers by a method sufficiently easy to protect the children and the profession and sufficiently surrounded by guarantees to assure justice to the teacher.

4. *Permanent tenure*—This is virtually life tenure with guarantee against dismissal except in the event of a crime in violation of the political code. Indefinite tenure becomes permanent tenure when there is no possibility of eliminating the incompetent and unfit teacher. This type of tenure is the extreme at the opposite end of the scale from "tenure at the pleasure of the employing board."

What is the real problem?

The real problem is how to promote a sound and stable teaching profession in a manner compatible with the educational interests of society, the

welfare and progress of pupils, and justice to teachers. Indefinite teacher tenure is the best method of solving this problem.

Are there any fundamental principles involved in sponsoring a program for teacher tenure?

Yes, several. A tentative statement of such a code of principles has been developed and discussed with the membership of the committee. The principles thus proposed surround the attainment of three main purposes.

1. In all teacher tenure legislation, the interest of children is paramount.
2. All teacher-tenure legislation should aim to promote the highest possible standard of teaching service.
3. Justice and protection to meritorious members of the profession are positive agencies in maintaining such a service.

The following statement of twelve principles which should control the framing and operation of tenure laws is highly tentative. It is presented for study and criticism by teachers' associations and laymen throughout the country. On the basis of this study and criticism it should be possible to arrive at a conclusion as to the worth of the twelve principles set forth.

1. *Tenure laws should be devised and administered in the interest of better instruction for children*—The child's interest, not the teacher's, should be given first consideration. A satisfactory system of tenure is usually just to both sides. It relieves the good teacher from anxiety for the future; it promotes contentment and stability; it protects the efficient teacher and weeds out the incompetent; and it promotes and encourages efficiency.

In the end, the interest of the teacher and the interest of the child are identical. Good teachers prosper in good schools. Schools are good when they provide instruction of high quality for children.

2. *Tenure laws should be accompanied by proper legal regulations governing training, certification, remuneration, and retirement allowances*—It is of little value to urge for tenure legislation unless there exist regulations governing the training and certification of teachers, which give ample assurance that only competent and well-trained teachers will be retained. Adequate salary schedules with specified increments over a period of years encourage teachers to continue their period of service and hence help to make tenure measures effective.

The existence of a system of adequate retirement allowances means that the tenure of a teacher, rendered incapable by old age, can be terminated and he is not left without means of financial support.

3. *Tenure laws should be devised and administered as a stimulus to better preparation and more efficient service on the part of teachers*—Indefinite tenure is entirely dependent on efficient service. The latter in turn is dependent on continued professional growth. No efficient teacher will object to having his work stand on its merits, after sufficient time has passed to show what he has accomplished.

4. *Indefinite tenure should be granted only upon evidence of satisfactory preliminary training, successful experience, and professional growth*—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 in those school systems where rating scales are in effect.
- c. Evidence of professional spirit as shown by professional activity and continued study.

Training in service is the one means by which the teacher can continue to be equipped to give up-to-date, reliable instruction and training based on the modern methods. Hence the teacher, granted indefinite tenure, should be required to give continued evidence of professional growth. This makes tenure a reward for faithful and efficient service, rather than a guaranteed legislative right for all.

The community has a right to be protected against teachers who do not keep themselves intellectually alive, and who do not carry on the duties of their office with an ever-increasing efficiency.

5. *Indefinite tenure should be provided after successful experience during a probationary period of adequate length, usually two or three years*—Not all persons interested in teaching make good teachers. It sometimes happens that teachers who have done well in simple, easy situations, can not adjust themselves to situations more complex. The employing district should be enabled to protect itself against the inception of teachers into its permanent ranks who cannot fully and satisfactorily meet the requirements of its system of instruction. To do this is equally a protection to the best teachers of the system and their standards of classroom procedure. All state tenure laws encourage this procedure.

6. *The right of dismissal should be in the hands of the appointing board*—The right to employ implies the right to dismiss. Since the board of education is the agency which employs the teacher, it would seem that it should also be the removing agency.

In the enactment of tenure measures by state legislatures, there is a slight tendency to provide for hearings before bodies not responsible for the administration of the school system. The employment and dismissal of teachers are administrative acts. No one but the employing board ought to make the final decision in cases of dismissal. The procedure preceding dismissal should be wholly fair, open and above board, and should provide for a decision upon the basis of the evidence submitted. But it is a serious error in school administration to remove from the hands of the administrative body responsible for the conduct of the schools, the responsibility for dismissal. When this is done, it impairs the single-headed, authoritative control of a school system by representatives of the people and their executives and divides the authority for the administration of the schools between the bodies concerned with the procedure of dismissal. This will in the end always result in injury to the schools.

7. *Laws establishing indefinite tenure should provide for the easy dismissal of unsatisfactory or incompetent teachers for clearly demonstrable causes; such as, misconduct, incompetence, evident unfitness for teaching, persistent violation or refusal to obey laws, insubordination, neglect of duty, or malfeasance*—Easy dismissal of unfit teachers is the best protection to good teachers. It is the fundamental American right of children to be safeguarded against teachers who do not belong in the profession and who cannot uphold the highest standards of American schools. In the end, the success of tenure legislation depends upon this feature in the laws enacted.

8. *The proposed dismissal of a teacher on account of incompetence or neglect of duty should be preceded by a warning and specific statement in writing of defects*—The notice of dismissal should in itself be given under certain definite conditions which are just to both sides. In the first place, no teacher should be liable to a termination of contract for failure to render satisfactory services who has not been notified of the deficiencies, and given an opportunity and reasonable assistance to remedy them.

Such employee may, on receipt of such notice, appeal to the dismissing authority, making such statements and giving such information as he feels may throw additional light upon his case.

If within a given time improvement does not result, sufficient to warrant the retention of the teacher, the superintendent should then recommend that written notice be served on the teacher, for specified reasons, to the effect that the board desires to terminate the contract with the teacher to take effect at the close of the

school year. If the board approves, due notice should be given to the teacher, and when so served the contract with such teacher terminates at the end of such school year. Teachers not so notified continue in service from year to year.

9. *In cases of proposed dismissal, teachers should be granted right of hearing*—Should the teacher desire a hearing, adequate notice should be given for the preparation of the defense, and the hearing should be before the authority which is responsible for the appointments—the board of education.

For the sufficiency of the reasons for terminating the contract the superintendent and the board should be the sole judge, without the meddling of lawyers or the interference of the courts. The hearing should be so organized that legal technicalities will be reduced to a minimum. The vote should be by a majority of members of the board of education, not by a majority of a quorum.

When final authority lies with the board, despite such rebuttal as the teacher may present, the board has opportunity to control its schools.

10. *Teachers who do not desire to continue in their positions should give reasonable notice in writing of their intention*—No permanent teacher should cancel his indefinite contract during the school term for which said contract is in effect nor for a period of thirty days previous to the beginning of such school term unless such cancellation is mutually agreed upon.

11. *Suitable provision should be made for teachers already in service in putting tenure laws into operation*—When a tenure law is put into effect, it should apply to those who have been in the school system for some time (six years is suggested by certain writers), even though they do not have the preliminary training required under the new law.

12. *Indefinite tenure should be accorded to all classes of certificated school employees on status of teacher, at least*—Instability is a menace to all ranks of the teaching profession. A system of schools may be injured by the dismissal of a superintendent, a principal, or a teacher for other causes than professional failure. The challenge of the profession as a career is cheapened if the protection for all is not provided. The objectives of tenure, in the large, as they relate to teaching as a profession, make for the unity of the profession and demand tenure as teachers for all its members who are meritorious.

Let us consider the arguments for and against indefinite tenure. To begin with, let us review the spectacle of instability offered by the data presented below.

Surveys in Nebraska, Washington, and Wisconsin appall us with the tragic figures of teacher turnover. Sixty-four percent to 77 percent of the rural school teachers in these states are new in their positions each year. More than two-thirds of those engaged in teaching have no legal tenure protection whatsoever.

Does indefinite tenure actually decrease turnover? It does.

Compare the above data of turnover from the rural sections with that of our cities of 100,000 or more. Turnover in these cities ranges from 4 percent to 6 percent annually. Good teachers are protected and great professional advancement is made.

The committee presents herewith the principal argument for indefinite tenure.

1. *Indefinite tenure is in the interest of children because it decreases teacher turnover and adds to the stability of the teaching profession*—There seems to be much definite evidence that points clearly to the conclusion that indefinite tenure lessens teacher turnover. In large cities where the principle of tenure is operative, teacher turnover is much less than in rural communities.

In these thirty-one cities of 100,000 and above in the United States, the annual turnover in the group having state tenure laws is only four percent; in the group having no state tenure laws, the annual turnover averages six percent.

Indefinite tenure is guaranteed by practice in nearly all large cities of the United States. In thirteen states, as shown in the printed report, it is guaranteed by state law. In numerous cities of other states, it is established by definite rule of the board; in other cities it has become an established practice through the pressure of public sentiment concerning the dismissal of teachers. Even where no state law exists, boards of education and superintendents are usually restrained from unjust dismissals by the attitude of the public.

But in rural communities, this is not the case. Compare rural turnover with the turnover in the cities mentioned above. A few significant facts are presented below:

Nebraska:¹ (Rural schools only) 64 percent of teachers new in their positions 1925-26. Only 12 percent serving third year or more in their respective positions 1925-26.

Washington:² (One- and two-room schools) 76.9 percent of teachers new in their positions 1921-22. Only 6 percent of the teachers serving third year or more in their respective positions 1921-22.

Wisconsin:³ Rural teacher turnover 65 percent to 68 percent over three-year period.

There can be no question but that the facts support the conclusion that indefinite tenure makes for stability in the teaching corps.

2. *Indefinite tenure is in the interest of children because state school systems in which indefinite tenure laws have been operative rank among the highest in professional standards in the United States*—New Jersey has had a state tenure law since 1910. Its educational rank among the states is "2." Massachusetts has had a tenure law since 1913. Its rank is "12." California has had a tenure law since 1921. Its rank is "1."⁴ (Ayres' Standards.)

3. *Indefinite tenure of teachers is in the interest of children because it tends to attract a better personnel into the calling of teaching*—As a rule, able young people seek an occupation which offers a career, brings an adequate economic competency, and is permanent. The elements of permanency and the opportunity for a career frequently over-balance the argument for economic returns.

Teaching has offered in the past little or no opportunity for a career, and no permanency. Able young people have long used it as a stepping stone to some more inviting calling. Witness the number of persons of recognized prominence who have spent a few years of their earlier lives teaching school. Indefinite tenure tends to add the element of permanency; hence as a calling it becomes more attractive and inviting to able young people.

4. *Indefinite tenure of teachers is in the interest of children because it creates a professional reward for self-improvement and growth in teaching ability*—Assurance of permanency after the probationary period is past is a great inducement to teachers to seek professional recognition, and the economic reward which comes with promotion.

This argument is psychologically sound and is based on an optimistic view of teachers and their faith in the profession. The records of the teaching corps of cities which have had tenure for many years show the strength of this argument. These records reveal a continuous program of professional improvement in almost every instance.

Arguments against indefinite tenure are based on the theory that fear is the

¹ Survey by Nebraska State Teachers Association.

² Survey by Washington State Teachers Association.

³ Survey by C. J. Anderson, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Wisconsin.

⁴ Phillips, Frank M.—"Educational Ranking of States by Two Methods"—*American School Board Journal*—December, 1924, pp. 47-49.

ruling human motive and that teachers do their best when fear of dismissal or loss of contract hangs over them. These arguments are demonstrably unsound.

5. *Indefinite tenure is in the interest of children because it protects the great body of good teachers from attack on personal and political grounds and establishes them as a permanent and professional working body whose chief motive is the improvement of teaching and the welfare of the schools*—The report of this Committee in July, 1924, recounted a number of cases of flagrant political attacks upon school administrations and teaching corps in large cities. In several of these cases, groups of teachers of excellent merit were dismissed for their support of the school administration or their advocacy of the rights of teachers and the cause of the public schools. Within the past year, several superintendents of unquestioned ability and professional standing have been deprived of their positions without good cause being shown.

In rural communities thousands of teachers are forced to change positions because local boards of trustees are human and develop a dislike for the teacher on personal grounds or desire to replace him with a relative or friend. In the multitude of instances classified under these several types of cases, it is the schools and the children that suffer. A permanent professional teaching staff is the most necessary factor in the development and maintenance of good schools.

Indefinite tenure protects the teaching staff of city school systems against disturbance and disruption resulting from political attack. It enables the teaching corps to develop natural leadership from within its own ranks, and hence to carry out a program of professional improvement for its members. The instruction of children and the progress of education can go forward best when a corps of teachers is thus free to develop the genius within its own ranks.

Likewise, in rural schools the continuance of good teachers in their positions is the best assurance of able instruction for children. Good teachers will not go to situations not permanent. Rural boards, if compelled to keep good teachers, will finally develop for their communities a program for the development of a high type of instruction for their children.

6. *Indefinite tenure is in the interest of the community because a permanent teacher contributes much more to the community than a transient*—A teacher is a citizen. He ought to identify himself with the important movements and issues of his community. If qualified to be a teacher, he is qualified to be a leader. A community can ill afford not to place a premium upon the continuance in the community of those who can contribute to its growth and progress. If teachers are to be transients by prevalent practice, the community and its progress are the losers.

The school is as much a factor in the prosperity and economic soundness of the community as any of its financial, industrial, or commercial institutions. The school leaders should be among those who permanently participate in affairs of the community and help shape its policies.

7. *Indefinite tenure makes for a careful method of appointing teachers and does away with annual elections in which there is little pressure on selecting committees to exercise extreme care in making appointments*—Boards of education, administrators, and teachers themselves at present regard the importance of the teaching profession altogether too lightly. To elect a teacher to a position is a comparatively inconsequential act. The teacher may be changed easily if a mistake is made. Under the prevailing yearly contract plan, which is almost universal in states having no special tenure legislation, a new teacher may replace the present one at the end of the year.

When teaching becomes a true profession and the position a permanent one during the good behavior and successful conduct of his office by the teacher, the changing of a teacher will take on at least the importance of selecting a shop foreman.

Now let us consider the arguments against indefinite tenure. They are chiefly as follows:

1. *It is argued that indefinite tenure retains the inefficient teacher in service by making it impossible to discontinue teachers at the end of yearly contracts*—In some of the states, groups of superintendents, of classroom teachers, and especially boards of trustees, hold that the schools will be injured and that instruction will suffer by the retention of teachers who, in the judgment of the employing authority, such as a rural board of trustees, should not be continued. As has been shown, probably some teachers would be retained in service who might be replaced by better teachers if indefinite tenure were practical everywhere.

The outstanding evidence upon this point is the comparison between the efficiency of rural school systems and of large city school systems. In the large city school systems cited in the pages of the printed report, indefinite tenure is almost universally practiced. There could hardly be a question but that the teaching staff in these systems is more efficient, and that a less percentage of teachers are poor teachers than in the sections of the country where tenure by yearly contract only prevails.

2. *It is further argued that bodies and groups of teachers protected by tenure cease to grow professionally*—This argument is based upon the theory that fear of dismissal is the strongest motive to professional improvement. Some teachers, principals, and even superintendents contend that the stimulus to make good offered by the decision of a board to employ or to dismiss at specific periods is necessary to maintain consistent professional growth and that a teaching corps with this stimulus removed becomes static and dead intellectually and professionally.

The best evidence upon this point is to be found in what teaching bodies so protected by tenure have actually done. If it can be shown that such teaching bodies as the teaching corps of the state of Massachusetts, which has been protected by tenure since 1913, or the teaching staff of New Jersey, which has been covered by indefinite tenure since 1910, have deteriorated, then there probably would be some weight to this argument. The evidence seems to be wholly upon the other side.

3. *It is further maintained that to grant a hearing places the superintendent on trial rather than the incompetent teacher*—Some superintendents feel that they will not be able to substantiate before a public hearing the complaints filed against teachers. They maintain that the schools suffer because they cannot rid themselves of teachers who can hire a lawyer and jeopardize the position of the superintendent. This argument is valid in cases where the superintendent has little evidence and no courage on his side. Court decisions in cases affecting the dismissal of teachers show definitely that hearings where valid evidence is submitted result finally in the dismissal of the teacher who is truly incompetent.

4. *It is contended that competent teachers have all the tenure they need now and others should not have it*—As stated, this argument is a clever political slogan. The evidence from the great mass of the teaching bodies of the country shows that good teachers in most of the states, especially in small towns and rural districts, do not have tenure at all, and the great turnover in such districts clearly points to the fact that often other considerations than merit in teaching determine the permanency or lack of permanency of teachers in their positions.

New Tenure Laws

During the past year, two additional states have passed very good tenure laws—Indiana and Minnesota. The new law of Indiana is state-wide; that

of Minnesota applies to the three largest cities—Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Duluth. California and Montana also revised the existing tenure laws.

At the present time, thirteen states and the District of Columbia have tenure laws upon the state statute books. These laws in five states and the District of Columbia are state-wide and apply to all teachers. In the other states, they apply to certain cities or certain classes of school districts.

Do able young people enter the teaching profession? Should we make special provision to keep them there?

The committee has investigated this problem, believing that recruiting the brightest minds among our high school graduates for teacher-training institutions is one of the best means of improving the profession. The committee also believes the retention of these able young people in the teaching profession after they are so trained is of equal importance.

To ascertain the percentage of high school graduates who enter teacher-training institutions, and to discover whether or not these institutions are recruiting the brightest minds from among the high school graduates, the tenure committee sent an inquiry blank to several hundred principals of high schools, which, in 1924, according to the records of the U. S. Bureau of Education, had an enrolment of 1000 or more students. These three questions were asked:

1. What was the total number of pupils graduating from your school during the school year 1925-26?

2. How many of these were preparing to be teachers?

3. How many of the ablest 25 percent of the class were preparing to be teachers?

Replies were received from 229 high school principals, giving data relative to 64,266 high school graduates in 34 states for the year 1925-26. Table 6 summarizes these data by states. It shows that 12 percent of the high school graduates from 229 high schools having an enrolment of 1000 or more students are preparing to be teachers. It also shows that 21 percent of the ablest 25 percent are preparing to be teachers. These figures are encouraging. If approximately one out of every four of the ablest 25 percent of our high school graduates is among those preparing to be teachers, conditions relative to the teaching profession must be made such as will retain these capable young people in the profession.

What should be the policy of the National Education Association?

In the judgment of the committee it should ever investigate and assimilate information on this important subject. From the data assembled, it should continue to make recommendations through some such agency as the present committee. It should regard its responsibility, however, as a fact-assembling and fact-distributing function. It should serve as an expert adviser to legislatures and to those who sponsor legislative programs in the several states. It should not participate actively in local campaigns, other than to give information asked for.

The committee therefore makes recommendation that the activities of the Association in this field be continued through a committee appointed by the president, as at present.

*THE TEACHER'S ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND PROFESSIONAL
WELFARE, AS RELATED TO PENSIONS AND
RETIREMENT FUNDS*

E. RUTH PYRTLE, PRINCIPAL, MCKINLEY SCHOOL, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Thirty-six years ago last February, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association adopted the following resolution: "Justice as well as the best public service requires the retirement and pensioning of teachers after a service of thirty years, and upon carefully devised conditions. We recommend the enactment of laws in the several states to permit and to regulate the retirement and pensioning of professional teachers." This was the first concerted action on the part of the teaching profession in the United States in the direction of sound retirement legislation.

Through the thirty-six years, persistent work and study in this field has gone on with certain individuals and groups but the nation-wide study and interest is still lacking both in the teaching profession and with the public. The result is that there are still twenty-seven states (according to our 1926 report) which do not have a state-wide retirement law. Twenty-one states and three territories are in the banner class of having state-wide retirement laws. Some of the retirement laws are most excellent, some are not entirely satisfactory to the teachers, and some states are working to strengthen the inadequate laws. Eleven additional states have state teachers retirement laws of limited application, effective in certain cities. From the 1923 National Education Association *Proceedings* I quote: "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 . . ." 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. Such persons necessarily form the most valuable element in any service, yet they are the very ones most difficult to retain in a salaried employment. There can be no doubt that the conditions, which a scientifically planned retirement system will remedy, are 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 teaching profession 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, 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 teachers remain in the service after they have been trained is short. These are undesirable conditions which a properly designed retirement system can remove.

Every state should have a sound retirement law, because such a law protects school children from teachers rendered incompetent by old age and it frees school boards from the obligation of continuing to employ teachers formerly satisfactory, but who have become incompetent because of old age. Conscientious school boards hesitate to refuse election to the teacher rendered incompetent because of old age when that teacher has given years of faithful service and has no old age income. School boards should not have to make such a choice. They should be free to employ none but competent teachers. The presence of a sound teachers' retirement law makes this possible.

Example or type seen in a city in Nebraska—Teacher was old, deaf, and most incompetent. Pity of school board and fear of critical patrons kept this poor teacher before a class of children who day by day, month by month, were worse than wasting their time because of the habits of idleness and waste. Such examples could be cited in numbers in any section where there is no retirement system.

A sound teachers retirement law tends to attract and keep capable young people in the teaching profession. A teacher's efficiency in the classroom is increased by a sound teachers retirement law because it lengthens the period of teaching efficiency by relieving the teacher's mind of the fear of a destitute old age. It also makes it possible for the teacher to invest in study, training, and travel without endangering the financial provision made for his later years.

Last month when visiting a teacher friend who has given more than thirty years to building this nation through teaching and who has been in the hospital now some eight months, she casually remarked that she had always wanted a trip to Europe but had never felt that she could spend the money because she was not provided for in her old age. "Now," said she, "what I might have spent on the trip and more has been spent here. Perhaps," she added wistfully, "if I had taken the trip or bought the car I've always longed for, I might not have failed in health and have had to come here to bring up my count of white blood corpuscles."

A speaker said at the National Education Association in 1919:

Capable, high-minded people should be encouraged in every way, by tenure, pensions, social recognition, and adequate salaries to enter upon teaching as a career—people who would go into teaching not as a trade or commercial undertaking but as a fine art; who would teach with joy, enthusiasm, with the missionary spirit. Such teachers are often ready and willing to go into teaching for the love of it, for the good they can do, without too much regard for the salary, provided they can have some security against dependence in old age or if disabled in any way. Provision for retirement allowances frees such teachers and all teachers from the dread of dependence in old age, or, in case of disability, and consequent worry, and permits them to give their undivided attention to their duties in peace and contentment and thus to do more and better work. The schools, the children, and society will all gain by rendering the teacher secure against the risks of life. While pensions and tenure help to secure and hold good teachers, they also make it possible to free the schools, with social justice and dignity, from superannuated and incapacitated teachers. If superannuated teachers are held too long, the young, ambitious, progressive teachers become discouraged because of lack of opportunity for advancement and go into other work, and the schools and children suffer great loss in that way and also suffer from lack of force and vitality in the teaching of superannuated teachers left too long in charge. Children must not be subjected to wrong training or poor training of mind and heart and character because of incompetency of the teacher, or because of the superannuation of the teacher.

I quote from our 1926 report:

The support of sound teacher retirement legislation on the part of all teachers is a professional duty. It has been pointed out that a sound teacher retirement system increases the efficiency of the school staff. It is, therefore, the duty of every member of the profession possessed of a proper professional spirit to place no obstacle in the way of such legislation. It may be possible, in exceptional cases, that individual teachers exist for whom the enactment of retirement legislation means no personal benefit. The opposition to the enactment of a measure, or its lukewarm support, on such a basis is unworthy of any member of a group deserving classification among the professions.

Sound teacher retirement legislation can entail no hardship upon any teacher. If after being a member of a retirement system for a number of years he chooses to withdraw from the profession, the deposits made toward building up his annuity fund are returned to him. Joining a retirement system, therefore, means no personal sacrifice, even though a teacher may not continue in the profession until the age for normal retirement. On the other hand, the failure of a small group of teachers to support retirement legislation may make such legislation difficult or impossible of enactment and result in harm both to teachers and children. Every teacher should give his support to the enactment of a sound teacher retire-

ment system, if for no other reason than his interest in the advancement of the profession.

Every teacher has a direct personal interest in the enactment of sound retirement legislation.

Teachers, like other people, sometimes refuse to face facts. They refuse to recognize that:

- a. Human beings must look forward to old age.
- b. Practically all old teachers did not expect to keep on in the profession when they first began teaching.
- c. Many teachers who have given their lives to the profession are actually destitute at the present time.

A recent investigation covering but twelve states revealed 1,263 teachers dragging out the last years of their lives in poverty. It is no answer to say: "That will never happen to me." It has happened already to thousands who have said the same thing. No one can predict his future with certainty.

In fact, reaching old age without adequate financial support is more likely to happen to a teacher than a member of other groups. The man or woman who marries and raises a family has given "hostages to fortune." At the time when he reaches old age his dependents become capable of supporting him. When the unmarried teacher reaches old age, however, his dependents have usually ceased to exist. Few of the many teachers who now have others, partially or wholly, dependent upon them may look forward to protection in old age as a result of the care which they give these dependents.

In short, the unmarried teacher is in a peculiar position. There is a greater possibility of this teacher becoming a public charge than almost any other member of society. Teachers' salaries should be large enough to permit saving, but usually they are not. In the few cases where they are, the absolute guarantee of a retirement law is still necessary to insure the teacher against unforeseen want. Every teacher, therefore, has an exceptional interest in seeing that the extra hazard of dependence in old age, which service in the profession means, should be met by the enactment of a sound teacher retirement system.

Sound teacher retirement legislation is based upon sound business principles, which may be freely accepted by all teachers without loss of self-respect.

A sound teacher retirement law is a straight business proposition in which two interested groups, the public and the teachers, share the cost of supporting a proposition that brings benefit to both. The retirement annuity is in no sense a gratuity or a matter of charity as the "pension" systems of the past so often have been. It is as much the teacher's as is the salary that he receives during his period of actual service. He has fully earned it, and he may accept it without question. A teacher may support sound retirement legislation without any feeling that it involves a lowering of his own self-respect, or that in which the profession is held.

The enactment of sound legislation must be preceded by and be based upon a proper education of both the teaching profession and the public.

In local communities there is sometimes a small minority of teachers who do not appreciate the need for retirement legislation. Among the general public there are still a few so shortsighted that they are unable to see the benefits that accrue to the children from the enactment of sound teacher retirement legislation.

In spite of the small cost that an annuity plan adds to public expenditures, and the many savings which it brings, they oppose all efforts to enact such legislation. It is necessary to educate carefully such people, as well as those who more readily recognize its benefits.

The enactment of sound legislation must be based upon united effort on the part of the teaching profession.

In carrying on the important work of actually obtaining the enactment of

legislation, teachers must preserve a united front. The opponents of sound teacher retirement legislation too often have betrayed such measures by arraying one group in the profession against another, such as elementary teachers against secondary teachers, or beginning teachers against those of experience. Whenever teachers allow this to be done, they are the losers. Much of the difficulty that lies in the way of present legislation arises from the indifference or petty disputes of the teachers. All teachers, no matter what type of educational position they hold, should approach the problem in a spirit marked by a willingness to accept reasonable compromises, and an ability to see the other teachers' viewpoint. There should be a willingness to submerge non-essentials, individual likes and dislikes, and individual interests to the larger benefits that come to the profession as a whole from the enactment of legislation, based upon sound principles, rather than upon the desire to make special exceptions for any individual or group in the profession. Controversial points should be decided with the greatest possible fairness, and then all should stand together.

SABBATICAL LEAVE

WILLIAM F. WEBSTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

Education is the greatest business of any nation today. Among civilized peoples no other enterprise rivals it, either in money expended or in persons engaged. Twenty-five millions of children and youth, led by 800,000 teachers, supported by \$2,000,000,000 a year measure the extent of the undertaking.

If education is the greatest activity of a people, it naturally follows that teaching is the most honorable profession. Educators have set a high mark for their labors—no less than to establish in youth the habit of being well and the love of abounding health; to furnish forth boys and girls so that the great world shall be no unsolvable riddle and with confidence they shall take their places in industry; from little childhood to instill in their minds the obligation which lies upon him who rules as truly as upon him who obeys; to teach youth to fill up the lengthening hours of leisure with things worth while and always to play the game squarely like honorable men.

What profession has set for itself nobler ideals? It should stand first; but does it? By the measure of extent it surely assumes the first place, but there are other standards by which a profession should be judged. Does it attract the best minds and does it hold them? Are the rewards for advancing knowledge and greater skill sufficient to call for continued endeavor? In law it may almost be said that once a lawyer always a lawyer; and white hairs are the sign of accumulated wisdom. So the physician and surgeon remains in his profession, because he loves it; and while his hand may waver, his advice gains in value with the hurrying years. It is the same with engineers and all men of science; and in the world of business the rule maintains that experience is the mother of wisdom, and wisdom has her rewards.

Yet when we enter the field of teaching, the standards set for other professions do not maintain. You have all visualized that line of teachers as pictured by Bagley, and remember that 150,000 passed by the reviewing stand before one was reached who had taught two years, and one-half the

line before the first one who had taught four years appeared. A study made by the Chicago High School Teachers' Club in 1914 reads: "We have it on government authority that after ten years only 5 percent of teachers remain in the profession; after twenty years less than 4 percent." The average term of service has lengthened since 1914; but it is doubtful whether it has reached eight years even today. In Minneapolis this last year 25 percent had taught ten years, and only 17 percent had taught twenty-one years or more. Again that famous line is in review, and 25 percent had passed before one was reached who was twenty-one years of age, and 300,000 had skipped by before one sedate teacher with four years of experience was reached.

Wisdom which is the ripened fruit of maturity and establishes a profession cannot be gained when less than 5 percent of the teachers practice in the profession twenty years.

In most school systems the number of years of experience needed to reach the maximum of salary varies from ten to twelve. That is, if we assume that the average age for entering upon teaching is twenty-two, and I am sure that the figure is too high, at the age of thirty-two or thirty-four, increasing rewards for better service have ceased. In the other professions the compensation advances with experience for another thirty years.

Another factor in decimating this army has been the insecurity of positions. Fortunately communities are providing against removals of teachers, except for definite causes. When to this is added a retirement fund for teachers who have given faithful service, these elements have not the baneful influence they once possessed.

Many teachers have incurred heavy obligations to secure an education; many others are in honor bound to contribute to the support of relatives. All feel the need of providing for the future. Yet each new year finds them only a little in advance of the last, and to drop out a year or a half year for study is impossible. They might be willing to incur some further liability, if an increase in salary should follow a further expenditure for advanced education. In a few cities, salary increases are given for certain definite studies in college or university; and in all cities having a single salary schedule, recognition is given to the degree without regard to the position held by a teacher, whether in elementary or high schools. If advanced education is worth while, communities should make it possible; and many cities have thought more training so valuable that they have granted to teachers a sabbatical leave.

It seems to be well established that study after a period of teaching gives the largest return. It is not possible for any person preparing for teaching to foresee the problem that will confront her. Even though they be stated by a Kilpatrick or a Judd they are not yet real. The schoolroom alone propounds the hardest questions; and with an inquiring mind now crowded full of realities gained by years of experience, a teacher is just ready for her most profitable study in education.

Statements of new teachers clearly indicate that they knew very little about how to teach when they began. It would be interesting to know

what the percentage of efficiency really is in that terrifying first year. Measured by her later achievement, a first-year teacher is not over 50 percent efficient; and many will tell you that they learned more in that back-breaking first year than in all the years they studied at normal or university. The second year was much like the first; and it is not until the fourth or fifth year that things begin to slow down. And a statement has been made that rather early in experience average efficiency comes to a standstill; most teachers then remain on a plateau for a long period of years.

The problem for school administrations, then, is to find the fountain of perpetual youth. Demonstration schools in many cities, for those who are struggling in those trying first years and for those who later feel the need of the newer technics (and there are newer and better ways of doing things) have proved their value, and many teachers raise their voices, grown young again, in praise of these opportunities. And many cities have inaugurated the sabbatical leave as another method of renewing youthful enthusiasm.

The rules adopted for carrying on a sabbatical leave are nearly uniform for all cities. There must first be a period of service, before the leave can be secured. Of the thirty cities now granting this opportunity, twelve cities demand seven years of prior service, and thirteen cities call for ten years. The assumption which underlies this larger demand is that worthy service has earned this privilege; but I am sure that many administrators believe that a short period of teaching has not established the probability that any person has definitely chosen his life profession. Surely when half of our teachers leave before five years of service there can be small justification for a period of less than seven years; especially is this true when most cities have a probationary period of three years. On the other hand, deferring too long defeats a part of its purpose. The vista of years seems endless to youth, and dull drudgery stifles enthusiasm. Hope deferred makes the heart sad. The present general practice of requiring seven to ten years of preliminary experience seems wise.

The length of the leave is one year or one-half year, twenty-two cities granting a full year, and eight one-half year. Minneapolis is one of the cities granting one semester, though a second semester may be taken, but at the teacher's own expense. The reason for the shorter period was that I believed that the number applying would be so large that it would be unfair to the great majority to have only a few benefit by this opportunity. So far the quota has never been filled; but the number is steadily increasing and doubtless to grant the longer leave to a few would cut out others from going. It seems better that many share rather than that a few monopolize the privilege.

Of course more could go if the total number absent at one time were increased. Statements from cities do not generally contain this item. One percent of all teachers seems to be the commonest maximum who may be on leave in the larger cities, though Ann Arbor allows three percent. If the number of teachers remaining in the force after ten years is but five

percent of the whole, and one percent of the whole number can be away, it is manifest that this means one out of five eligibles may be on leave. Now should it really be more? I doubt it.

The salary paid during this period is one-half pay or full pay less the salary of a substitute. In either case the expense to the city is negligible. Fifteen cities use half pay, while three use full salary less the pay of a substitute. Seven cities limit the pay to \$1,000 or some other fixed amount. Five have various other provisions. Because the expense to the city is a mere trifle, some teachers have expressed the wish that they be granted a year's leave rather than a semester's, and the basis of the request is that it costs nothing to the city. On the other hand, it is assumed by the administration that the skill of a regular teacher is greater than that of a substitute who takes her place. Though the money cost to a city would not be increased by this provision, some one is paying the price, and that somebody is the helpless children. Who knows what the price is? If cost were the lone consideration, schools might better be served entirely by substitutes. It would be cheap, but would it be economical?

Nearly every city has thought it wise to provide for the teacher's return to service after leave. Three years of teaching is the common term of service, though three have two years and five have one. New York does not demand any compensatory service. In every case except New York teachers must stipulate that they will give back to the city, if they leave before the period of teaching agreed upon, an amount of money proportionate to the time they have not taught.

Another agreement which the cities generally make is that a teacher may return to the same position she left, if she so desires. Further the teacher will receive the same increment of salary as if teaching, nor does she forfeit any rights to the retirement fund provisions. These rules apply with but slight variations in all cities. They are a just obligation; for to withdraw any of these privileges lays an unwarranted penalty on a teacher, who, we should never forget, is paying her share to make her service valuable to the city.

The next and most vital consideration is what are the objectives and what are the results. The tabulation shows that the whole thirty cities name study as the first objective; nineteen include travel; four mention restoration of health; and five grant leave for rest after twenty years of service. No stronger endorsement could be given for granting a leave for restoration of health than the actual story which New York tells. In 1915, the retirement fund had run so low that teachers eligible to its benefits could get no annuity. The board of education felt an obligation in the matter, and granted leave on half pay to those teachers. The renewal of strength was so noticeable that many of the teachers returned to very satisfactory service. This experience was repeated several times before a sabbatical leave was adopted for the city in 1925. The original plan limited this privilege to one hundred elementary teachers and fifty high school teachers, approximately one-half of one percent of all teachers. Subsequently the number has been twice extended, and last year their bylaw was suspended, and

the privilege was granted to 337, over one percent of the whole teaching corps. What higher endorsement could be given?

Teachers are like other persons and can get tired. To travel the same road day after day brings weariness at evening. Some morning, after years of devoted sacrifice, a teacher finds that gentle sleep has not knitted up the raveled sleeve of care. Pain holds revel in the tired-out body where joy was wont to dwell. Life's pulses then beat low, and fear creeps into the soul. Day is passed with dread, and night is filled with devastating dreams. What does she see at the end but horrifying failure? Then comes rest, rest with half pay. The mountains are yet strong; the ocean is infinite. She can walk beside the still waters; she can find her way through green pastures; kind nature will restore the soul, and she can join singing:

I hear the echoes through the mountain throng,
The winds come to me from the fields of sleep,
And all the earth is gay:
Land and sea
Give themselves to jollity,
And with the heart of May
Doth every beast keep holiday;
Thou Child of Joy,
Shout round me, let me hear thy shouts, thou
Happy Shepherd-boy!

And teachers can go stale. To teach the same reading lesson, arithmetic, spelling, and geography—what of novelty or interest has not been sucked out of them long years ago? Were it not for her abiding happiness of living with little children, a teacher's mind would always drop down to drowsy slumber. For them she urges herself forward; but at last lethargy overcomes activity and the mind grows like a stagnant pool. You have seen such a pond, all covered tight with its forbidding scum. But let a small bright stream pour its waters through, then the little fishes flash silver in their play; birds dip their bills and lift their heads in gladness; and lilies float in leisurely rhythm on the swinging waves. So I see study for a semester or a year pouring fresh knowledge through a stagnant mind, clearing out dead old notions and making room for new. When tried and proved worthy, new principles and new technics find safe lodgment; and in a soil, prepared and fertile, new variants take root, and original ideas flourish. Confidence overcomes timidity and joy in labor possesses a mind made strong again.

And teachers along with all other persons can grow narrow. Provincialism is today almost a crime against humanity. Who lives to himself in a little world which he crosses every morning and returns at evening to place his profits in a safe deposit vault, even though the probate notice shows a large estate, is a sorry failure. He dwells forever in a dark tower of self. Only one little window opens out upon a sordid world. Surely one of the most important lessons we should be teaching today is unselfishness, so wide that it passes beyond home and town and nation,

leaps the barriers between peoples, and includes all humanity. We may learn from our geographies the height of mountains, the length of rivers, the size of cities, and what the people do to live, but never the nation. Nations are not things, large or small; nations are the souls of men and women and little children. Fortunate indeed is any city which sends a quota of its teachers to travel in foreign lands. For we can know a people, its habits of living, of thinking, its hoping, only as we dwell among them. And just as surely as ignorance among nations leads to suspicion, suspicion begets fear, and fear is the mother of hatred and war, so surely does understanding lead to confidence, confidence to good will, and good will to strong and enduring peace.

A sabbatical leave should be granted for rest, for study, for travel—these three—but for today the greatest of these is travel.

THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION FOR MAINE
AND PRESIDENT OF THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDU-
CATION ASSOCIATIONS

Federated education grew out of a great need. It has a very definite mission and so long as it keeps level and does not lend itself to propaganda but contents itself with the legitimate fields of education, it will serve humanity in a high sense. Its need came from a torn world, a world distressed, sick, impoverished, bleeding, and heart-sore. It seems to me today I can hear the tread of two armies. One is a retreating tread, slow and faltering, and its cheers of triumph grow fainter and fainter. The other is the tread of a sprightly army. Its banners are flying. Hope is exultant. It has faith. The one is the retreat of the present generation, fast leaving the field. The other is the rising young army of youth still to be trained for the work they are to accomplish. This army represents over three hundred million children of the world. They are captained by five million teachers who hold in their hands the welfare, even the destiny of civilization. They can train this young army as they desire.

We have developed within practically all countries a system of jurisprudence and standards of justice so that differences between individuals may be settled in an amicable, peaceful manner by courts especially established for that purpose, but when we come to the national boundary, we have no force or power to determine right and justice and to redress grievances other than to take a gun and shoot. Has the world not advanced to such a point that it can find an organized means of referring matters of international disagreement to some sort of governmental machinery capable of determining under our standards of justice the issue at stake? If the present generation is not far enough advanced to undertake successfully a proposition of this kind, then the rising generation should be so

instructed that when it takes our places, it may be able to accomplish what we have not.

Today, there is a discussion at Geneva in regard to reduction of arms. This will eventually come as the nations can mutually agree and thus save vast expenditures and take a heavy load from the shoulders of the common people. France is challenging the United States in the outlawry of war. Japan and America are discussing the same issue. If there can be no general tribunal to which these matters may be referred, then there is nothing to hinder any country on the face of the earth from making an individual agreement with all other countries to this end.

There is a great moral issue involved. Moral conscience can be cultivated. This is a part of education. Neither education nor diplomacy can do this alone. Diplomacy must furnish the machinery but education must furnish the skilled operator. But, after all, it is not the propaganda sort of education that is needed. Most international difficulties are intellectual difficulties as well as economic and political. If common grounds of understanding can be found, then the nations can get together. Common interest and common traits of character will form the basis of understanding. It is the purpose of the World Federation to open up the minds of the people by sound forms of education, by the giving of accurate and satisfying information in regard to each other and by eliminating so far as possible the old-time prejudices and animosities which have too long dominated the world. We are now discussing the question of school materials and the preparation of texts. We are discussing means of cooperation in a sensible way with all organizations working to a similar end. We are studying the methods and instruments used in past years in settling international disputes by amicable means. We are also working with the international relations of youth—essay and oratorical contests, school correspondence and international athletics.

The sporting trait of the French people made them forget the obnoxious debt issue when Captain Lindbergh landed at Le Bourget. Sporting blood is the most common blood of the human race and should be utilized in bringing about international understandings and in relieving national jealousies and racial hatreds. It is a trait worth cultivating. We seldom have trouble with a good sportsman. Through this element, we are closer to the French people today than we have been since the Armistice. Much international trouble comes from intellectual rather than economic or political difficulties. The sporting element is closely allied to the social side of life. We need to cultivate each other in order to clear away misunderstandings. Ignorance causes misunderstandings. Misunderstandings cause hatreds and hatreds cause war. War, therefore, becomes an intellectual problem.

Our schools can do more than any other influence to break down the wall of prejudice. The sporting sense should be developed. It is the "wooden horse" by means of which we can break into the walled city of human hatreds. It will strip the mask of deceit from the fact of racial and na-

tional jealousies. If the nations can be brought together and can find a common interest to absorb their attention, they would make more wholesome treaties on economic and diplomatic issues. Baseball enthusiasts can visit all night about their famous players and the great games they have witnessed. Golf players have a common topic to cement friendships. Connoisseurs of antiquities never tire of each other. Many lasting friendships have been found on the links, the gridirons and the diamonds. If the schools have a world-wide mission, it is to clear up the idea that some are the chosen people and that some are born superior to others in human rights. The Declaration of American Independence that "all men are created free and equal in certain inalienable rights" should be a world-wide principle, the teaching of which will do much to enhance the value of the Golden Rule at home and abroad.

It is the mission of the World Federation to bring together the leaders of youth and form social and professional contacts which will enable them to see the way more clearly and thus lead the rising generation to right thinking and right attitudes.

THE TEACHER AND THE SCHOOL BOARD

E. E. OBERHOLTZER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, HOUSTON, TEXAS

The speaker's appearance upon this program by request of the president of this association is without further instruction than the statement of the subject. The speaker assumes from reading the other subjects assigned on this program that the general theme is the relationship of the teacher to the various organized or unorganized agencies of control with which the teacher comes in contact in the performance of his service.

In discussing the subject assigned, the speaker shall interpret it to mean those relationships between the board of education and the teacher which determine and direct affairs and, in a high degree, measure the results obtained by the teacher in relation to all of the activities of the school.

One of the most phenomenal stories of progress dealing with an institution concerned with human affairs is told in Doctor Kandell's and others' review of "Twenty-five Years of American Education," the special period referred to being the first twenty-five years of this century. They say:

We have found the chief characteristic of our national life during the past twenty-five years to be a rapidly increasing complexity of economic and social conditions. This factor has called for the elaboration of new social controls in which both the federal and the state governments have participated. It is very natural that the public agencies for education should have received a great deal of attention in this time, since the schools must serve as the fundamental social control in a democratic society, and it may be said that education has made greater progress in the period under consideration than in any period of equal length during our history as a nation and, perhaps, than in all the years of our history preceding.

It cannot be denied that throughout our nation great progress has been made in the management and administration of our schools. The board

of education is the legally constituted agency of control. It is, therefore, legally responsible for the sum total of all accomplishments in the field of public school education, yet the process of education is in a deeper sense a spiritual growth, reaching from the lower level to the highest level of all conceived objectives for living. Edward Everett said, "What considerate person can enter a school and not reflect, with awe, that it is a seminary where immortal minds are training for eternity?"

In the many interpretations of the aims of education, we find great emphasis upon the training of the individual in his relation to life. This interpretation changes as modern society grasps a new vision of living typical of this progress. Consider the definitions of education as given by some of the pioneer thinkers of different periods: Quoting from Sully, "Education seeks, by social stimulus, guidance, and control, to develop the natural powers of the child, so as to render him able and disposed to lead a healthy, happy, and morally worthy life."

John Milton says, "A complete and generous education fits a man to perform justly, skilfully, and magnanimously all the offices, both public and private, of peace and war."

While from one of our greatest educators, W. T. Harris, I learn, "Education is the preparation of the individual for reciprocal union with society; the preparation of the individual so that he can help his fellow-men and in return receive and appropriate their help."

Each age brings a new vocabulary of educational terms. The members of this Association who have listened to addresses or discussions still have ringing in their ears, "aims, objectives, outcomes, aptitudes, interests, ideals, attitudes, habits, and, more recently, that more mystical and sometimes confusing term integration. Let us not fail to appreciate these discussions. In fact, discussion seems to be one avenue for inspiring thinking. Certainly this is an age when thinking and re-thinking becomes an integral part in the solution of the innumerable problems in every school system. Out of the maze of discussion and intricate organization must come a balanced and harmonious effect upon the child in his relation to life. These results challenge the best in the agencies of control, as well as the workers.

The board of education and its teachers are interdependent. The definition of the relationship is insignificant in comparison with the actual accomplishment. It is assumed by the speaker that for the purpose of discussion these relationships may be classified somewhat generally as follows:

1. Legal—that having to do with the provision of law.
2. Administrative—that having to do with measures of control, both delegated and direct.
3. Supervisory—that having to do with direction and improvement of the teaching service, which, for the most part, has become a delegated function.
4. Professional—that which has to do with preparation for and performance of efficient teaching service.

Your speaker makes no pretense of giving an exhaustive discussion of

these topics. The field of theory and practice is as varied as situations are varied.

However, the legal relationship of the teacher to the board of education is largely defined in terms of law, supplemented by regulations both specific and implied. The first obligation of both parties is to understand these relations and to exercise the chief quality of good citizenship—obedience to law.

In the field of administration much depends upon the organization through which the schools are conducted. Such relationship varies from the small community, where the teacher has direct relation to the board of education, to the large city, where the teacher has indirect relation through the chief executive and other administrative officers. In administration of any organization, there are four general phases:

- a. Statement of aims or purpose
- b. Policy making
- c. Executing, operating or managing
- d. Checking and evaluating results.

So in the field of practice, at least for the larger communities, more and more the board of education is the controlling agency for legislation and final action on policy. The other functions of administration are usually delegated to the superintendent as chief executive and administrator. The relationship of the teacher to the administration is, therefore, largely the relationship of the teacher to the superintendent and his assistants. The superintendent must be scientific and professional, as well as practical in the interpretation of his functions. He must have freedom to work unhampered; he must give inspiration and he must be as truly creative as any of his research workers or advisors in understanding and modifying technic and procedure. Scientific knowledge can never be disassociated from dynamic power in great leadership. Both are necessary to efficient administration. The great challenge to the superintendent for leadership must not overshadow his understanding, appreciation and faith in his coworkers—the teachers. The wise administrator counsels, procures cooperation and participation from the teachers in both the setting up and the achievement of goals. Moreover, the teacher must be privileged to enter into and help initiate the new movements, as well as enjoy the satisfaction which comes from such achievements. Each must see the relationship of the other to the whole undertaking. The most important criterion by which to judge the work of the administration is found in the queries—

1. How much have I grown?
2. How much have those associated with me grown?
3. To what extent have I and my associates realized our highest possibilities?

All creative work promotes growth and such growth permeates the lives of those affected in the school system. The chief barometer of such growth is devotion to the cause of public education and is reflected by those partici-

pating in the administration and enjoyed by those who become the benefactors through direct or by-products. The speaker took the liberty of submitting three leading questions to a body of some fifteen hundred teachers, asking for voluntary replies. Sufficient returns to indicate a fair sampling were received. Following are the questions submitted to the teachers:

1. What is the relationship between the teacher and board of education—
 - a. As found for the most part in schools in Texas?
 - b. In your own city?
2. What do you consider the common relationship between the teacher and the board of education?
3. If you were to idealize, what would you consider the ideal relationship between the teacher and the board of education?

To characterize the returns, one word—cooperation—expresses the most frequent reply. In defining cooperation, all definitions emphasize a proper understanding of relationship, a well defined goal of achievement and unified effort for accomplishment. These results seem to indicate the high professional regard with which teachers consider their life work. It is the belief of the speaker that emphasis upon cooperation in terms of the definition given above would in a large measure answer and define the right relationship of the teacher in all its phases.

Cooperation in administration does not concern itself so much with mechanical organization, with rules and regulations, or with personal relations, but it does concern itself with the right interpretation, understanding and attitude of the coworkers in unselfish service. To those administrators who are able to establish intelligent and cooperative administration, it offers the opportunity for the development of high morale, the utilization of the field of experience and molds inspiration and ideals as represented by the teaching force. Such administration enhances the professional education and progress, both individually and collectively, and makes for greater accomplishment towards the ultimate goal. The machinery of such cooperation must be determined by the personnel, professional leadership, and the problems present in the situation. Certainly the present movements in education are of a cooperative nature and one can find excellent opportunities to evaluate the various types of organizations through advisory bodies, such as the teachers' council, the organization for curriculum building, or through the development of a salary schedule.

The marvelous growth and development of this National Education Association in a marked degree is due to the intelligent and scientific service rendered to the teachers of this nation in molding the spirit of cooperation, in promoting research, and in making possible exchange of experiences in the field of practice. Your speaker has had the opportunity in the past three years to participate in, to test and to appreciate the value of such cooperative effort.

Turning to the field of supervision, it is found that the teacher's rela-

tionship to the board of education is governed chiefly by the relationship existing between himself and the various coworkers to whom has been delegated the authority of supervision. There is no well defined line where administration stops and supervision begins, but the emphasis in supervision is placed more directly upon the teaching process and the work of the classroom. Supervision, whether direct or indirect, must deal specifically with the problems of the classroom and for the benefit of the learner. Effective supervision has for its objectives the improvement of the teacher in the service, the improvement of the quality of instruction, the establishment of well defined and achievable goals of attainment, the coordination of all work, both as to quality and quantity, and, perhaps most important of all, the adaptation of the teaching process and the curriculum to the particular needs of the child. These objectives center about the teacher-child relationship and must be carried on largely in the field of practice. To the degree in which the teacher participates and enters into supervision, to that degree is supervision successful. That supervision is best which helps the teacher to understand and find the solution for her own problems. Supervision must command respect and confidence and develop appreciation of constructive criticism. Supervision is best carried on in cooperative effort illustrated in such types as demonstration teaching, exchange of good practice, or the evaluation of different methods or technic.

The measure in which the supervisor stimulates the teacher or teachers to enter into such cooperative effort, with a give-and-take attitude, determines the active interest of the teachers in supervision. This is the most difficult kind of supervision. Supervision must become scientific and supervisors must learn to become their own critics. The most worthwhile supervision is that which in the beginning makes the teacher feel the need and seek the assistance of the supervisor's service, but as the supervision progresses, the teacher becomes more independent and has less need of the supervisor's service. Growth, participation, renewed enthusiasm, broadened vision and professional zeal are resultants of good supervision and the proper relations of the supervisor and teacher. The key words of this relationship are cooperation, loyalty and sincerity.

We turn now to the last relationship—professional, that which has to do with the preparation for and performance of teaching service. In this we must consider a relationship which cannot be defined by any language of contract, or fully described by any code of ethics, or fully determined by any means of measurement and evaluation. The teacher's relationship embraces full responsibility to perform all obligations of service to childhood. In teacher-preparation and performance, the limitations should be placed only for the minimum. Penalties should be promptly administered for all professional transgressions. Among the unpardonable ones should be professional stagnation, professional dishonor and professional disloyalty. But for fear this thought might emphasize too much the language of the decalogue, "Thou shalt not," such positive relations and incentives should be established through well defined awards of merit to those who rise to

highest levels, fulfilling the obligation of eternal growth, the obligation of complete consecration to unselfish service and the obligation of mutual faith and wholehearted cooperation. Such qualities of teaching service must command from the layman, though he be a member of the governing board of education, the highest respect and esteem as evidenced in this high calling of human endeavor, namely, that of our own profession of teaching.

Educational progress is dependent on the teacher's progress and ability to meet these human and professional responsibilities. For as teachers become scientists in a functional sense and humanists in an interpretive sense, both relationship and accomplishments become merged in the absorbing and altruistic service, the highest goal of the teaching profession.

THE TEACHER AND THE LEGISLATURE

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There are right ways and wrong ways for teachers to work with legislatures. My purpose is to analyze both right and wrong ways and, if possible, to outline a method of securing legislation worthy of approval.

May we concede at the outset that a teacher has as much right to lobby in the legislature as a doctor, a lawyer or an engineer; also, that a teachers' organization has as much right to maintain its committees in the state capital during a legislative session as has the State Federation of Labor, the State Chamber of Commerce, the League of Women Voters or the State Grange? It does not follow, however, that having the right, it is expedient for a teacher or a teachers' organization to exercise that right at all times; but there are times and occasions when it is imperative that the right should be exercised.

Teachers organizations as a whole are altruistic in their purposes, but to date the positive achievements of far too many of them consist of tax measures, salary schedules, tenure acts and retirement systems. These results, in the public mind, savor of advancing the interests of teachers rather than of promoting the education of children. This conclusion on the part of the public is short-sighted, but it is real. We know that a teacher cannot do his best work for the children committed to his care unless he receives a salary comparable with the income of others of his social standing, unless he is reasonably secure in his position and unless he knows that he will not have to spend the evening of his life in the poorhouse. The average citizen, however, does not see that far ahead.

I am convinced, after many years of work in the public schools and with the legislatures of several states, that these good objectives could have been attained with less public criticism had teachers emphasized higher qualifications for themselves, teaching efficiency during their active service and retirement allowances as deferred salaries rather than pensions. Is it too much to hope that teachers and their organizations will soon take a more

advanced stand in their legislative work and focus their attention on constructive work, such as right procedures by the federal government in educational matters, by state and local boards of education and by state department staffs, and equitable distribution of public funds for education based upon the need of a community to give every child a square deal? By promoting the general educational welfare, by fostering professional zeal and by advancing educational standards we will win the respect and good will of the tax-paying public who, in turn, will gladly, through their representatives in the legislature, enact the provisions which will make us comfortable in our work. Salaries, tenure and retirement allowances will come as a byproduct of qualifications, efficiency and professional spirit. If we aim at the former we make recognition of the latter tardy and reluctant. If we aim at the latter we enlist the active cooperation of legislators and taxpayers who cheerfully grant the former as means of securing the latter.

To be more specific, in Pennsylvania our state education association, working through its committees on legislation, has been largely instrumental in securing the enactment of four far-reaching measures;

1. *The School Code of 1911.* This code divided school districts into four classes, according to population; provided the number of school directors, their qualifications, powers and duties; defined the system of school finances, limiting school bonds and determining the taxation for the school districts of each class; provided for school directors' associations; established a state council of education; provided standards for the certification of teachers; established medical inspection of pupils and teachers; outlined courses of study; classified high schools; provided for consolidated schools, vocational schools, normal schools and public school libraries and established a state school fund.

2. *The Retirement Act of 1917.* This Act established a statewide public school employees' retirement system. Fifty percent of this fund is made up of contributions by the teachers or employees, twenty-five percent by the school districts or employers and twenty-five percent by state appropriations. The benefits of this act were further extended by legislation in 1925. This system now has reserve funds totaling \$48,000,000.

3. *The Woodruff Salary Act of 1919.* This Act provided higher pay for all school teachers in all school districts and established a minimum salary of \$65 a month.

4. *The Edmonds Act of 1921.* This Act set new standards of qualifications for teachers, providing that after September 1, 1927, all elementary teachers in the public schools must have had two years' normal school training or its equivalent above a full four-year high school course and all secondary school teachers an A. B. degree or its equivalent. The act increased teachers' salaries and stipulated a minimum salary of \$100. It also determined the method for apportioning state aid.

In all four acts our Association enjoyed the active and hearty cooperation of the public, the press and taxpayers.

In the second and third measures, retirement and salaries, our Association had the cooperation of another teachers' organization, quite strong at that time and with good leadership. In the fourth measure, new standards of qualifications for teachers, we encountered serious difficulty with that group which by that time had fallen into less wise hands and was working

for only one thing—tenure. The Edmonds Bill was finally passed and has become the basis of Pennsylvania's present state program of education. But the break in our ranks in 1921 made itself felt in the legislatures of 1923 and 1925 and to a less degree in 1927.

The situation I am trying to picture to you is this: the state education association is working for the general educational welfare; the other group is working for tenure. The program of the state education association includes tenure for teachers; the program of the other group consists only of tenure for teachers. Not much difference, you will say. But there is a colored gentleman in the woodpile and that gentleman's name is "politics." In the light of recent primary election scandals in the Keystone State you are already prepared to believe that I have named the "gentleman" correctly and are doubtless interested to know just how "he" worked.

I challenge anyone to find a better example of the wrong way to do legislative work than the procedure I am about to describe. I will make the description impersonal as I have no grudges to satisfy and will give the facts in a purely academic manner to illustrate how, by faulty procedure, well-meaning teachers working for a good cause may not only fail to accomplish their purpose, but also may antagonize a long-suffering legislature to the nth degree, make themselves anathema and kill their own cause.

The "gentleman in the woodpile," hereafter called simply the "gentleman," relied upon the political power of a relative who undoubtedly had great political prestige. "He" and a handful of kindred spirits set out to give Pennsylvania a tenure law. "He" didn't consider it necessary to adhere to a tenure bill agreed to by the two teachers organizations, but changed it to suit his whims, without consulting our association's committee on legislation. After "he" had embarked upon that independent career he was, of course, allowed to go it alone. "He" and three or four associates button-holed legislators in season and out of season, they stayed in the capital city all the time the legislature was in session, they sat in the front part of the legislative hall and checked up on the way the various members voted. After the defeat of their pet measure in the session of 1923 they published the vote of individual members and sought to prevent the re-election of certain members to the 1925 legislature.

In the 1925 legislature, the scene was re-enacted with greater vigor for the "gentleman's" prestige had greatly increased. Here was a pretty set-up with everything made to order, but the opposition to a selfish bill, selfishly sponsored to keep a few leaders in the limelight, was so great that when the Tenure Bill came to third reading in the House even with the strength of the Republican organization mustered in its favor it went down to defeat.

After that defeat the "gentleman" subsided somewhat for his prestige in the Republican party had been shattered. But the presidency of the teacher-group passed to another who had a relative in the state senate. In 1927, the scene was re-enacted with the same, though less spectacular, result. What do we get from this allegorical recital?

Before drawing up conclusions may I give another illustration of legislative work which I observed this spring but in which neither I nor the organization I represent had any immediate interest? It is the work of the League of Women Voters. That organization is non-partisan and aims to inform women voters regarding the political issues of the day. It stands for the best in legislation and during our legislature of 1927 sought to abolish the fee system of paying tax collectors. Had they secured this desirable legislation they would have saved many thousands of dollars of public money, but the tactics of its committee on legislation not only failed to get their bill out of committee and on the calendar but nearly broke up the organization.

This is how it happened. The legislative committee opened headquarters in the capital city, tabulated the members of both houses, lobbied personally by the button-hole method, occupied prominent places in the legislative halls, watched members as they voted, circularized them, brought pressure to bear from various constituencies "back home"; in fact, did everything short of coercion.

A week before the close of the session, with their bill still in committee, the chairman of the legislative committee of the League of Women Voters left the capital city in high dudgeon charging that the President of the League was advocating machine politics rather than political education and that the League had changed its fundamental policy. These charges were vague and nebulous to be sure but they well-nigh disrupted the organization.

There is striking similarity in the methods used by the two organizations—the group of teachers referred to and the League of Women Voters:

- a. Both sponsored worthy measures.
- b. Both maintained continuous lobbies throughout the session of the legislature.
- c. Both used personal methods of button-holing legislators.
- d. Both practiced espionage on legislators as they voted.
- e. Both jeopardized their own causes.
- f. Both failed completely and brought censure upon their organizations.

In sharp contrast with these methods are those used, if I may be pardoned for mentioning my own organization, by the Pennsylvania State Education Association. They may be summarized as follows:

1. Our committee on legislation is elected by the House of Delegates of the Association. The committee elects its own chairman, who appoints various members of the committee on sub-committees to study particular problems and to organize a publicity campaign or a program of popular education on a desirable measure.

2. This committee works under the direction of the president and the Executive Council of the Association and submits to the House of Delegates at the annual convention a report embodying a program of desirable legislation. The House of Delegates, by vote, modifies and adopts the legislative program. It then becomes

the duty of the legislative committee to draft the necessary bills and have them introduced in the legislature.

3. Through the chairman of the educational committee of the Senate and the House, the chairman of our legislative committee arranges for hearings on measures which are not reported out of committee promptly. We prepare information for the committee and muster our forces for the hearing. Here is where we make our fight and we win or lose with the vote of the committee. If the vote is negative, the cause is dead for that session and we begin a program of education for two years hence. If the vote is affirmative we keep a watchful eye on the bill to see that it appears on the calendar and progresses satisfactorily through the required three readings, that it goes to the other house for action and that it is properly presented to the Governor for approval.

This is very simple procedure with all the cards on the table and with everything open and above board. The public will support such procedure, legislators like it, it produces results and there are no unfavorable reactions.

In this procedure, nothing is "sewed up," nothing is "put over," no individual is brought into the limelight, no one gets any glory, but good educational legislation is accomplished; teaching conditions are improved and educational opportunities are increased and equalized.

By the same procedure, we study and watch selfish, questionable legislative bills and frequently are able to get bad bills killed in committee or even on the floor if, by chance, they get that far. We do not hesitate to protest the passage of a questionable bill even though it is so strongly supported by some organization that it is sure to pass. We go on record against it and find that later after the heat of the legislative period is over and in the light of sober judgment such action is approved even by those who sponsored the questionable bill.

It is highly desirable, though not always necessary or possible, to work in complete harmony with the state department of public instruction and the political organization that is in the saddle. When this can be done, our Association's bills become administrative measures and our worries are reduced to the minimum. We do not then fear unfavorable memoranda from the state superintendent or the chairman of senate and house education committees. Neither do we worry about a veto by the Governor. It has been found advantageous at times to postpone a campaign for a meritorious measure from year to year pending its incorporation in the program of the department of public instruction. We thus practice the noble art of losing time but are the gainers in the long run.

A solid front of all the teachers of the state is of course desirable but, human nature being what it is, it is not always possible to present such unified forces. With a division in our ranks it is easy for a legislator to charge us with not knowing our own mind and to side-step the issue. We should endeavor to keep controversial matters out of the legislature until the educational forces get together at least on broad principles. Such an agreement having been reached, it should not be a difficult matter to adjust minor differences of opinion, to eliminate personal preference, to subordinate personalities and to get all the educational forces to pull together.

THE TEACHER AND THE PARENT

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With the changing conception of education and the attempt toward adaptation to modern complex life, new instruments of development are called into play. Holding a primary place in the list is the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, an organization representing the school and the home united in the interest of the child.

Perplexing and involved as is the business of professional teaching with its standards of training present in some degree, it becomes relatively simple compared with the business of parenthood without training in its field of transcendent importance. And this vast group of professionally untrained individuals is the deciding factor when questions concerning the education of the nation's children are before the people. Obviously problems affecting the present welfare and the future worth of the coming generation must be met by a plan holding the coordinated and cooperative consideration and activity of the community. This spreading realization accounts for the duration and growth of the organization that is the "Teacher and the Parent."

Each school and each home is, in itself, a realm of education, opportunity, actuality, and possibility, the respective limitations, lying only in the degree of efficiency held by the institution. Whether or not each establishment follows an unheeding unattached course the results must somehow be correlated as the same specimen is used for experiment in both laboratories.

An independent course could and did succeed with certain satisfactory consequence while education remained a process of culture rather than necessity; but when, as educators and laymen agree, civilization has become a matter of applied sciences, a combined program supported by both institutions becomes urgent. Again the growing conception finds its demonstration in the association of parent and teacher. With this unity of home and school before the mind, the vision is an ever widening view with no discernible limits to usefulness and influence.

While the growth of education has been constantly attended by the association of teachers and parents, manifestations of fraternity have not always been in keeping with the reality or the promise that existed. That an association was real and present was seldom perceptible to either school or home. Misunderstanding through lack of knowledge frequently reigned on both sides of this involuntary and wholly unofficial union. The work of the teacher was too often hindered by the inability of the parent to comprehend the atmosphere and effort of the school. A perspective encompassing only household situations and domestic problems could not call forth the support of education that should properly come from the home. Teachers, also unaware of relationship, lived the entire education program within the classrooms, failing to see that responsibility accompanied them

beyond the schoolhouse door. The child's gains and losses were in proportion to the ambition, vision and spirit of service prevailing simultaneously in his particular home and school, though he was at all times affected by the dependence of one on the other.

Now the parent-teacher association is here as part of the evolution of education. In its true form it is designed to increase proficiency in the rearing and training of children. Its first attainment of the organization, that homes and schools must work together, stands revealed. This first objective is realized, not only in theory, but indeed, a fact attested by the successful operation of many thousands of parent-teacher associations throughout our country. The membership approximates a million and a quarter men and women concerned in actively supporting a definite procedure for the promotion of childwelfare.

Parents have decided obligations to education and the parent-teacher association is the medium through which this truth may be brought to every home. The parent who is eager for his child to surpass the peak of achievement in health, wealth, and happiness is given a viewpoint that allows his child to remain the motif though not comprising the complete design in the community fabric. The parent who dwells serenely in the thought that schools were set up for the education of children, and that further contemplation of the subject is unnecessary, learns here that each individual has certain responsibility and that home, school, and community each have an established place in the general scheme.

The child's rights must be protected, not only by individual parents knowing that they may not be denied, but also by an organized plan to defend and promote them. A brief summary describes the right of every child to be well born into a good home in a decent community. A discerning public provides means for each child to reach his normal physical, mental, and moral stature. No child should want food or clothing. The mentally deficient and the underprivileged should be developed to the fullest possible capacity of self-reliance. The delinquent must be reclaimed and the orphan sheltered and cared for. Each child should be trained to earn his livelihood; all should be protected against exploitation. The child's right to play must be respected, his right to work and his inability to labor be acknowledged. Finally within the heart of every child should be established the faith that his gifts and talents are to be employed in the service of his fellows as well as for his own ends. Remedial, preventive and protective measures all fit into the elimination of problems, but only education extends the pledge of better conditions.

More universal education is ushering in an increasing comprehensiveness and a profounder meaning of conservation of child life, child health and general welfare. In furtherance of that greater public intelligence a wider program of training in preparation for life is developing. It is not a question of what either home or school can do for the relief of the other but the perfection of an advancing form of education so highly constructive that more and more children will be born of competent parents into homes

representing that competency in communities whose standards measure up to those of the homes. Such a plan can be perfected only through intelligence and cooperation.

The affiliation of teacher and parent has enabled the teaching profession to more rapidly and aggressively recognize that programs enveloping the children must regard homes individually and collectively in order to more adequately meet their highest purposes. From the vantage ground of professional preparedness the teacher sees in the ideal of this home and school combination a resourceful means of gaining great power in the field of education itself by bringing to school patrons through this community forum an understanding of problems involving the profession of teaching which only the public is able to solve. It is the profession's splendid opportunity to interpret the purpose and progress of education to the people.

The parents, as the child's sponsors, are so significantly endowed by the parent-teacher association that they are lifted from secondary position as "residents of the school district" to prestige as "members of the community" representing the motivating power that carries the community forward on a progressive education wave. While accentuating the importance of the teacher in the school, the organization introduces the teacher to the community a person of influence with qualifications for leadership.

Naturally the parent-teacher association did not enter a complete pattern faultless in detail. It appeared as a plan which only practice could adjust and polish to the point of usefulness. In this respect it compares with other agents of education all of which remain, as this one does, amenable to improvement and development. But the keen sighted educator and the clear thinking parent were quick to forecast the infinitely better state of affairs when homes and school collaborated in promotion of their common cause as opposed to a time when each, aloof in his pursuit, called loudly on all who would heed to witness the failure of the other institution.

In homely ways the process of adjusting and polishing began. The course in enlightenment and experience was initiated with the meeting of the teacher and the parent in the school. Though previously aware that primarily the business of the school is to impart information, here is born in a larger and more general way a conviction that even the school's most elementary purpose can be forwarded with only the degree of vigor and thoroughness the public makes possible by moral and financial support. Here also grows the estimation of the school as the highly favorable place it is for learning and living good citizenship. The parent is more urgently guided in his knowledge that lessons are learned in school but habits are formed at home, and character education depends on the joint operation which embraces the child.

Here both parent and teacher see the community. Perhaps life there has been idealized, or depreciated for what it might be, but here it is seen as it is. The parent-teacher association is a cross section of the community and a correct appraisal of the whole may be built upon it. The result is a more interested and sympathetic attitude toward all the children in the

neighborhood, a keener appreciation of their welldoing and a better understanding of their failures and weaknesses.

When the school has expressed in meeting its right to expect from the home a student punctual and regular in attendance that time, place, and quiet be given for home study, that the home recognize its duty in teaching the child respect for school authority and property, neat and appropriate attire for its effect on school work and deportment, thrift in use of time and materials; when individual pupil's share of time has been explained and when the report card has been elucidated, it is certain that a greater measure of mutual help obtains.

When parents have, through regular attendance in parent-teacher meetings where accurate information is obtainable, become acquainted with the requirements and needs of the school, larger sympathy through clearer understanding has followed. A will to provide through taxes enough of the right kind of school machinery has been exhibited. When tax money was not available or procurable associations have earned vast sums for equipment. A desire to serve the school in every possible way is shown. Individual members display an alert interest in the election of directors and other elective officers who are to be trusted with the business management of education. Cooperation with the school and interference with school administration are knowingly separated. Intelligent views on teacher training and the effect of salary schedules on teacher efficiency are acquired. Readiness to cooperate with school boards in constructive enterprises is manifested. Parents begin to place respective children as members of the large group. Criticism, based only on exact findings with all phases of the situation dispassionately considered, is made only at the right time and place, and then only if good judgement says it will be beneficial. Fault-finding with teacher or school is discouraged at home and elsewhere. It is taken for granted that the teacher must have comfortable quarters and pleasing surroundings and that full opportunity for pleasant social contacts be afforded. School activities are encouraged rather than frowned upon. Childwelfare legislation is given studious attention and active support. These statements are all immeasurably truer today than before the affiliation of home and school in an organized way. There can be no question that the child of today reaps untold advantage.

A casual survey of discussions in innumerable localities eight or nine times a year over the period of a child's school life supplies a partial list from which are taken the following topics: patching the leaky spot in the schoolhouse roof, draining the school ground that the play space will not be a slough of mud, making the water supply safe, providing laboratory equipment, reducing the fire hazard in the out-of-date frame building, erection of play sheds, modern lighting and heating of schoolrooms, ventilation of schoolhouses, cost of modern school building and equipment, intermediate schools, junior and senior high schools, junior colleges, extension service of the state university and the state college, health of the school child, library facilities, children's reading, adult education, parent's book-

lists, social standards, child psychology, child labor, leisure time, recreation, hot lunches, the undernourished and the malnourished child, habits of industry, open air schools, transportation of school children, consolidation of school districts, safety education, importance of humane education in character building, value of courtesy, the state and education, the nation's place in education, student loan funds, school bonds, student participation, school bands and orchestras, musical instruments, value of music, play apparatus, home and school gardens, art in education, motion pictures, school banks, dinners and receptions for the teachers, fathers and sons, mothers and daughters, juvenile courts, detention homes, parental schools, spiritual education, selection of high school courses, higher education, school legislation, getting the child ready for school, the preschool age, disease prevention and control, community spirit. The list could carry us on through many other fundamental subjects all dealing with education as it affected the child and enriched the equipment of school and home. But whatever the center of discussion at the end of the meeting, parents knew more about the school and its environments than when they came; teachers had a wider acquaintance and a deeper knowledge and more accurate impression of life in the neighborhood; both parent and teacher had a greater fund of informative help to serve them in their work with the children. If the meeting was disappointing in that the program material was not germane to their particular situation or in that it held little of general or specific merit, that fact pointed to its own valuable lesson.

Taking stock at this stage in the progress of education, the vast forces of home and school are seen, an organized structure, cemented in interest, united in purpose and honorable in intention. Its ambitious program is concerned only with the security of the rights, privileges, and opportunities of childhood.

In forwarding its lofty purposes the National Congress of Parents and Teachers has established a cooperative unit to cover every age of child life. Beginning with the preschool circle, offering a training school to the parents of young children, study of child care in its various phases renders better preparation of the child for the business of living. The parent-teacher association in the elementary grades, the first official link between home and school, has come into recognition as the most favorable auspices for promoting training of parents and widening the experience of teachers. It has assumed its true aspect as the most suitable agency for creating public sentiment for education. Many of these groups have served apprenticeship in purveyance but all are gradually promoting programs consistent with their aims. The high school association demands a peculiar line of activity while it provides for conference, cooperation, and dissemination of knowledge. The college association is advisory in character with friendly and protective attitude for the college boy and girl. The church parent-teacher association affords cooperation and correlation of religious education between teachers in that field and the home.

Training in the work itself has had an auspicious inauguration. Courses

in parent-teacher preparation have been instituted in several universities, colleges, and normal schools. Educators and administrators have taken advantage of these courses in surprising numbers. Institutes have been held in many states and in many localities giving both professional and parent member opportunity to study parent-teacher programs, methods, organization, history and ideals.

A policy surrounding the nation's children has been inspired in humble origin in the meetings of parents and teachers in community schools. A local problem, with spreading detrimental effect, repeated often and occurring in many places, assumes national proportions. This policy urges the advancement of the interests of the present day child by dealing with the conditions that spell safety and opportunity for him now. So for the advantage of every child our legislative platform asks for federal recognition of education. To safeguard the rights of every child organized parents and teachers are actively opposing exploitation of any child by child labor. It is for the welfare of every child that prohibition must be enforced. It is for the happiness and security of every child that homes be given greater permanency through improved marriage and divorce laws. It is for the protection of every child that arbitration must be substituted for war in international disputes. So it is from the hearthstone to the heart of the great national community education leads the people in patriotic devotion to greater science in living.

From an ardent viewpoint almost any case seems to be overstated. But here congratulations over the finding of uncovered talent, development of leadership, self expression, so great a contribution to the cause, the enlistment of men and women more than a million in number in a short space of years, thousands of organized groups in every state and extending into territorial possessions, contact with childwelfare interests of other lands, attend only as fortunate signs of a grand inception.

The tremendous field still stretches before us tendering further productivity of the concerted endeavor of the yet unorganized parents and teachers. Difficulties are yet to be overcome. Aptly and indifference still cools the fervent hope and shackles the progressive vision. The school's co-operative gesture has yet, sometimes, to wait for leadership to be born in the home. It is still sometimes true that only a change in school administration gives the spirit of community service an organized form. There are yet self sufficient local groups unaware or ignoring the vitalizing strength that only state and national membership has to bestow. But each year finds these situations diminished and more remote.

It is the teachers and parents of today that hold the expectancy and control the destiny of the new age. Each are products of yesterday's education. Tomorrow will see them as efficient in their places as today's educational guidance is making possible. Liberality of attitude and support lights the path ahead. It is a glowing privilege to know that our united allegiance is a promise that our country's "sons shall grow as young trees, and her daughters as the polished cornerstones of the temple."

GREETINGS FROM THE CANADIAN TEACHERS

HARRY CHARLESWORTH, GENERAL SECRETARY, BRITISH COLUMBIA
TEACHERS FEDERATION, VANCOUVER, B. C.

I wish, first of all, to express to you, members of the National Education Association, the most sincere appreciation of the Canadian teachers for the kindly thought which prompted you to extend such a cordial invitation to us to be your guests at this wonderful meeting in the beautiful Pacific Northwest. It has given us very great pleasure to accept, and we shall profit in large measure from our presence here. I also wish to convey to you, on behalf of the Canadian teachers, our warmest greetings, to reciprocate your many expressions of goodwill and to wish you a continuation of your remarkable success.

In extending your invitation, Mr. President, you were kind enough to refer to us as "your good neighbors and good friends." It is sometimes found, I believe, that "neighbors" are not always "friends," and particularly when they also happen to be relations. In our cases, however, neither the fact of our relationship through our common ancestry, nor the fact that we are neighbors over such an extended geographical frontier, has marred that friendly spirit of goodwill and kindly regard which has existed between our respective peoples for well over a century. In this we have set a worthy example for the nations to follow.

Each year, I believe, sees even a strengthening and deepening of the sincerity of our mutual friendship, for there are many and varied means by which we are coming to know, and consequently to understand each other better. We are getting many common points of international contact, through travel, sport, organizations and the like, but perhaps the most important and vital of all such contacts lies in the field of education, and it is a happy feature that in this regard our relationships have been, and continue to be, of such an agreeable nature.

We have, of course, many obvious advantages, such as our common language and our common traditions. Again, particularly in education, our problems are in many ways similar, and will require somewhat similar solutions. These advantages offer us great opportunities, but because of our opportunities we also have a great responsibility for of "those to whom much is given, much is expected."

We must give a lead in international goodwill. We must regard it as our duty to use every effort to bring about such a spirit of goodwill and understanding between the educators of all nations, that the old rivalries and jealousies may be replaced by a spirit of mutual respect and confidence. This task will not be easy, for there are many prejudices to break down, and many selfish and intolerant interests to overcome; but it has more chance of success, if sponsored by teachers than by any other means.

There are two very important things, however, which we must always keep in mind. First, that friendship is a matter of the "heart" primarily, and not of the intellect alone. The mere expression of platitudinous sentiments concerning goodwill is of little value, unless backed up by sincerity

and action. Our pupils must be encouraged to "live" goodwill, rather than to "express" it. Secondly, we must realize that international friendliness is not the enemy of national patriotism, but rather its logical and desirable consummation. As teachers we shall never fail to inspire that love of, and devotion to our respective countries, without which good citizenship cannot exist, but it is not in the least necessary for us to be blind to the virtues of other nations, and to the benefits they also have given to world progress, in order that we might falsify and magnify our own superiority.

These things should be said, and often repeated, I feel, in order that our position as educators may not be misunderstood, and in order to prevent us getting drawn aside from our true goal, and lost in a maze of argument and controversy. As teachers we do not expect education to perform miracles, as some well-intentioned people do, but we believe that through it we can preserve and solidify the real spirit of the friendships which children so readily make, without national distinction, and further, that this can be done without the slightest diminution in the fostering of true national patriotism.

Before leaving this matter, might I be allowed to recall to your minds the fact that the World Federation of Education Associations will hold its third conference in Toronto, Canada, from August 7th to 12th next. The first meeting was held at San Francisco, called through the medium of your National Association. This year the Canadian teachers are acting as hosts to the World Federation, and are raising over \$15,000 themselves to help to defray the expenses connected therewith. This amount is in itself a concrete testimony of the value we attach to the ideals I have endeavored to express. We shall be exceedingly glad to welcome the large number of American educationists who will be in attendance.

In the time allotted to me tonight, it was suggested by your President that I should give you something of interest concerning the teaching forces of Canada. Perhaps I had better deal with two aspects: first, education generally in the Dominion, and secondly, the development of teachers' organizations in our country.

Canada consists of nine provinces (corresponding with your states), each having its own provincial government, with the central or Dominion government at Ottawa. On July 1st, last week, Canada had a great celebration in honor of the 60th Anniversary, or the Diamond Jubilee, of Confederation, for the Act which created the Dominion of Canada was passed through the British Parliament and came into effect on July 1st, 1867. At the time only four provinces were concerned, the other provinces having joined at various times since, as development proceeded. The Governor General of Canada is the King's representative for the Dominion, with a lieutenant-governor in each province.

The provinces have complete autonomy in many of the well-defined departments of government including, of course, education, and there is nothing which the provinces guard so jealously as this complete control of their individual educational systems. Especially is this so in the Province of Quebec, where the population is largely of French origin, where both

the French and English languages are taught in the schools and where the Roman Catholics and Protestants have their separate schools under the one provincial education department.

In the Government Cabinet of each Province is a Minister of Education, who is the responsible head of the Provincial Education System. He is, of course, elected as a member of the Legislature, by the people, and chosen by the Premier of Province to assume Cabinet rank. Under him there is a Provincial Superintendent of Education, who has charge of the whole of the details of the system. He is appointed by the Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, and holds office during the pleasure of the Government.

The staff of the provincial education department includes a number of high school and public school inspectors, who visit the schools to report upon the work of the teachers, and to supervise the general carrying out of the regulations.

The finances for education in any unit are generally obtained by means of local taxation for school purposes. The dominion government makes some grants for agricultural and vocational education. In all school districts the principle of local autonomy applies, and the schools are under the control of elected boards of school trustees. The equitable distribution of school taxation is with us, as with you, a most serious and pressing problem.

There are only a few of the cities or municipalities in Canada which have superintendents for their local administration.

The courses of study in the various provinces of Canada are for the most part of the traditional type, but modifications are now being made in accord with recent educational advancement. Generally speaking, however, Canada has in the past adopted a somewhat conservative attitude with regard to many of the changes brought about through modern educational research, showing rather a tendency towards thoroughness in the application of accepted principles than experimentation in new fields.

This spirit, however, is gradually changing, particularly in British Columbia, where, as the result of a recent educational survey, important changes are being introduced. Perhaps the chief of these changes is the adoption of the 6-3-3 plan, and the establishment of junior high schools.

It is fitting, I think, that in this connection, we of Canada should pay a tribute to the enterprise and initiative of those states and cities in your country which have rendered such a service to educators everywhere by the research and experimentation they have carried on. We have gained much from the knowledge thus obtained, and I know that many Canadian teachers are very appreciative of the benefits they have reaped by a study of the results. Particularly would I like to mention the splendid work of the Research Department of your National Education Association, and the excellent Bulletins issued by them, and also the many helpful articles which appear in the *Journal of the National Education Association*.

To come now to our teachers' organizations: We in Canada feel that we have somewhat of a remarkable history in this connection, for we have accomplished much in a little time. As the basis of our Canadian Federation

is the provincial association, I will give some details of one of these—for all are somewhat similar.

In December, 1916 (just over ten years ago), the teachers of British Columbia decided to organize a provincial teachers' federation, to be formed by the affiliation of local teachers' associations in the various centers of the province. The underlying object was to have a body which would become recognized as the official professional organization of the teachers of British Columbia, and would be able to voice the group opinions, ideas, and ideals of such teachers.

In conception, the B. C. T. F. was to be for the teachers what the medical association, the bar association, and the engineers' association were for their respective professions. Consequently, active membership was confined to those "actively engaged in teaching in the schools of British Columbia." Officials of the Department of Education, school trustees, and members of parent-teacher bodies were not eligible for admission as active members. It was in essence not an educational association, as generally conceived, but a teachers' association. Its work and its functions, however, were distinctly educational as well as professional. It was in no sense antagonistic towards those who were excluded. On the contrary, it worked in conjunction and cooperation with them and their organizations at all times. It was not in any sense a trades union, nor has it ever been considered or entertained the possibility of any affiliation with a trades or labor organization or with any political party. Its policy has always been to support any movement for the good of education, and to oppose any movement of a retrograde or harmful nature, irrespective of political party. It obtained a charter of incorporation from the provincial government, and has, as its constitutional objects, the following:

- a. To promote and foster the cause of education in British Columbia;
- b. To raise the status of the teaching profession of British Columbia;
- c. To promote the welfare of the teachers of British Columbia;
- d. To establish and administer a Benevolent Fund for the teachers of British Columbia.

During the ten years of its existence, it has completely justified its existence and has made a remarkable contribution to the progress of education. It has taken the lead in many educational reforms; it has, by its efforts, raised very materially the status of the profession, and has at all times pressed for measures which would demand better academic preparation greater training, and increased efficiency of all seeking to enter the ranks of the teaching body, and opportunities for the continued training of those in the profession. In such matters it has followed very similar lines to those adopted by your own organization—research committees, the holding of conventions, the publication of a professional magazine, the promotion of educational legislation, the educating of public opinion, etc.

There is an important feature of our work which perhaps should be mentioned: In connection with the protection of the welfare of teachers, we have two fields of endeavor: First, we pay very close attention to legislation

affecting teachers, and by means of conferences with the government, endeavor to have such changes made as will improve the teacher's position in accordance with what is considered right and proper. But there are some cases where teachers suffer great injustices in spite of legislation. In such cases, our organization supports its members in any action they may take to remedy such injustices, giving legal advice and assistance where necessary. Most of such instances are concerned with the all-important question of teacher tenure. We have now obtained a reasonable security of tenure by legislation, but that does not prevent a few school boards from attempting ways and means of bringing about the dismissal of teachers even contrary to such legislation, feeling that these teachers will remain passive and quiet in order to escape publicity. Our policy has been to challenge any dismissal which was clearly unjust, and by conference, negotiation, resort to an appeal board constituted by the Legislature at our request, or through Courts of Law to insist on justice being done. This policy has had a marked effect, and has removed and prevented many examples of hardship.

Teaching can never become a real profession unless we are prepared to adopt a professional attitude in such matters and develop a high degree of professional consciousness.

I have dealt in some detail with the British Columbia organization, for I have naturally a more intimate knowledge of its working, and because it may be taken as typical of the teachers' organization in each province. The other western provinces of Canada had been thinking and planning along similar lines, and they organized shortly after British Columbia. Ontario, Quebec, and the maritime provinces had Associations of varying ages, but later they reorganized and adopted the same general principles as British Columbia.

In 1919 the first movement towards a dominion organization was made. A representative from each of the teachers' associations of the four Western Provinces met in Winnipeg, and preliminary steps were taken for the formation of the Canadian Teachers' Federation, by the affiliation of the four Associations. At Calgary, the following year, the Federation was officially formed, and Ontario came also at that time. Since then, Quebec, Prince Edward Island, and New Brunswick have joined, and in August of this year the last of the Provinces, Nova Scotia, will be admitted, thus completing a dominion federation.

Just as the provincial education departments have complete autonomy, so with us each provincial teachers' federation has complete autonomy. The dominion federation is in reality a coordinating body, giving a practical method of complete cooperation in matters of common interest. Its meetings are, at present, of a business nature, three delegates from each Province constituting the active voting body. No attempt is made to arrange for such a program as you have here, although every teacher is welcome to attend as an unofficial delegate. At a later date we may consider holding large Dominion meetings, but for the time being this aspect is covered by the several Provincial bodies themselves.

With regard to annual fees, the amount varies in the different Provinces,

but in British Columbia members of the Teachers' Federation pay from \$5 to \$12, according to salary received, this fee including also subscription to the Federation magazine, and a per capita fee of 50 cents to the Canadian Teachers' Federation, this latter being the amount required from each Provincial body. It should be noted that one cannot join the Dominion Federation except through a Provincial Federation, and also that one cannot join a Provincial Federation without being also a member of the Dominion organization. There are about 60,000 teachers in the schools of Canada, and of these about 20,000 are members of the various Provincial and Dominion Federations. In British Columbia, where there are over 3000 teachers, we have over 2000 in our Federation. This number is rapidly increasing, but even now it is a remarkable percentage in ten years' growth, especially considering the thousands of isolated teachers in the remote parts of the country.

I trust that this brief outline of our activities may have been of interest, and, before concluding, I would once more thank you for the opportunity afforded us of participating in your program.

British Columbia and the state of Washington are closely allied in many ways, but in education we have for some years had a most intimate connection. The city of Seattle we look upon as a sister of Vancouver and Victoria. The teachers of Washington often visit us, and we return their calls. We hold in high esteem Superintendent Thomas R. Cole and his staff, while Dr. Suzzallo has won for himself a warm place in the hearts of all British Columbia educators by his many contributions to our educational programs. Many of our teachers attend the summer courses at the University of Washington.

What is true of British Columbia and Washington is true also of Canada and the United States generally. That such happy relationships shall exist between us for all time is, I am sure, the earnest wish of all educators in your country and in mine.

THE TEACHER: BEING, KNOWING, DOING

LIVINGSTON C. LORD, PRESIDENT, EASTERN ILLINOIS TEACHERS
COLLEGE, CHARLESTON, ILL.

The teacher is judged by what he is, what he knows, and what he does—by his character, his knowledge, his skill.

The teacher should *be* a person of high character, self-respecting, no braggart, not conceited nor greatly self-effacing; one who is not easily self-deceived, who, when recognizing that he is in the wrong, eagerly admits it and is grateful to the one who sets him right.

He should be one whose doctrine is "Not who is right, but what is true." He should be one with some passion for truth and the truth.

The teacher should be one who sympathizes with those in better fortune than himself and who rejoices with them that rejoice as well as weeps with them that weep.

He should be tolerant of much and charitable toward all, a person of courage taking a full share of the responsibility that belongs to him, telling the truth and not afraid; a person of a high sense of honor in dealing with old and young; courteous to those who serve as to those who are served; who respects everybody and licks the boots of nobody.

The teacher should be a person of good manners, of course, accustomed to good social usages, not easily stampeded, but one who can "suspend belief in the midst of emotionally conflicting ideas."

These are all qualities which may be acquired to a good degree by anybody who cares to acquire them.

The teacher must know. The mass of human knowledge has increased so much in recent generations that what was once good preparation for the various callings and professions is no longer good. Seventy-five years ago an ox team and a covered wagon were as good a start for California as anybody had. What kind of start are they now? In the near future the airplane may make even a ticket for railroad transportation, a ticket for a bed, and money for the dining car a poor start.

The teacher must be able to show evidence of having had opportunity to get an education and this evidence is in diplomas and degrees—not proof of education, only evidence of opportunity. Ph. D.'s are not necessarily scholars nor are scholars necessarily Ph. D.'s, nor does it follow that one who is both is also a good teacher. However, the speaker believes thoroughly in the earned degree.

No matter what he teaches, the teachers must know how to read that he may get something of recorded knowledge and experience. He must know how to write that he may record some of his own knowledge and experience. He must know to cipher so that he may answer the questions, "How many?" and "How big?" so that he may count and measure. He must know much of the best that has been thought and said; not a little of the material world around him or the natural sciences. And whatever the extent of his scholarship, the quality must be good. He must have more skill in the use of words than most have. The word, lovely, can scarcely be properly applied to buckwheat cakes, or the word, wonderful, to apple pie.

Insistence on knowledge is based on the idea that it is as truly professional to know the subject taught as it is to know the mind of the child.

No matter what a person is or how much he knows, unless he can teach, he is not a teacher. Skill in teaching is a good basis for success in any educational position. The bane of our calling is the competition between superior and inferior teachers. The level of success will be raised if we strive to make the promising exception the rule.

William Ernest Hocking writes: "There are few difficulties whose principle cannot be embodied in such simple form that success is at once easy and revealing."

At the outset may not one condemn certain statements about teaching, more or less current, meaningless, but more or less harmful? A speaker

at Dallas declared with some vehemence: "We do not teach subjects, we teach life." What could be deader than a classroom where no subject, but only life was taught? The inertia of common sense makes such a statement less harmful.

One hears often by implication and not infrequently by explicit statement: "We don't teach Latin, we teach the boy." How absurd the idea of teaching the boy and not teaching him anything! The verb, to teach, takes two accusatives. When the boy is well taught, the subject is well taught, and when the subject is well taught, the boy is well taught. Of course there is teaching only so far as there is learning.

There can be the best teaching only in the best atmosphere. A good social atmosphere in the classroom is essential to good teaching, and the atmosphere cannot be good unless the teacher has the easy mind which comes from a mastery of his subject. How irritable is the teacher who cannot solve the problem, translate the sentence, or arrange the apparatus! He blames students for not knowing what he does not know himself.

The teacher must be hospitable toward the ideas and answers of all sincere and earnest students, no matter how absurd these answers may be. The field is new to the student and he behaves in a new field as most of us do.

The student has a right to know clearly and definitely how far wrong he is and if the teacher is benevolent, no unnecessary pain is given. Some object to criticism because it gives pain. We cannot chloroform a student and then criticize him. He must never be left under the impression that he is only a little wrong when he is all wrong.

Teaching is a complex process. Many complex wholes, perhaps all, may suffer from many causes, from these three, certainly: from the lack of some element, from the excess of some element, from the presence of some element.

A homely instance will make this clear. Most Americans like salted butter. Butter may be unpalatable because it lacks salt, or because it has too much salt, or because of the presence of coal oil.

The classroom recitation is no exception. Certain classwork sometimes suffers from lack of drill, from too much drill, or from sarcastic remarks. Sometimes there is no exposition, often too much exposition, and sometimes sarcasm which has no place whatever there.

Sometimes, but not often, there are no questions; then, again, too many questions. One teacher was commended for the great number of questions he could ask in a minute. Sometimes a recitation is marred by sarcastic remarks on wrong answers. Sometimes there is really no thoroughness; sometimes, but not often, too much. There cannot be in most classrooms the thoroughness that would meet Ruskin's standard.

There are other elements than sarcasm that injure the recitation. A teacher may be inclined to be autobiographical and to give the biography of members of his own family, to tell what he said to his wife, and what

his wife said to him, and much more talk extraneous to the proper work of the classroom. Cheap joking, intellectually degrading, if it really pleases, and morally degrading, if students laugh to please the teacher, has no place in the classroom.

Skilful question and proper disposition of answers are essential elements in the teacher's art. A good discussion of this is found in many books, but there is one kind of question, and an important one, that I have never heard discussed. I refer to the question that immediately and utterly destroys a statement. A classic example is this: One of the Mills said that when one phenomenon followed another uniformly, the first was the cause of the second. He was asked: "How about day and night?"

Here is another, equally good: A teacher of history was expounding the idea that the organizing principle in history is institutional life. A fact should be taught as a fact in history when such fact is related to institutional life and not otherwise. Henry Johnson asked the speaker if he would teach the naming of America from Amerigo and not from Columbus. He said, "Yes." Of course the question and answer destroyed his principle, but another question was necessary to enable the speaker to see it: "What has that fact to do with institutional life?" The questioner could have asked a hundred questions, any one of which would have been equally destructive of the "principle."

The good teacher is skilful in giving instances, examples, illustrations, and analogies. The dull unskilled teacher's instances, examples, illustrations are often worse, much worse, than none because misleading.

For example, an institute instructor in arithmetic was asked to explain the matter of borrowing in subtraction. He could not, and tried to disguise the fact by calling for volunteers. Another instructor, a woman and a member of the faculty of a state university, volunteered, and with an air of great sanctity began by saying: "When I teach arithmetic, I teach a moral lesson and morality is of far greater value than arithmetic. I say, 'Children, when you borrow anything you must pay it back.' Here is the moral lesson—and it makes no difference whether you return it to the front door or to the back door, and it is just the same in subtraction, it makes no difference whether you make this figure one more or this one, one less.' The children all see it and I have taught a moral lesson."

Is there any immorality in intellectual degradation and falsifying? What a fraud she was! She should have had three cards and followed a circus.

The unskilled teacher uses material which is so interesting in itself that the material has the attention and not the relations it is to illustrate. For instance, a teacher of methods in arithmetic advocated the use of a bunch of grapes, containing ten grapes, to illustrate the first step in notation, ten grapes, one bunch ten units, one ten. Take the bunch of grapes before the children at 11:30. What is stimulated? Not the intelligence, but the salivary glands.

Not a few advocate the use of a pie in teaching fractions—not the pie we can see inside our heads, but the material pie, cut into halves, quarters, sixths, and eighths, if anyone is mean enough to cut a pie into eight pieces. What is the appeal? Intellectual? No, gastronomic. White marks on a blackboard are not in themselves interesting. The interest is in the relations shown.

The unskilled teacher multiplies illustrations, instances, examples, and analogies, hoping that in the multiplicity, every pupil will get some one. The skilled teacher uses but one which every pupil will get, if he is able to get the idea at all, and uses the others to test his grasp of the idea. For example, the subjective and objective genitive—the bite of an apple and the bite of a snake. In which does the genitive name the biter, and in which does it name the bitten? If any pupil cannot get the idea from these examples, he cannot get it at all.

A class fails to get the idea that a mass is small or large, short or long, as compared with some other mass. Change the comparison and the case is reversed. For instance, "Has a rat a long or a short tail?"—"A long tail."—"Has an elephant a long or a short tail?"—"A short tail."—"Which is longer, a rat's tail or an elephant's tail?"—"An elephant's tail."—"So the short tail is longer than the long tail."—They all nod their heads. "How about it?"—"In one case the tails are compared with the mass of which they are a part. In the other, they are compared with each other.

If this single instance does not do the business, nothing will.

No distinction is made between two things when a characteristic common to both is named. This example makes this clear to all those who can grasp the idea: "What is the difference between a horse and a cow?"—"A cow has four feet."

The skilled teacher knows when to be a mediator and when the pupil should come into immediate touch with the thing to be learned; when to tell and when to teach; when to develop and when there should be no development. A burnt child dreads the fire. In the learning of that lesson where was the mediation and who developed the lesson?

When to be a mediator and when not is as difficult as to know when to be one's brother's keeper and when to keep one's nose out of one's neighbor's business.

The good teacher is not afraid of a child's learning something before he needs to use it, nor is he greatly alarmed lest the child learn something that he may never use. A mother said: "We are teaching the baby to walk."—"Why do that? People don't walk now."

These fine polysyllables, "The Integration of Personality," please many ears—or mouths—and it seems to be assumed that this is a separate subject of instruction. Good teaching furnishes the boy with valuable knowledge, shows him how to use it, cultivates his feelings or emotions, and

energizes his will. If that does not "integrate his personality" or enable him to get himself together, what will?

The good teacher sees that through the recitation knowledge is converted into faculty, facility, habit, opinion, and culture. Knowledge is the raw material without which these so-called higher things cannot come. A wheel-barrow load of iron ore is converted into a handful of watch springs. Flour, sugar, and the rest are converted into a cake pleasing to the eye and delicious to the taste. Culture differs from knowledge as truly as watch springs differ from iron ore.

Teaching is a noble calling, second to but one, some say; we say, second to none. Miracle workers. "There are few more beautiful miracles than that which can be wrought by leading a despairing child into a trifling success."

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE TEACHER

J. M. GWINN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

I come to my theme, "The Superintendent and the Teacher," with and from a point of view that in the service of those who teach or administer education there is no higher or lower. Whether one teaches little children or college seniors, supervises instruction or administers a school system, the service is essentially and equally honorable. Of those who are in service of education it may well be said, "Honor and fame from no conditions rise." If differences there are, these differences should be due solely to differences in the quality of the service rendered or in the character of those who serve.

The superintendent and the teacher, a coordinate conjunction joins the symbols of these two services, equal, but joined together. The story of the discontented pendulum carries the meaning for education more even than for a clock. Hands and wheels, springs and pendulum must be joined together and worked together for one purpose; so, and more so, must teacher and superintendent be joined and worked together in mutual dependence. The clock is but a fine example of a unity of parts mechanically joined, while a system of schools is no mere mechanism but rather an organism where parts live, move and have their being only when functionally joined and working together for one common purpose. While I am saying this, I am not unmindful that I, a superintendent, am here like the hands of the clock in the spotlight and you, the teachers, are there in the dimlight. Yes, the hands of the clock are out front and point to achievements of the whole clock as if they were the achievements of the hands alone. They have also a publicity agent, as do superintendents, to sound the gong to attract the attention of those who might not otherwise note the report the hands hourly make. There are compensations for dwelling in the dimlight and in being the humble spring, the power unseen. When the storm clouds lower, the blast falls where the spotlight is, and superintendents may come and super-

intendents may go, but the teacher rides out the storm and serves with another superintendent.

The teacher used to be the only star in the educational firmament. Of such a teacher President Hyde has said, "The only fact stressed in the organism of a school was the teacher's qualifications. The measure of the teacher was the measure of the school. Insofar as he was learned, the curriculum was adequate; insofar as he possessed a genial, resourceful personality, his methods were well adapted to the child; insofar as he was the embodiment of vital, ethical standards, the schools served the right social and moral ends. . . . The public and professional mind saw the whole school situation in the personality that was made master of the school." The teacher, while still a star of the first magnitude, is not now the only star in the educational firmament. Due to the great expansion of education and to the fact that education has become self-conscious and scientific, other stars have appeared. The course of study; the nature of the child; methods of teaching and learning; the material means of education, school buildings and equipment and finances; society in its relation to education, including home, vocation and government; relation of schools to each other, have all of recent years appeared above our educational horizon. "As is the teacher, so is the school" no longer presents a complete picture of the means of education.

Education concerns itself with the individual and society. The teacher's activity is directed chiefly toward the individual, the child. From the child the teacher draws the physiological and psychological factors of education. The superintendent's activity is more definitely directed toward society, and from society he draws the social and ethical elements of education. The teacher observes and records the responses and changes the child makes, due to his contact with the educative processes, and he notes the needs the child has for the school. The teacher transmits these records to the superintendent for his information and guidance in planning courses of study, methods of teaching, school buildings and equipment, and in selecting teachers and supervisors. The superintendent registers the responses and changes society makes, due to the influence of the school, and notes the needs society seems to have for the service of the school. These records he must transmit to the teacher for his information and guidance in adapting his methods and material to the advantage of both child and society. The teacher, from his vantage point where the educational program and procedure meet the child, can note the successes and failures and the degree of each. Messages back along the lines, through proper channels, from teacher to superintendent are equally important with those outgoing messages from superintendent to teacher. The teacher is, as it were, the eyes, ears, the sensory organs of the superintendent. Without the teacher in the front-line trenches, the superintendent would be deaf, blind and useless. The teacher and the superintendent are analogous to the opposite poles of the magnet; the teacher is attracted to the individual, the superintendent to society. The superintendent

and the teacher are mutually dependent; what strengthens one strengthens the other; what weakens one weakens the other.

The superintendent is the advocate of the teacher to the board of education and to the general public. The teacher is the advocate of the superintendent to the child and his parents. Each should acknowledge and discharge this responsibility. The superintendent must interpret the work of the teacher to the board of education and to the public when there is need for so doing. The teacher usually has none other to plead his cause or come to his defense. Teachers in groups and organizations are more and more assuming the rôle of being their own advocates, both to the board of education and to the public, but there will always be need for the services of the superintendent as the teacher's advocate. Between the superintendent and the child and his parents there are many agents, programs and processes. There are rules and regulations, laws, courses of study, materials needed and required, report-cards, etc. It is the duty of the teacher to interpret all these to the child and to his parents and at all times to be the advocate of the superintendent. Just as the teacher has a right to expect the superintendent to care for his interests with the board of education and the general public, so has the superintendent a right to expect the teacher to see to it that the welfare of the superintendent is properly served by him with the pupils and parents.

Looking toward the child, this equality of ratios is almost if not quite true—the superintendent is to the teacher as the teacher is to the child. The chief functions of both the superintendent and the teacher are, to establish standards, set up goals and create ideals, to supply and arrange materials, to stimulate to action toward the ends established and to guide and direct the workers on their way. The teacher is the active agent in the environment of the child. The superintendent is the active agent in the environment of the teacher. The best service the teacher can render the child is to make his environment, including the teacher, bright and happy, stimulating, wholesome, adequate, and so loaded that the child will be strongly tempted toward right responses. In like manner, the best service the superintendent can render the teacher is to provide him with an environment, including the superintendent, that is bright and happy, stimulating, wholesome, adequate, and so loaded as to compel the teacher to do excellent teaching. More concretely, the best service the superintendent can render the teacher is to provide him with an excellent school building, a classroom properly and adequately equipped for a modern program of education, to supply a course of study suited to the needs and abilities of the children and the teacher, and a salary schedule that stimulates and rewards effort, a competent and sympathetic principal and supervisor, and a school system devoted to high ideals of service to the children and the community.

The teacher in the whole complex program of education is the irreducible minimum without which there can be no school. Without the teacher all other elements and agents of education are impotent, the course of study is dead, supervisors are ineffectual, the material means of education provided

by principal, superintendent and board of education are but so much fuel, powerless to release its energy. The teacher serves in the front line, he is always at the front where the convergence of all the forces and materials of education kindle the flame of the educative process. He alone contacts the child. He is the connecting link, omitted leaves an impassable chasm across which no superintendent or principal may go save in the rôle of teacher. Superintendent Frank D. Boynton has said of the teacher, "There is no calling or profession, save that of parenthood, which offers such opportunities for service as does teaching. Past the teacher's desk the unending stream of youth must go, the authors, statesmen, bankers, business and professional men and women, those who are to build or make empires, and as they pass give the teacher his opportunity to touch destiny." Of the teacher Henry van Dyke has said:

I sing the praise of the Unknown Teacher. Great generals win campaigns, but it is the Unknown Soldier who wins the war. Famous educators plan new systems of pedagogy, but it is the Unknown Teacher who delivers and guides the young. He lives in obscurity and contends with hardship. For him no trumpets blare, no chariots wait, no golden decorations are decreed. He keeps the watch along the borders of darkness and makes the attack on the trenches of ignorance and folly. Patient in his daily duty, he strives to conquer the evil powers which are the enemies of youth. He awakens sleeping spirits. He quickens the indolent, encourages the eager and steadies the unstable. He communicates his own joy in learning and shares with boys and girls the best treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which in later years will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward.

The best way a teacher may aid the superintendent is through consecrated and efficient service as a teacher. Teaching is the first duty of the teacher. This duty cannot be well performed by one whose horizon is no wider than the schoolroom. The circuits of the teacher's experience and thinking must run wide as the whole school system, otherwise the fountains of his inspirations will be dried up and the goods in his warehouses will be stale and out of season. The movement toward teacher participation in school administration, course of study making, and other extra-classroom activities, is not merely to give to the superintendent the help teachers are competent to give, but also to vitalize teaching and to relate the classroom service of the teacher to the whole program of the school. No cloistered pedagogue can strike the fires the day demands. Shut in the four walls of the classroom the teacher grows colorless and weak. Teaching is not a thing apart from all the busy life around the school. The fire in the forge must gather coal from Newcastle and oxygen from the surrounding atmosphere.

As education became more popular and society more complex the school grew in size until it became many schools and in complexity until it became schools of different types. The extent and complexity of the program of education necessitated a general manager and superintendent. The teachers in the midst of the complexities of the educational program needed a helper and an advocate. The board of school trustees, faced with the great and technical problems of managing so extended and differentiated a school

system, needed a technically trained executive also. The school superintendent was therefore the resultant of forces both from within and from without the school. Like Janus he must face two ways, though he be not two faced, one toward the child through the teacher and the other toward society through the board of education.

Of the school superintendent, Cubberly says:

Potentially, at least, the most important officer in the employ of the people of a municipality today is the person who directs the organization and administration of its school system and who supervises the instruction therein. Actually the condition frequently is otherwise but where the superintendent of schools is the type he should be he renders a service the importance of which, in terms of character and future citizenship, is not approached by that of any other official in the employ of a municipality. What the schools are in organization, administration, instruction, spirit and purpose and the position which they occupy in the eyes of the community, they are largely as the result of the actions, labors, manliness, courage, clear vision and common sense of the superintendent of schools. About him and his work the schools revolve and it is largely he who makes or mars the system. What he is, the schools, under proper administrative conditions, become; what he is not, they often plainly show.

The service of the teacher is more than forty centuries old, while that of the school superintendent is scarcely one. In this short period the school superintendent has climbed a rugged, tortuous way, often misunderstood, opposed, frequently overthrown, and yet returning to the struggle until he has climbed out of the fog of inadequate education and training, out of the confusion of political and personal bases of action and into the clear light of a profession and into a position of great power. This achievement has made him enemies, both within and without the school. The political minded, more-pay-and-less-work, and backward looking teacher; the selfish politician and propagandist are the enemies of the good superintendent. These enemies lie in wait to ambush him, or if they come into the open their method of attack leaves the superintendent helpless. He has helped fight the battles for safety for teachers, supervisors and principals. Of him it may truly be said—"He saved others, himself he cannot save."

Secretary Crabtree in his report to this convention has said, "The office of superintendent of schools is the most difficult position known to man." Secretary Crabtree further says, "More than a score of city superintendents, because of some factional trouble, are not to be invited to remain next year. Some have already been dismissed for purely political and factional reasons. Some of these are outstanding in their profession." It is high time the office should be made safe and the superintendent freed to do his work. For wild fowl and fish the open season is but a few days each year, but for school superintendents in many communities the open season is three hundred and sixty-five days. Shall the torture and slaughter of superintendents go on? Boards of education and legislators, what are you going to do about it? I hold no brief for the incompetent or inadequately qualified superintendent, but for the sake of the good superintendent and the school system over which he presides, proper security in tenure must be provided.

In the short period of the life of the superintendency of schools it has become a highly specialized profession and has achieved more than any other profession in the beginning years of its history. It must be expected that so young a profession would make mistakes and have unworthy members. The burden of responsibility placed on the school superintendent has increased so rapidly and enormously that mistakes were inevitable. However, the approval which the people have given the schools and the increased power they have placed in the hands of the superintendent are ample proof that the services of the school superintendent are considered important and effective. He has been given power and responsibility to achieve the purposes of public school education. With this power he inherited the penalties of so conspicuous a position. Not alone must he suffer the penalties of his own mistakes, but he must suffer vicariously, since the general public holds him responsible for failures anywhere in the schools under his administration. He also represents the board of education to the teachers. He does not always secure the approval of the board to important recommendations affecting teachers. Usually he is held responsible by the teachers for the adverse action of the board of education. School superintendents, if they would survive, must develop patience and fortitude and maintain a stable equilibrium, though there be misunderstandings and opposition from within and from without.

Some of the insecurity of tenure and the pain of holding on is undoubtedly due to the superintendents themselves. Of superintendents it is probably true that the fault is not always in their stars but often within themselves. Unfortunately there are still many superintendents who are not adequately qualified for a type of service worthy of indefinite tenure in office. We must attack the problem of standards of eligibility of superintendents. High standards should be fixed by law for so important a service as that of superintendent of schools.

The modern or progressive program of education has developed, chiefly due to the new meaning of democracy, the greater and more accurate knowledge of the child and society and to the application of the methods of science to the matter and processes of education. These forces have brought a new program into all the grades and subjects in the school from the kindergarten to the college. The new program is administered by a new teacher, new in spirit if not in person. This new program brings to the schoolroom a greatly increased value and use of self-activity, self-direction, initiative, and cooperation and is less dependent upon verbal instruction and learning. In it there is no place for the absolute monarch type of teacher whose methods of handling children assumes that it is not theirs to reason why, nor theirs to make reply, but theirs to do or die. Young people are not prepared for democracy by such methods. The teacher in the classroom is expected to employ such methods as will best aid the children to develop those habits, ideals and attitudes of mind and acquire the information most useful to them as members of a democratic society. These changes cannot be brought about in the pupils except when the teacher under democratic conception of education gives the children an opportunity to contribute, as well as to receive,

to be leaders as well as cooperating members of a group. This new program of education has also found expression in modifying the school principal's method of conducting the school. No longer may a school principal be a czar to give orders without reasons, and to measure results by the rod of his own personal opinions. The modern school is an expression of democracy applied to education. This must also affect the school superintendent's method of administering the school system. Some school superintendents have not yet heard of the doom of imperialism. Such superintendents I am willing to commit to the fates that await all absolute monarchs. I am happy, however, to report that even school superintendents, some of them, can learn. The modern good school superintendent embodies in his method of school administration the same plan which he expects his good teachers to use in the classroom and his good principals to use in the management of their schools and, so, makes large use of teachers and principals in handling problems of administration.

The schools of any community are deeply inwrought into the life of the community. The schools have in them practices and persons and prejudices dear to the community and esteemed more highly for their antiquity. Social changes under normal conditions are slow, but in education conditions make changes slower still. As Rome was not built in a day, neither is a school system greatly or permanently improved in less than a decade. Modifying a school system is a complex and an intricate problem, the solution of which requires much time. Perhaps a ten-year period is none too long for results to show of permanent value. Points of view or philosophies of education must be developed; buildings planned, erected and equipped; courses of study made and put into operation; teachers in service given opportunity and encouragement to adjust to new conditions and new types of teachers placed in service. The continuity in the superintendency of schools is imperative, if wholesome and proper progress is to be achieved.

One needs to look but a decade into the past forcefully to be struck with the improvement in the tenure of superintendents and teachers and in mutual understanding and sympathetic cooperation of teachers, principals and superintendents. It was startling to the older and more highly developed Department of Superintendence to discover a few years ago that classroom teachers and principals in their national organizations were moved by the same high purposes and used the same scientific methods as did superintendents. It was quite a blow to the egotism of superintendents to find that they had no valid grounds for assuming a "more holy than thou" attitude toward principals and teachers. The yearbooks and programs of the Department of Elementary School Principals and the Department of Classroom Teachers of recent years give abundant evidence that these Departments are just as unselfish and just as highly professional as the Department of Superintendence thought itself to be.

It is splendid that these young members of the National Education Association are developing so rapidly and efficiently. There must, however, be no middle wall or partition separating the several departments of the

National Education Association. A way must be kept open for common understanding and for mutual work. There must be nothing "super" about superintendents that separate them from teachers and principals, nor anything "class" about classroom teachers that closes the doors on the principals and superintendents. In our several departments we must of necessity direct our efforts mainly toward our own pressing problems. In doing this we shall find ourselves confronted with the fact that these problems, both in their nature and solution, spring from and enter into the field of every other department. Superintendents need to see with the eyes of principals, hear with the ears of supervisors, and feel with the hearts of teachers. The teachers in turn, to a degree, must be principal, supervisor and superintendent before they can see with clear vision the problems within classrooms and the connections of these problems with the whole program of education. This better understanding has done much to make teachers, principals and superintendents friends and fellow workers, realizing that the welfare of each involves the welfare of all. Their motto well may be, "Each for all and all for each."

THE TEACHER AT WORK AND PLAY

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The first woman school teacher in the United States was Tabitha Plasket of Plymouth, Massachusetts. She knew much about work, nothing about play. Her grave is on the hillside where, during that first death-dealing winter, one half of the Mayflower's pilgrims were buried, and where the following summer the corn hid the toll of the sadly diminished colony from the prowling Indians, already beginning to resent the presence of the alien. Tabitha Plasket could have told us quite definitely, if a little scornfully of our easier ways of life today, what work is, for she knew work as a grinding, relentless existence, put upon wretched human beings as deserved punishment under the primal curse, fortunate beyond desert indeed if through the toils of body and mind one might work out his own salvation. Her epitaph says, "She was glad to be released from this vale of woe." We may be sure that her little Pilgrim pupils, stitching their samplers with chilblained fingers, heard nothing of work as a part of the joy and happiness of life. Only the baby in its mother's arms was to waste good time in play.

The teacher today has a different conception of work. She accepts it not only as her own and her pupils' contribution through directed energy and effort to relieve society from carrying them along as a dead weight, but she knows work as a vital and joyous thing through which she and they find their chance of self expression, of making real one ideal after another as life grows richer and fuller with the dower of the passing days. And it is from this point of view that we all come to realize that work not only is our safeguard from becoming parasitic idlers, devourers of other men's sub-

stance, but that it is the greatest opportunity given us for achieving the rewards of this unique experience we call life.

But there are buried springs of power that issue in the joy of self expression that work alone cannot give. The twin mate of work is play, that expending of the energy left over, not used or not needed, in the self-sustaining effort we call work. It is that which gives the release to our emotions, and without this, the spirit that creates play, there could be no art.

Science originated in man's attempt better to understand the hindrances to the perfect accomplishment of the object of his toil, art originated in the need of letting others feel his joy of discovery, of achievement, of the conquest of the dark barriers against which he fought, and which, while unconquered fought against him.

Primitive man crept forth from his cave to kill the wild beast that his mate and child might live. When the hunter first saw the bear, he shrank back to the cave for safety; he was after weaker game. His club was not equal to that encounter. When by the trial and error method he had learned how to fasten the sharpened stone for a spear head and tie it to the long club, he had scientifically increased his strength a hundred fold. He then could kill the bear triumphantly. But he was not yet satisfied. His labor had supplied food for days, a coat for years, but he was hungry until he had shared the greatness of his joy in the conquest. On one of the white bones of his antagonist he scratched the outline picture to share with children and neighbors his terror at the bear's hugeness, his skill at overcoming such strength, and thus to accomplish that desire which must be in the heart of every man, if life is to have any joy in toil, that sharing of experience by which he awakens admiration and pride in the listener. The cartoonist today knows how deep-seated the old instinct is. You know the group obtaining vicariously a moment's greatness—"My father caught the biggest fish that's ever"—"My brother is the best pitcher on the team." They have all shared a real thrill, and that is what art is for—to make us feel genuine emotion through its adequate expression.

And when the cave woman's child lay sick with fever, crying for water, when the spring was too far away for water to be brought in the mother's hands, out of this beginning of all unselfish love the cup was made. The mother in desperation at her own helplessness began to solve her problem by thinking, action being checked. She saw for the first time the hollow print of her own foot in the sunbaked clay, and to cut this out of its bed without breaking it was a challenging project. When this had been accomplished and the rude cup conveyed the life-giving water to the sick child, the first great step was taken on the ladder that led to that top step where the great Teacher of us all, at the table where his school of twelve scholars was assembled, raised the cup brimming with love and sacrifice and gave thanks and said, "Drink ye all of it."

It is a long path upward from the crude sketch of the cave man's fierce bear to the great painting of Watts in the Tate gallery, London, "Love and Death," but this shows the same desire to express an emotion that comes to

each of us soon or late. You remember Love standing above trying with all his feeble strength to hold back Death, to compel him to relinquish his fell purpose. We cannot see Death's face, but by the very calmness and strength of the folds of his garment we know that even Love cannot hold back his coming. But while with aching sympathy we remember the inadequacy of our own love when death once knocked at the door of our beloved, we realize that the great artist has painted the truth, unsuspected at first by every aching heart, that death also is love—a peaceborn, heavenly love, not a thief in the night. The artist has interpreted for us through his art one of life's bitterest experiences, and has left hope for the ashes of mourning.

Our schools have not long been cognizant of the need of the child to express himself in play, which is his expression of art in the joy of freedom, the happiness of companionship, the need of noise and action and rhythm. If mankind had not felt the joy of this unregulated noise in play, he would never have felt the need of the snarling silver trumpet and clashing cymbals.

The teacher must keep her own soul alive with the same spirit of play if she is to make her schoolroom a fertile garden for children to grow in. When work appeals as strongly to the children as play does, it is no longer unwelcome drudgery but refreshing delight. The results of the psychologists' tests ought to startle us out of our stupid dullness, for they assure us that children do not get tired in school but are simply bored. The teacher who has kept alive her own creative imagination knows how to make even drill work enthralling. She will not plan so many lessons in health for so many days, but she and her class will form a health club. They will together study the need of fresh air day and night, and how to get it; why teeth must be kept clean, and how to insure enough cleaning for their beauty and preservation; what foods build the strongest bodies;—here is where the wise teacher sends her class to the textbooks, where she and they work out the problem together.

Unless all our work shares the spirit of the game, we find defeat awaiting us. That is why we have to teach again and again the same process to our own and our children's sense of failure. We must follow the cue of all learning, which is to play the game. I recently heard a famous leader of thought say that the page in the king's palace learned all his knowledge of lordship, and social relationship and the psychology of the interaction of church and state as he watched the game of chess. He saw the king move check, check, always weak alone, always needing complete protection. He saw the bishop always sliding diagonally, never straightforward. He saw the baron moving straight and square. He saw the queen sometimes square like the baron, but sometimes slipping with the bishop. He learned that it was doing the thing, doing the thing that counted.

From a current magazine recently I read an article upon the unconsciousness giving of our best and worst in every contact of the day upon the people around us. I have thought much upon the effect in every classroom if each teacher should consecrate her life to this decision: "No child shall leave this

place without a gift from me." What gift can you give, O superintendents of professional growth, of the unreckoned hours in the search for truth? And you, O principals, in honor preferring one another? What are we doing through our own gifts to our fellow-workers? Are we passing on only weary disillusionment, showing an unlit altar, a heap of ashes where kindling fires of courage and joy should glow? We, the children and elders shiver and grope through the darkened corridors of life when the light and warmth in the souls of our co-laborers have gone out, in spite of all that life has taught us of self reliance. In these great gatherings, what of that first furtive search into the faces of those we have long looked to as leaders, albeit one may not even be known to those to whom we look for the kindled glow of those best ideals that make a beacon light for all our days? We bear away gifts of cheer, of awakened enthusiasm, of a sense of the value, the beauty, the dignity of our own life, and blessed are we beyond words if we too may share in this giving. For we, too, must give to live.

If we need these things from our equals, what must be the need of the children? We have met the world with the strength of maturity. They have it all to meet. What gifts will you give to them, my fellow workers in this broad land?

We recognize demands of today. Health, skill in using the tools of education, worthy home membership, vocational effectiveness, character, fine spirit of learning, citizenship. You may string names along like a row of parlor cars, but without power to move on of themselves. What gift of blazing ideals can you give, teachers of America, that shall be sun and shower and shelter till these great objectives shall be wrought into the common life of every day in each child of the republic? We know the things to do, the books are full of the values of accomplishing them, what shall give these things power to achieve noble living in their possessors?

Once I held in my hand a dozen quartz crystals that flashed back every ray of light that touched their polished faces. There were broken places here and there where they bore the marks of struggle as they had been wrenched from the matrix. I wondered how many ages it had taken to build that shining beauty, earth stained and roughened by the conflict of their removal. Suddenly I was bewildered by a new and clearer vision. In the heart of each crystal lay another one, perfect in its many sided beauty, untouched by the grasping hands of greed; silent, radiant, perfect as a dew drop is perfect, gleaming with no abrasions or earth stain. Long I looked; they seemed to me like human souls I had known bearing in a life of hard work, burdened by illness and anxiety, but never losing the beauty of the informing soul within. Unmarred it rests, perfect, radiant, the ideal that God had for each of us when He sent us here for our brief sojourn. That perfect crystalline expression of the life of intelligent service, of noble citizenship, of the developed life touched to high issues, is what every good man and woman must hold in his heart for the children in his school. Through sympathy and knowledge and appreciation, through

the wistful memory of our own childhood and the haunting vision of its few, few years before the little back is bent to take its share of the load of life, we must hold the crystal ideal for the child! He will catch the sight of it from us when we see it, for we are kindred sharers of humanity, and the same destiny is ours. But out of our own consecrated work and play and our service to them we learn how to awaken the vision that must fly ever before the child's step, luring him away from earth's marring into the sunny reaches of sky-born transforming ideals, forerunners as Emerson, our poet, saw them:

Long I followed happy guides,
I could never reach their sides;
Their step is forth, and, ere the day,
Breaks up their leaguer, and away.
Keen my sense, my heart was young,
Right good-will my sinews strung,
But no speed of mine avails
To hunt upon their shining trails.
On and away, their hasting feet
Make the morning proud and sweet;
Flowers they strew—I catch the scent;
Or tone of silver instrument
Leaves on the wind melodious trace;
Yet I could never see their face.
On eastern hills I see their smokes,
Mixed with mist by distant lochs.
I met many travellers
Who the road had surely kept;
They saw not my fine revellers—
These had crossed them while they slept.
Some had heard their fair report,
In the country or the court.
Fleetest couriers alive
Never yet could once arrive,
As they went or they returned,
At the house where these sojourned.
Sometimes their strong speed they slacken,
Though they are not overtaken;
In sleep their jubilant troop is near,—
I tuneful voices overhear;
It may be in wood or waste,—
At unawares 'tis come and past.
Their near camp my spirit knows
By signs gracious as rainbows.
I thenceforward and long after,
Listen for their harp-like laughter,
And carry in my heart, for days,
Peace that hallows rudest ways.

PLANS AND POLICIES FOR HOMES FOR RETIRED TEACHERS

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I have been before you twice, talking on this subject. I have given you the argument. I have given you the conditions as we found them in 1924 and 1925, through the partial survey that was made of this country. Since that time we have had a number of very serious difficulties to overcome.

It seems almost that just as soon as we jump over one hurdle we have another. Mr. Siders later will speak to you about some of the legal difficulties. I want to come before you with a very practical question, and that is the question of money.

During the past year we have had a very large number of offers of sites. A man in Chicago came to see me in New York with an offer of a very large tract of land in Florida, absolutely free of cost to the National Education Association, absolutely free of any cost for buildings, but that did not cover the cost of maintenance.

In New York state there are now available for use for us as teachers' homes five different sites in different parts of the state. There are two more in the state of Florida that have been offered to us. The state of California has come forward with an offer of a site, and I could go on and state for you at least twenty more places that have been offered to the National Education Association for the purposes of building or using as homes for retired teachers. But there is this very serious difficulty of money to be overcome.

It is impossible for us to undertake to place old people in a building that we have not the money to carry on. Buildings and grounds do not buy food or clothing, or provide heat in winter, and consequently the money for maintenance must be provided before we go on any further with any consideration of these various sites.

Some of the persons who have offered these sites are good enough to hold them for us until such time as we are ready to undertake to use them, but some are already lost because they were given on condition that we undertake to use them at once.

The American Legion in certain states has had a number of homes they used following the war for disabled soldiers or for soldiers who were in need of a long period of rest before returning to their duties. Some of those homes are now being closed because they are no longer needed for the purpose for which they were established, and in some cases the American Legion is willing to turn those institutions over to us for the mere cost of the buildings alone. They cannot afford, in some places at least, to give them to us without charge.

I make this statement to you about the sites that have been considered because I want you to see that although our progress is slow it is nevertheless steady.

From the very beginning we have had the assistance and the guidance of some of the great fraternal organizations that are managing homes for the people of their societies, notably Mooseheart. They have warned us that it is absolutely essential that we have placed at interest a sum of money sufficiently large to cover the cost of maintenance for at least five years before we take any of these old people out of the condition they are now living in, however bad it may be, but nevertheless at least cared for to some extent, before we take them out of those conditions and put them into homes. That, in the judgment of the committee, has been very wise and very sound advice.

After the action of the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors at Dallas, we started out to see what we could do in the way of raising money. We were then free to consider that question. Since we got into that part of the work we found our next hurdle. I told you that just as soon as we jumped over one we met another. This hurdle is due to the fact that in the last ten or twenty years a large number of extremely wealthy men and large corporations have been induced to give money in ways which were really unwise. Their sympathies were appealed to, their emotions were aroused, and they gave the money.

In many cases the money was unnecessary, because there were already in existence institutions and organizations that were doing the same work. In some cases the need was temporary but the money was endowed for ever, although the need was a temporary one.

That has resulted in the determination on the part of persons and corporations of great wealth that they will protect gifts from any such possibility as that.

There is a very valuable little booklet which was brought out last March by an organization called the Community Trust, which is called "Frozen Funds." If you get hold of it you will be shocked, as I was, to find the enormous number of funds, running from a million to a billion dollars in the United States, locked up by endowments and by wills in such a way they cannot be used for necessary causes today, even though the original cause for which they were established has entirely ceased to exist.

Consequently a number of the wealthy persons and corporations to whom we appealed made the statement they were interested, but that first of all we must conform to the conditions that they have laid down, which is that an absolutely scientific and thorough survey must be made, a survey which will provide knowledge as to how many people are to be taken care of, whether there are already existing institutions which can be taken over for our purpose, and what is the best sort of an institution to provide. In fact, they urge that we get away from the institution idea altogether and instead of an institution that we have a genuine home, not an institution which makes people automatons and which deprives them of their rights and of companionship to which they are entitled.

Consequently the committee now plans to accept a gift which has been

offered to us to have this nation-wide survey made. It will cost from twenty to twenty-five thousand dollars to do it. That sum of money is in sight. Two thousand dollars of it was pledged the day before I left New York City, and the man who pledged the two thousand dollars said he would undertake to get the other nineteen.

So I am not worried about the money for the cost of that survey, but this is the plea I want to make to you. In making this survey it is absolutely necessary that we get the truth, and that on this most intimate personal question we have found it exceedingly difficult to do.

In New York state recently the state department undertook to make a survey of certain conditions among teachers. It was for the good of the teachers, it was for their best interests, as well as for the best interests of the schools, but it involved the answering of a number of exceedingly personal questions. The most absolute confidence was guaranteed, but I think at least twenty-five percent of the teachers refused point blank to answer those questions.

That was our experience in some of the places where we tried to find out what had happened to the old people, what had happened to these old teachers, what had happened to them in the places where there are no pension allowances, where there are no homes or anything else to take care of them. They seem to have just faded out somehow, vanished from our knowledge, from our acquaintance and from any walking around among us.

Granted that we do not know where they are, and that we may not be able to obtain definite knowledge of the people who have already gone out, we can at least get definite knowledge of those who are about to go out and who may need such assistance as we are able to give.

It must be also remembered that the point involved in this survey is not only money. It is not a question of poverty that is alone involved in this matter. It is a question of care and companionship. We want to know the old people who need a home of the kind that we are planning will not be without care, and will not be without companionship at the time that they are in the most need.

We already know of two thousand such cases, far more than we could possibly take care of for a long time to come, but at the same time two thousand old people will die, and the need that we have is to find out how continuing is this condition.

The questions may sound intimate, they may sound personal, but the questions will be absolutely kept confidential, and what I come before you now to beg of you is that when you receive this questionnaire, which will go to every member of the Representative Assembly here present in Seattle, that you will give the full and absolute truth.

We want facts. We cannot go before these people with guess-work. The organization of wealthy men that has been established to prevent any more frozen funds will prevent our getting the money to carry on our purpose unless they have the truth, and consequently we are going to accept the gift of twenty or twenty-five thousand dollars. We are going

to make this survey and we are going to get the facts in order to present them to this organization, but those facts or the getting of those facts is absolutely dependent upon the cooperation we get from the delegates in the several states.

I have one more point I would like to make, and that is the fact there are efforts being made by individual states. Possibly in the discussion some of that may come out, but now I want to yield my place to Mr. Siders, who has another point to relate to you.

PLANS AND POLICIES FOR HOMES FOR RETIRED TEACHERS

WALTER R. SIDERS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, POCA TELLO, IDAHO

The business side of this devolves on the trustees, the reason being that the charter provides that the permanent funds 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 donations, bequests, or devises.

At the Dallas meeting several things were determined which will be of interest to you. It was decided that we would accept only unconditional gifts for buying lands or buildings thereon or equipping those buildings, or accept money for endowment or for maintenance, or monies might be accepted which would be used in part for maintenance and in part for the purpose of endowment, or part maintenance with another institution, provided that the National Education Association would not lose a necessary control over such an institution.

The opinion of the attorney we employed to pass on this matter and the resolution which was adopted I would like to read.

The National Education Association of the United States does hereby establish a trust fund, to be known as the Olive M. Jones Fund for Homes for Retired Teachers, naming this fund in honor of the originator of the idea. And does hereby authorize its Board of Trustees in its discretion to accept unconditional gifts, bequests and devises of any real or personal state in trust for any one or all of the following purposes: (1) The establishment of homes for retired teachers and the purchase of land, buildings or equipment therefor. (2) The building, furnishing and equipping of homes for retired teachers. (3) The endowment of homes for retired teachers. (4) The maintenance in whole or in part of homes for retired teachers, including all or any expenses of supervision, management, operation, upkeep, repair and improvement. The Board of Trustees is further authorized in its discretion to hold, invest, reinvest, grant, convey, encumber or lease all assets of every character which shall hereafter become a part of such fund, and in its discretion to use or to deliver to a board of managers of an established home for use by such managers any assets comprising a part of such fund or any income or accruals therefrom for all or any of the above mentioned purposes. The Board of Trustees is authorized in its discretion to establish homes for retired teachers from time to time, to name the locations therefor, or to provide how the location of any home shall be determined upon, to incorporate or otherwise to establish a governing and managing body for each home, to establish by charter and bylaws or otherwise a board of managers for each home, a

majority of whom at all times shall be residents of the state, territory or District of Columbia, in which the home is located, and to provide for the manner of election and reelection of such board of managers; to invest in such board of managers so much, as it shall see fit, of the management, operation and control of the home and of properties of whatever character which shall be used or the accruals or income from which shall be used for the acquisition, completion, endowment or maintenance of such home, and generally to establish such rules for the operation and management of the home and its continuity and for reversion of all assets to the Board of Trustees upon its discontinuance, or in its discretion as it may see fit, with or without reservation to itself of the right to amend any such rules at any time.

And, as Miss Jones has said, our immediate work is gathering information as to the need of these homes, and if it might be permitted me to say a few words in addition, my thoughts concerning this run very seriously to the necessity of providing a place for those who are alone.

I hardly ever go into a Pullman car and see that sign that hangs out late at night, "Quiet is requested for the benefit of those who have retired," but it causes my mind to run on this subject.

It is very difficult where one who is in the morning of life or one who stands in the strong noonshine of life to realize that the time will come when the long, cool shadows of evening will creep over him; but very truly is it written, "Let him that is yet young beware lest he grow old." It is the inevitable fate of all to come to the time when something of this sort will be needed.

I remember the shock with which I read an article entitled "I go to Kill my Father." An Eskimo of the northland was making a trip into the interior, and when asked where he went he said "I go to kill my father." It is the custom, he said, that when a man is too old to longer go to the hunt and to maintain his place among the strong and virile of the tribe that his oldest son shall take his life with a knife.

Civilization has taught us better manners. I sometimes wonder if it has taught us better feeling. If you plant flowers on my grave you do so to please yourself, that the place where you put me away may look more attractive to you. Those long, ugly, sap-sucking roots that go down into my face will not entertain me.

I have been so much impressed with that saying that "A rose to the living is more than sumptuous wreaths to the dead, A rose to the living, if given before the hungry spirit is fled, A rose to the living is more than sumptuous wreaths to the dead," that I wish to make this plea. To us as school teachers who must take the lead if anything ever comes of these homes, let us have a larger charity; let us, instead of spending our money on funeral wreaths and great funerals and funeral orations, let us see that those who are still alive and whose steps are faltering that that money may be provided to supply those old people with the necessary comforts in their old age, and, as Miss Jones has so well said, that they may have the thing which they crave most; companionship, and the assurance they have not been forgotten by those with whom they have fallen out of step.

A NEW BASIS FOR DELEGATE REPRESENTATION

P. P. CLAXTON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, TULSA, OKLA.

The report has been printed and I am asking the Pennsylvania delegation to distribute it. They are good at distribution.

I shall ask that you do not attempt to read the report now. We had printed first the bylaws, as they now are, in one column. After we had agreed on the amendments to be recommended, we had them set in type and printed in the second column, so you have a parallel column arrangement of the bylaws as they now are and of the recommendations.

It would require more than the time that can be given to this to read them through with any degree of care, therefore I am going to ask you to give your attention to my statement, and then we will fix our attention on one particular part, the part which is announced in your program, a new basis for delegate representation.

Let me give you somewhat the history of this Committee. Dr. Blair, your president, has said it is not an easy task, and we found that it was not. I am sure we were all convinced in the beginning it would require much effort, but the Committee recognized the fundamental importance of the work to the welfare of the National Education Association, and we have acted accordingly.

Before the Committee was called together a statement was sent out calling the meeting at Dallas, with the request that each member of the Committee who had any suggestion to make before the meeting, or who for any reason could not attend the meeting, to send to the chairman a statement of those suggestions or recommendations.

At Dallas fourteen members of the Committee of twenty-four met, and Dr. Blair, your president, sat with us through most of the sessions there.

As I said, through all the sessions of the subcommittee, to which I will refer later, and the sessions of the Committee, he has given his thought and was a great help to it.

When the Committee met at Dallas there were fourteen of the Committee present. We had three sessions of the meeting, a total of nearly ten hours was given to its consideration. That there might be no hasty judgment we resolved at the Dallas meeting to vote on nothing that had to do with the bylaws, and that it might be considered from every possible point of view.

Arthur Chamberlain was made secretary of the Committee, and he did his work with remarkable accuracy and promptness, and within a few days after we returned from the Dallas meeting, I sent to all members of the Committee, whether they were there or not, a complete summary of the action at Dallas.

Then a subcommittee was appointed and met with seven members, including the chairman, at Chicago, on April 20th and 21st. You can

remember the date if you care to because those are the days on which Lindbergh flew across the Atlantic. We were in the air as long as he was, but we hope the landing will be as safe as his was on the other side.

That subcommittee held five meetings, was in session approximately fifteen hours, and we arrived at a conclusion either in final statement or in principle, on all items we took up for consideration. On the most important of all we did not arrive at a complete statement, and it was asked that every member of the subcommittee would give it more careful study and would send to the chairman and secretary a letter containing this statement.

Within a few days the secretary of the Committee again sent the conclusions and the discussions by which we had arrived at those conclusions of the subcommittee, a document of some thirty or more typewritten pages, and then there came to the chairman of the Committee these statements from members of the subcommittee, each one trying to word as accurately as possible the principle upon which we had agreed, and there came from a classroom teacher finally, a member of the subcommittee, a statement which was, with very few changes, embodied in the recommendations here.

The Committee met here and was in session about eight hours in three different meetings, and we came finally to a unanimous conclusion on the recommendations which we have submitted.

Now, this was a small committee comparatively, twenty-four of us, of that number fourteen meeting at Dallas and seven and Dr. Blair at the Chicago meeting of the subcommittee, and fourteen or fifteen members were here, and we gave altogether about thirty hours to it, beside the time we have given in our homes.

We believe it would be unfair to ask you, this larger body, without the benefit of the discussion we had across the table, to decide in thirty minutes on what we have done, and we are submitting it to you, as has been stated, with the request that you consider it very carefully for a year, or at least for another six months, and that you will submit it to the organizations you represent back home and ask for careful discussion of it, and if you will send to the chairman of the Committee any statement that you may have, any suggestion, any substitution, any amendment offered, with reasons therefor, I shall call a meeting of the Committee in connection with the meeting of the Department of Superintendence next February to go over all these suggestions you may make.

First they will be sent to the secretary of the Committee with the request that he do in his effective way as he has done in the past, that is to summarize them so we may have them before us in their most intelligible form.

One other statement I should make, I want to thank the secretary of the Association, Mr. Crabtree, and those who work for him, for their great help in getting this printed rather promptly and ready for us, under the difficult circumstances of a Sunday and a holiday coming between the time when he was asked to do this and today.

I want to thank the Committee that made this foreword, on the back of this sheet here, and I want to thank them for the "Dr." before my name. Mr. Siders told us the other day what some of the letters mean, but he did not tell us what "Dr." means.

There are three or four problems before us. One was the harmonizing of the bylaws with the constitution of the Association and the charter given by the Congress of the United States.

A very superficial study revealed the fact that the bylaws are not in harmony with the constitution. President Blair had already called attention to that fact. At the Dallas meeting the chairman of the Committee was asked to obtain the services of a corporation lawyer and to ask him to give us an opinion on that subject. I asked George Gibson, of Tulsa, Oklahoma, recognized as one of the best corporation lawyers in the state of Oklahoma, about that. After careful consideration the report was that the bylaws are not in harmony with the charter, and perhaps many of the actions of our Association in recent years have not been legal. They can be made legal, as is sometimes done, by the Board of Trustees taking action and approving all that has been already done.

The charter provides that the Board of Directors shall be responsible for the general management of the Association, for all of its business, and for everything which is not committed to the Board of Trustees. It provides for an Executive Committee, and the only power given to the Executive Committee is to serve as an administrative body, carrying out the general policies and working under the direction of the Board of Directors between meetings.

As the Association has grown much larger than it was when the bylaws were made, certainly much larger than when the charter was obtained, it has come about that much more business must be done, business which can hardly be foreseen by the Board of Directors in detail, and which requires the kind of work that can only be done by a smaller body than the Board of Directors, and it was therefore suggested that wherever it is necessary for the Board of Directors to take action at all, it shall be stated in the bylaws that they shall do this, under the general direction of the Board of Directors.

It was asked why not obtain a new charter. The difficulty of that is that the charter we now have was given by the Congress of the United States and is therefore a national charter, and we can do business of any kind in any part of the United States, in any state, territory or district. Congress no longer grants charters, and it is feared if we should ask for amendments—and several amendments might be made to advantage—Congress would refuse to make the amendments and we should have to do what is now required by Congress of all organizations wanting such a charter, go to the District of Columbia or elsewhere for our charter, and that would make it necessary to file a notice of our right to do business in any state, territory or district where we might want to transact business, and that would be a very difficult and inconvenient kind of a thing to do,

and therefore we have attempted to harmonize the bylaws with the charter as the charter now is, in such a way the Board of Directors may assume the responsibility, as provided by the charter, and the Executive Committee may act as it can act in these details of business as the Board of Directors could not.

One other thing which we did not do, let us refer to it before we get to this matter of the Representative Assembly. The bylaws have been amended many times, and many times very hurriedly. We have not made much effort to do that part of the task, foreseeing that it could be done best probably by having this Committee or some other write the bylaws from beginning to end, in the best possible English of which your Committee might be capable, and in the fewest possible words.

We were of the feeling it might be reduced twenty-five or thirty percent in the number of words, and therefore be more easily read and be made clearer.

Now, the great immediate problem before us as to the legality of the bylaws is the question of execution. Originally the charter provided for no bylaws establishing what business would be done by the Board of Directors having to do with policies of education by the Association as a whole.

It was thought that as the Association grew, business of this nature could be done better by a representative assembly, and what has happened since has proven the wisdom of that. Some years ago the Representative Assembly was provided by an amendment to the charter to the effect that the Association might provide in its bylaws and the constitution for a representative assembly, to which should be entrusted the election of officers and the other business heretofore transacted by the Association as a whole at its business meetings.

The Association again was comparatively small when the Representative Assembly was provided. It has grown immensely since that time. I do not know what the membership was, but I imagine about twenty thousand or less, and now it is nearly two hundred thousand, nearly ten times as large as it was then.

The income at that time was, I imagine, about ten percent of what it is now. A Representative Assembly we felt should be a legislative body if it is to do business, and we thought that it ought to be small enough really to be a legislative body and not merely a listening body, a group of people coming together to hear reports and to give passive assent to them.

We have therefore first considered the size of the Representative Assembly.

Some of you were thoroughly aware of the great variety of conditions in the different states and the District of Columbia, and the chairman was very conscious of that. For ten years he had to serve as best he could the whole United States, and there was impressed upon him the great difference between urban Massachusetts and rural Mississippi, and the great difference in other localities, and therefore we put in that last provision that if this

method of electing delegates does not fit the conditions in any state, the state may take it up directly through the Association and take it up with the Executive Committee, and work out a plan which would be approved by the two, and would prove better possibly than the plan here suggested.

Let me call attention to another fact. We were thoroughly aware of the vitality of the Association that comes from representation from the local affiliated associations. No local affiliated association that could be at all represented under the bylaws as they now are will be deprived of the representation. The larger associations will elect not one for each one thousand, but one for each five hundred, and I think if it is less than five hundred you will soon have more active members, so it will be entitled to one or more member.

It also gives to the local smaller associations—it is provided in the bylaws as they now are the small association must have a membership of fifty-one members. We have provided those associations may each nominate one delegate, those nominees shall go to the state association, and by the process by which the state association elects officers and delegates the delegates will be elected from that group, and those not elected shall be designated as alternates.

It is true in some of the states most of the teachers belong to the local association. It is also true in some states with large population very few of the teachers belong to the local association. Several states have no large cities, and they therefore do not have the local associations, as a state like Ohio, with its many cities, will have. They ought to have representation, and so on to the rural communities. We have therefore provided the delegates elected by the whole assembly to fill out the number to which they are entitled after the local organizations have their representatives, shall be persons not members of local organizations, in preference to the large organizations that might hold the balance of power and something more from electing their members, and thus give it double representation while the smaller communities would have none.

I believe that is safe and good. There may be some difficulty in some states of appointing delegates in the way we have suggested; and then let me make this statement: every member of your Committee, some of whom are classroom teachers, and other organizations, very earnestly plead for this plan of organization and of certification of delegates. They said they did not want to come and sit here as local delegates. You sit as representatives from your states, and the representatives on that committee said they were quite sure they would rather come certified as delegates from the state, but representing directly the local organizations from which they came.

It was pointed out already this has been done in some states. In the state of Pennsylvania there are three members already elected by the state association as delegates; that in Chicago they had asked that their local delegate might come and sit as a member of the state delegation. That

leaves only one other matter, and I believe that is the thing over which there will be the most discussion.

Let me say this Committee has no pride of authorship, and we had only one thing in view and that was the welfare of the Association. They hurried all their local contentions and tried to see things with the eyes of the Association as a whole, and they have worked only to that purpose, and people who work in that spirit are always willing to have any suggestions or any objections made.

We had to agree on something. We were of the opinion in order that this body be truly representative, that it may be deliberative, as all bodies of this kind should, passing on great problems of education, submitting great tasks back to the Board of Directors and questions to work out, determined that this Representative Assembly should be small enough to really be a deliberative body, and we were of the opinion that five hundred is as many as may constitute such an assembly and be a truly deliberative, legislative body, and so we fixed it at that number.

One other thing and I am through. It was stated in the Committee this smaller body would probably take away the advertising effect; it would be good if more could be present, and so we have stated elsewhere than here that the Committee shall sit always in open house—I mean the assembly—and give all active members of the Association an opportunity of discussion, that they may have seats on the floor, in the gallery, so far as room will permit, and that any active member may, on the invitation of the president, be invited to address the Assembly, and any active member with a real message, something that ought to come to the delegates, will have that opportunity.

These are the things we have had to submit. I want to say just one other word about the size of the Representative Assembly. There are registered here now approximately ten thousand members of the Association. There are ten hundred, a little bit more than one thousand, of the representatives here. Nine thousand of them are not here. If five hundred can do business as well as a thousand or ten thousand or seventeen hundred or two thousand, then there is a gain in having only five hundred do it.

Another statement I wanted to make in regard to it. This Association is now entitled to something like seventeen hundred or eighteen hundred delegates. They are not all here; they have not all ever been present.

I have made this calculation too that I must mention to you. First, this Association never meets in a great half of the United States. It has not since 1900 met but one time south of the northern border of North Carolina. It did meet once in St. Louis, but that is really north of that line. Twelve contiguous states with approximately one-fourth of the population of the United States have had at the six meetings beside this since the Representative Assembly was formed only ten percent of the delegates. If the delegates coming from a great distance must pay their own expenses it is costly to them, and if the Association must pay those

expenses it is costly to the Association, or if the state associations pay it is costly to them. Many do not send their delegates because they have not the means, and it frequently results in that delegates are chosen who have the private means to pay their own way. Many times the delegates must be chosen here. That is not a good way to get a good representation. This is a national association and should be national in the representatives doing the business of the Association, making educational legislation, determining great projects, and expending large sums of money, and it should be always representative of the entire country. It is not now and has never been.

One reason for the formation of this representative body of delegates chosen from the various organizations was the fact that as we get in different sections of the country we get a greater variety of policies and ideas.

It is not the function of the Committee to say your expenses shall be paid, but the Committee was very largely of the opinion, if not unanimous, that with the smaller representative body it would be possible sooner or later to pay a large part of the expenses.

I made this calculation. I assume with this organization we are recommending that the Association had met in Chicago in 1925, and I made the calculation what it would have cost to pay the traveling expenses, not the living expenses, but the traveling expenses, of all delegates, and I found that we could have got within twenty-five dollars for both coming and returning, or \$26,970, and if you had applied the \$20,000 to five hundred delegates to the Association meeting, held in the middle part of the United States, you could have paid within twenty-five or thirty dollars of all traveling expenses of the delegates.

One other thing and I am through. I recognize that this is a long talk, but it is important. You will observe the directors, according to the amendments, no longer will sit as delegates with the representative body. They are not elected as delegates. You will find the past commissioners of education and past presidents are not sitting in the body as representatives. Under the constitution of the Association they sit with the directors, and it is believed it is not good for a group of seventy-five or eighty people to sit here as delegates ex-officio and then go and pass upon what the body as a whole has done; that it is better to submit what has been done by a body of delegates elected for that purpose and then submit it to the other body that has to do with the finances and other policies of the Association and who are elected in another way.

I wish to thank you. I only ask you in the spirit intended to take these amendments and study them.

I am asking the Association through the Committee, not because we are eager for more work, but because it has given this consideration and is familiar more or less with the condition, that the Committee be continued, and I am asking also that the chairman be authorized to prepare the substance of what is said here, and anything else that comes up, in pamphlet form to be sent to all the members of the organization that are a part of the Association.

EXPENSES OF DELEGATES AND DIRECTORS

CORNELIA S. ADAIR, TEACHER, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, RICHMOND, VA.

When the National Education Association was reorganized at Salt Lake City in 1920 and put on a delegate basis, it became evident that some provision must be made to secure the proper proportion of delegates from all classes of the teaching body. Indeed this question of proportional representation occupied a very large place in the minds of the Committee on Reorganization.

For many years, city, county and state boards of education had recognized the value of the exchange of ideas conducted in the conventions of the National Education Association and had established the custom of sending their executive officers to participate in these discussions. This practice would doubtless continue under the new constitution but such boards would probably be slow to recognize the need of sending representatives from each educational group to the same convention.

Because of this very natural tendency of boards of education to send only their supervisory officers to educational conventions, and because at that period in our development there was more class consciousness than at present, many teachers and principals were of the opinion that their point of view would be more adequately presented by the principals and teachers of the locality in which the convention was held than by delegates from other fields of education. For this reason many doubted the wisdom of reorganizing on a delegate basis.

Therefore, a general understanding prevailed in the Committee on Reorganization that a Committee on Financing Delegates to the National Convention should be appointed immediately after the acceptance by the Association of the revised Constitution and Bylaws.

This committee, consisting of superintendents, principals, classroom teachers, a secretary of a state organization, and the secretary of the National Education Association was duly appointed. They discussed the question of financing delegates from every angle. The need of adequate representation of all branches of the service in the counsels of the teachers of the nation, the practice of other great national organizations, the effect on the various activities of the Association of the diversion of any large sum from the treasury, the impetus that a national contribution might give to the local and state associations to help finance their delegates, even the question of increased dues came in for consideration.

A sub-committee reported that only one national organization, Phi Beta Kappa, paid any part of the expenses of delegates to their national conventions save those of the executive officers. Still, the idea that the payment of some part of the delegates expenses was both justifiable and wise persisted in the minds of the Committee. A proposition to increase the dues of the members of the association was rejected on the grounds that it was simply an inconvenient way of forcing the local association to finance their own delegates.

Finally, as an experiment, the Committee, with the approval of the Board of Directors and Executive Committee, asked the delegate body to set aside the sum of \$10,000, in the budget, to be used pro rata for the payment of a part of the expenses of those delegates whose railroad and pullman fares exceeded \$50. They reasoned that the latter provision would insure this aid's going to a different section of the country each year—and that most local associations could pay at least \$50 on each of their delegates expenses. This plan was accepted, and has been in successful operation for three years.

In 1924, the first year of the experiment, the convention was held in Washington, D. C. and there were 1044 delegates. Of this number, 612 received expense money varying in amounts from \$2 to \$175.46. That year, \$9531, or 3.22 percent of the total income of the Association was devoted to this purpose.

The second year, the convention was held in Indianapolis, an inland city, near the center of population. There were 953 delegates, 517 of whom received \$9379, or 2.7 percent of the total income of the National Education Association.

At the 1926 convention in Philadelphia, there were 1124 delegates of whom 718 received expense money of varying amounts from \$3 to \$100. The entire cost was \$12,960, or 3.4 percent of the total income of the association.

The estimated delegate attendance at this, the Seattle meeting, is 1203, of whom 1099 will probably receive expense money. In anticipation of this increase in the number of delegates and in recognition of the distance of Seattle from the center of population, the Board of Directors, at the Dallas meeting, increased the delegate fund from \$10,000 to \$20,000—or 4.83 percent of the estimated income for this year. The delegates will receive from \$3.80 to \$59.12.

Until the returns were made for the Philadelphia convention, it has been impossible to ascertain to which branch of the service many of the delegates belonged; for approximately one third have heretofore failed to fill in their educational positions on the registration slip. Either the registrars at Philadelphia were unusually persistent or the delegates have become more practical in registering because, for the first time, it has been possible to tabulate the delegates according to "educational position" with a fair degree of accuracy.

Of the 1124 delegates present, 314 were superintendents, supervisors or college presidents, 174 were principals, 23 were secretaries of educational associations, 586 were classroom teachers and 17 were unclassified.

Encouraged by the example of the National Association practically every state association paid some part of its delegates' expenses. The local associations have caught the spirit and in most cases are paying a proportion of the local delegate's expenses. Thus, the state and local associations are able to select as their delegates those whom they consider best fitted to represent them rather than those who are willing to finance their own trips.

This practice has also permitted a type of continuity of service among all classes of delegates. A state association will repeatedly send its executive officers and committee chairman to represent it, while a local association feels free to ask its ablest representatives to serve as often as the need arises.

One of the most powerful objections to the payment of delegates expenses by the National Education Association was the drain on the treasury. We have seen the delegate body increase in seven years from 553 to an estimated 1092 with a possible 1700 and the percentage of the association's income expended for financing delegates increase from 3.22 percent to 4.83. Is it good business practice to divert so large a proportion of income to such a purpose? Had we not better spend this money for research? Where will this expenditure stop?

Your answer has already been given by my predecessor Dr. Claxton. From a totally different approach he has shown you the advisability of limiting the number of the delegate body in order that it may be a truly deliberative body—a group of select individuals, chosen for their knowledge of educational problems, their ability to discuss them and for the faith that the teachers "back home" have in their impartial judgment.

It is manifestly impossible for the National Association to pay all of the expenses of even as few as 500 delegates. The speaker estimates that to pay all of the railway and pullman expenses of 500 delegates over and above \$50 to Washington, D. C. would cost approximately \$20,000. To Seattle it would cost approximately twice as much. This amount would increase or decrease as the place of meeting approached or departed from the center of population. Experience has shown that most state or local associations are able to pay \$50 each on their delegates' expenses. Will it not be the part of wisdom to retain the present system of paying a proportion of the expenses of those delegates whose railroad and pullman fares exceed \$50? The amount might well be a percentage of the total income of the previous year or a fixed sum. The speaker believes that for the coming year the sum of \$10,000 will be adequate. This opinion is based on figures used in previous years. The actual working out of the plan might well be left to a committee.

Of all the delegates to the association, the most important is the state director. He or she is the connecting link between his state association and the national. He is a member of the Board of Directors, the financial and policy-making committee of the association. He is in a very real sense an officer of the National Association yet he is also a state official. If he is to render the most effective service he should serve more than one year. He should not accept the office of state director unless he is willing to give his time and thought to the position—but he should not be asked to spend his money as well in attending the meetings of the Board of Directors. Some states have met the situation by making their state Executive Secretary their director in the National Association, but this practice may not answer everywhere. Since the state director is an ex officio delegate, he would of course share in such provisions as are made for all delegates but

that provision will not be adequate unless the National Association decides to pay all of the expenses of the delegates over and above a certain sum—say the \$50 maximum. The speaker believes that all the expenses of this state and national officer should be borne jointly by the two associations, in whatever ratio that a committee of the national association shall decide. This committee should also adopt certain standards as to what expenditures are chargeable to the funds of the association in payment of the cost of attending a convention. Such a plan has already been placed before the Board of Directors by the state director from Virginia, Superintendent Joseph H. Saunders.

It has been said that rabbits leap forward, serpents crawl forward but to man alone is given the ability to talk himself forward. If this be true, it behooves educators who are the most influential group in the moulding of the citizens of the republic, to choose the representatives to their national council wisely, and, having choosen to do all in their power to free those representatives for the important task of formulating the policies of their great national association.

WHAT ECONOMISTS HOPE TO CONTRIBUTE TO AMERICAN LIFE

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Economists hope to help the American people solve their problems. Our problems for the future will arise increasingly out of our industrial or economic environment. An economist is a man who spends his life studying this industrial environment—studying it scientifically, of course, hunting for rules and principles and laws.

Occasionally economists have hit upon something worth listening to. At a time when England was regulating everything, Adam Smith developed a doctrine that revolutionized the ideas of statesmen and the political policies of the world. Henry George had things to say worth our consideration on the subject of rent, Karl Marx as to the exploitation of labor. We have faith to believe that our future is not behind us. Perhaps when Mitchell and others finish their studies of crises, panics, and industrial depressions there will not be so many business failures. And when Irving Fisher or somebody else tells us just how to stabilize the dollar, debtors and creditors will not be alternately but everlastingly robbed by falling or by rising prices. In the future, then, as in the past, economists hope to help the world solve its problems.

No doubt in the future as in the more recent past our leading economists will be permitted to contribute of their wisdom at home and abroad. One American economist has helped rebuild the financial systems in ten or a dozen foreign states, another was for some time a member of the United States Tariff Board, several have been called upon from time to

time to help out commissions, legislative and congressional committees. This is conspicuously so as to matters of taxation. In the aggregate and in the long run all of this amounts to a great deal.

Some economists and others with considerable economic training are serving large businesses, banks, insurance companies as industrial managers or experts. Uncle Sam himself occasionally seeks economic advice; during the War did this constantly, and when they have a conference over at Geneva to diagnose the business and commercial troubles of the world, they invite the economists and indeed call their pow-wow the economic conference. Our Illinois State Teachers Association research man was chosen because of the record he had made in my classes in economics.

A prominent sociologist has pointed out that progress results from everlasting conflict between and among interest groups. Amid these continual clashes economists venture to hope they may be permitted to play the rôle of unprejudiced advisors. Whether the issue be as to collective bargaining, a protective tariff, a minimum wage, some sort of taxation, a banking system, or farm relief, the "say" of the economist ought to have some weight. But the economist has a hard row to hoe and his path is strewn with pitfalls. The interests may be depended upon to try to buy, directly or indirectly, his verdict, the masses to exchange popularity for it. It is a great trust you impose upon the economist. The question of academic freedom in his classroom is involved. Involved, too, is the integrity of our educational institutions.

Evidently, if you let the speaker tell it, economists have no inferiority complex as to their own possible usefulness. Yet the economist's debits exceed his credits. Whenever I have had the opportunity to discuss anything with some special interest group, I have invariably felt that I had as much to learn from them as they could possibly hope to get from me. And it mattered not whether it was a group of bankers, or of laborers, a commercial or luncheon club, or a group of farmers, of club women, or of preachers.

The progress, comfort, and happiness of the world depends not more upon material sciences than upon economics. When Charles Lindbergh took his little hop from America to France, it was a triumph for half a dozen or a dozen sciences. His mother had taken good care of herself before he was born; she had fed and raised him aright. He had not broken down his health by heavy eating, riotous living, or hard drinking. I presume he had brushed his teeth each day, taken regular baths, and plenty of physical exercise. He was himself a triumph of eugenics and euthenics, of correct living, of health education. In no other way comes that quick, sure correlation between thought and action indispensable in an aviator. And Lindbergh's machine was a triumph—a triumph of physics and chemistry, of mechanics and mathematics. It presupposed a Bessemer, a knowledge of the mechanical powers (the lever, the inclined plane, the wheel and axle)—it was the direct result of the invention of the gasoline engine,

with its stupendous power and its small weight. Meteorology, too, made its contribution to the success of the trip. The aviator does not make a start until atmospheric conditions are right. But whether air navigation becomes common or not, awaits upon matters of advertising, salesmanship, marketing, upon economics. If there are people enough ready to pay a sufficient price for this rapid transport of their letters or of their goods or of themselves, we shall have transcontinental air service with all the gain and satisfaction and increased happiness it involves. At the World's Fair in Chicago, in 1893, was an exhibit of the development of the locomotive engine. There was shown the little affair of the thirties, a two- or three-ton construction capable of hauling a couple of omnibus-like coaches each carrying half a dozen passengers, the whole thing running on a track of two-by-fours surfaced with sheet iron, at the rate of ten miles an hour. And then there was the engine of the forties, of the fifties, of the sixties, each a little bigger than its predecessor, and so on down to the half million-pound monster of today, the decapod freighter, the high-speed passenger locomotive, drawing its dozen or more steel cars at a speed of a mile a minute. That exhibit was the best demonstration on the grounds of the world's progress. But it was a demonstration not only of mechanical but, too, of economic progress. Those big locomotives, our long fast trains, have been made to pay.

Sometimes the pay of something, as in the case of the radio, is in the direct satisfaction rendered rather than in dollars and cents which mean later satisfactions. Our economics is a science now-a-days, not of wealth only, but of welfare. It is welfare economics. Thus, beautiful pictures, fine sculpture, art of all sorts, music, pay in the one way or in the other. The same may be said as to literature, religion, philosophy, even as to science herself. Little flourishes in this world unless it pays. Not, let me remind you again, in dollars necessarily, but in surplus of pleasure over pain, in the aggregate, the net human happiness. Our greatest hope for the good life itself is that it pays to be good. The drunkard, the criminal, the immoral man is the fool. He loses out in the long run as to the very happiness he seeks.

This last point needs great emphasis. We must never forget that economics is not more a science of wealth than it is a philosophy of life. The economist wants the American people—each of them—to live long, sleep well, be good, and be happy. All this good life is attainable for them if their economics is right, probably not otherwise. Let us explain. Ruskin was absolutely right when he said there is no wealth but life. A fine library is not wealth to the millionaire who cannot read understandingly the books it contains. It has no direct subjective value, no want-satisfying power to him. If it is worth anything on the market, if it has objective exchange value, that is only because there are people who can get more out of it than the poor millionaire.

Now what is this life we are talking about—the good life—the life we want—the life the economist would promise you? What is it but a surplus of utility over disutility, of gratification over cost, of pleasure over pain? It is a large part of my creed that it pays to be good. Not that I always live up to my creed! Did any one of you here today ever do a mean little thing that in the long run he got more pleasure than pain out of? If we do one mean little thing we shall probably do others. Society generally sizes men up for about what they are. We shall find ourselves without wholesome reputations, we shall lose our jobs and be looked at askance in our communities. It pays to be good. We teach our kids that in the Sunday school—do we not believe it ourselves? There is no sacrifice in being good. Just the reverse. I took this line of thought once in addressing our Y. M. C. A. My talk did not seem to take very well. The young men seemed to be thinking, "O, yes; we are good—but at what an awful sacrifice it is! How happy we should be if we could swear, and drink, and fight—be immoral, steal something, or kill somebody." Now, if that is one's philosophy of life—one's economics—one will never get anywhere. His economics is all wrong. He will lose his life in trying to find it. He will not be balancing correctly present and future utilities. In grasping after present satisfactions the criminal or the immoral man sacrifices the immensely greater future satisfactions that would come from right living. His philosophy is not philosophy at all—it is just fool-osophy. His economics is all wrong. He will probably not live long; nor will he be moral, or good, or happy, and his conscience will not let him sleep.

Another thing. Economics is the science not only of wealth-getting and wealth-saving—of thrift—but also of wealth-spending. The economist weeps, so to speak, when he sees labor and capital power spent in building million-dollar stables, \$1800 dresses, hundred-thousand-dollar tombstones, or fifty-dollar-a-plate banquets to satisfy the passing whims of the very rich. The capital power that built the million-dollar stable would have employed as much labor in building a thousand thousand-dollar homes for working men's families, each to have sheltered a family of half a dozen and to have lasted fifty or sixty years. What a loss in want satisfaction from that one misdirection of labor-capital power! What must be the aggregate loss from all such misdirections! The trouble comes from the outrageous distribution of wealth in this country, where the richest one percent of our families own half the national wealth. When Egypt fell, when Babylon fell, one or two percent of the people owned everything. Wretched wealth distribution brought the decline and fall of Rome. And in France in the days before the Revolution the wealth was in the hands of royalty, aristocracy, and church, while the masses ate for their sustenance the grasses of the fields. Everywhere else the amassing of the wealth of a land in the hands of the very few has meant eventual decline, revolution, fall, an erasure from the map of the world. Have we any right to expect

otherwise here? From such a catastrophe the economist would save the American people.

Once we stubbed our toes, bumped our heads, and bloodied our noses on nature at every step. Then we studied nature, discovered her secrets, put to use her forces, and all this made us free. We had solved the problems of production and we were producing wealth enough to keep in comfort half a dozen worlds. But now our endlessly complicated machines and means of production present us with a new set of problems. They are the problems springing out of an industrial environment. And the task of their solution is not one of natural but one of social science. It is not a problem of production, but a problem of the distribution of wealth.

The demand was once for natural science. The demand is now for social science. We have reached a place in our industrial and social development where further discoveries of truths of nature and their application in industry, if unaccompanied by advance in social knowledge, may easily prove, instead of a blessing, an unmitigated curse, bringing only a worse-directed application of productive power, a more unjust distribution of wealth, a more unsocial society, a more undemocratic democracy, and a more irreligious religion.

Frank O. Lowden, formerly governor of Illinois, now a favorite with the farmers as a candidate for the Republican nomination for the presidency of the United States, in an address he made, reported in the *Chicago Tribune* June 18, took this position we are urging—that our problems of production have been solved through natural science, that social science has lagged behind natural science, that our problems henceforth are to arise from our industrial environment, that the processes of distribution are the conventions of men, and must be improved and perfected through the study of social science. Thus, it would seem, according to Mr. Lowden, the farmer's troubles must be solved. And President Coolidge vetoed the McNary-Haugen bill because it was not built up according to economic principles.

The economist cannot do much for the American citizen who will not listen to him. We do not guarantee to such a man long life, sound sleep, goodness, nor happiness. Nor can we solve for such a man his specific problems. Of course sometimes economists are not agreed among themselves, and then the American citizen can be forgiven if he does as he pleases. But occasionally when economists are all agreed, our citizens in this land of the free and home of the brave have insisted on doing as they pleased. Let us take an illustration.

Economists are, almost without notable exception, opposed to high protective tariffs. We believe in territorial division of labor: that each country should produce the things it can produce best of all and that there should then be a general exchange of products, bringing gains for all. We believe Friday was right when he supposed Robinson Crusoe would accept gratefully the boards brought in by the waves and the winds, with

which boards they could easily nail together a scow that would be roomier and lighter and better in every way than the dugout Friday had been blistering his hands on for months. Friday, you remember, was not disturbed with the thought of the ruin to home industry so long as they got the goods. He thought that goods rather than work was the end of industry. And economists do not take much stock in the old argument that if we put customs duties preferably upon goods the like of which we are trying to produce here we shall "kill two birds with one stone." We think you can't kill two birds with one stone; that just in the degree that you get revenue you will sacrifice protection, and if you get protection you will not get revenue. We are very skeptical, too, even as to the infant industry argument for protection. Hundred-year-old infants have not ceased, we know, to clamor for further succor. But I am not here to argue the tariff question—to attempt to convert any "'publicans and sinners" who may be among you. My point is that we economists are all united and sure of our ground and always have been. But that we have not been listened to in America. This question has been the main issue off and on in national political campaigns. And the American people have decided it one way, then the other, and so on. They evidently do not know what they think.

But, come to think of it, why should they know what they think? And that brings me to my next point. The economists cannot do much for the American people unless the school teachers will help them. But in how many textbooks is there any sufficient treatment of the tariff question?

The most useful kind of history is the kind that leads up to great unsolved social and economic problems. And history ought to be taught up-and-down as well as across. When I was a boy, we learned everything that happened one year and then passed on to the next. Things learned together stuck together in memory whether they had any connection or not. In 1857 there were the hard times, the Dred Scott Decision, the Tariff of '57, and so on. Now a chronological study of history at the outset is necessary, but before he leaves the subject in the high school or even in the eighth grade the boy should have studied each great subject culminating in a big unsolved problem in tandem, up and down, from its first appearance to the present time. So with the tariff from 1789 to 1922.

In 1896 a new issue presented itself. It was the money question—the problem as to the free coinage of silver. How much did our people know of money and banking? Yet every principle of money of any consequence has been abundantly illustrated in our own history. But our boys and girls—our people—knew it not. They had to pick up their information during the months preceding the election as best they could. Stump-speakers were their school teachers, campaign books their textbooks. If the issue was decided aright, it was not because of anything the public schools had done for the voters when they were children. Yet it was our oldest, biggest money question simply in a slightly new form.

If we leave it to our boy to pick up his knowledge of labor-capital matters until after his school life, when he becomes affiliated himself either with one or with the other class, will he ever be able to balance up correctly the arguments for and against collective bargaining, for and against the closed shop.

Illinois is an important agricultural and industrial state. But Illinois retains the general property tax. Economists and schoolmasters together have never been able to teach her anything along this line. In its workings our general property tax is as bad as it can be, and is constantly getting worse. The fair cash value of realty is put down, upon the average, for about forty percent of what it is. Intangible property is hardly found at all for purposes of taxation. As to tangible personalty the situation is not much better. According to the official reports, Chicago has one clock or one watch for each thirteen acres. They have great trouble up there telling the time of day. They tell it by the position of the sun, or moon and stars, by when the whistle blows, or when the train goes. They have adopted daylight-saving time. That helps somewhat. Now, we have had tax commission reports galore. We have voted upon constitutional amendments—all in vain. The people will not vote upon the amendments proposed, and they lose for lack of a majority of all the votes cast at the election. And yet everybody is "kicking" about taxes. Every class thinks it is the class especially abused. Forty years ago an able tax commission declared our system "a school for perjury fostered by law." The Illinois State Teachers' Association, in an effort to enlighten its members, politicians, and the people generally, published and circulated a book of nearly 70 pages upon Taxation in Illinois. But we have gotten no results. A Proposed Constitution has been voted down. And still our people "kick." Even the example of other states, where economists have been listened to, has been of no avail.

The most terrible thing about all this is that we are losing here an unexampled opportunity to teach the most invaluable of lessons in democratic citizenship. When I was a youngster, we boys used to have a sort of volunteer fire company. If the fire bell rang, even in the dead of night, we boys scrambled out of bed and ran down to the engine house. We dragged out the old fire engine and pulled it off to where the fire was. We carried things out of the burning house, we pumped the near-by wells and cisterns dry in our efforts to put out the fire. And if I didn't crawl out when the bell rang—if I wasn't at a fire—although the other boys knew, of course, it was only because I had not heard the bell—then it was next to impossible for me to live through the next day at school. Life was miserable for me. Wearing a new pair of boots was happiness by comparison.

But nearly fifty years have passed. When the fire bell rings, I no longer tumble out of bed. I count the strokes of the bell, conclude that that fire

will not bother me, turn over, and go to sleep. And the next day nobody accuses me of not having done my duty. Nobody makes life miserable for me. How comes it? Am I no longer patriotic?

Fires are being attended to much more effectively than when I was a boy. While I sleep, trained men, men in rubber garments, men all the while on their jobs, with modern equipment, with a daring and skill that is marvelous, are working like tigers to extinguish that fire, to save the property and possibly lives of persons imperiled. They don't wait for me. They don't want me around. I should merely be in the way.

But my responsibility in these matters has not lessened. My duty to help put out fires is no less than it ever was. It is my duty, too, to help do scores of other things. I may rightly be asked to help care for the poor, for the insane, or to help police the streets, build the sewers, lay the water mains, build the hard roads, sweep the streets. Yet I cannot in person do these tasks. I am no policeman. The awful wailings of the insane would make me as crazy as they. I cannot wield a spade or a broom or mix concrete. But the states does not ask me to, directly and in person. In this day of specialization and cooperation the state does not want me to. The state expects of me just two things—the state expects me to pay my tax and to do my own job well. For taxpaying is an essential part of the greatest of all cooperations—the cooperation that is good citizenship, that is real democracy, that is civilization.

One of my good friends is much impressed by a writing of one of our economists upon "the forgotten man." Needless to say that this forgotten man is the taxpayer. But I should like to write something on "the man who forgets"—who, in my humble opinion, is also the taxpayer. In one of my classes in taxation one day we spent a few minutes making a list of the things that the taxpayer gets in return for his money. We had found 70 when the bell struck. I extended the list to 100 afterwards. It could have been made much longer. The little the state spends for me it spends ordinarily much better than I could expend it for myself.

In Illinois our state teachers' association three years in succession adopted a strenuous resolution calling for more social science in our schools. Only as we get it, can economists, with the aid of the teachers of the country, grapple effectively with the problems continually arising out of our industrial environment. We need the emphasis of the economic side of history and geography, arithmetic, and literature, both in the grades and in the high school. And in the high school, too, should be required of everybody, economics and sociology, or a year of general social science.

A year should be looked upon as a minimum requirement in these lines. Two years or even three years would not be unreasonable.

CONTRIBUTION TO AMERICAN LIFE BY THE TEACHERS OF VOCATIONS

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A non-parasitic citizenship, a supply of trained workmen to meet the demand, the utilization to the fullest extent of our national resources, and the conservation of both material and human resources, are fundamental in the development and maintenance of wholesome, national life. This is true in any form of national organization, but especially is it true in a great democracy like America.

The consummation of these desired ends demands:

1. A greater democratization of education. Our schools are called public schools, but only a small percent of those who enter go beyond the sixth grade. Public school education has been adapted to the needs of the few, not the many. Abilities, interests, aptitudes, and ambitions of more than 60 percent have been influenced to a very small extent by the schools. A nation like America, dependent for its very existence on the stability of its citizenship, requires that facilities for education be constantly present to meet the demands and needs of all. In other words, it calls for an educational organization to meet the aptitudes of the many, not the few.

2. New attitudes and ideals on the part of the public as to the real function of education.

The American people have not yet divorced themselves from the idea that education is to enable one to escape work, rather than to promote his efficiency to do a better piece of work. Parents still say "we send our children to school that they may never have to work as we have done." There is still a desire to rear children to escape hard work. This is probably not so true for work not involving manual labor, but it prevails in all types of activities. That is why businesses fail—it is the attempt at short cuts to success where neither brain nor hand has been experienced sufficiently to make a stable enterprise.

The function of the schools in education is not to train youth to escape work, but to train them to use their abilities, aptitudes and interests efficiently in worthwhile undertakings. Greater modification of the ideals and attitudes of the American people, therefore, toward the objectives of education as it relates to work must take place if the elements that contribute most largely to American life are brought to pass.

3. A greater appreciation of the social value of work. With changed ideals and attitudes as to the real function of education goes a third essential in developing wholesome national life in America, and that is a greater appreciation of the social value of work. It knits people together with common needs and interest, it makes for independence, self respect, appreciation of values, both individually and socially, and courage to meet emergencies. It is the people who are self-supporting, trained in at least one specific vocation, who do not lose courage in the face of industrial

crises. They are the ones who can be depended upon to carry the nation through economic stress and contribute most largely to the rehabilitation that will follow after periods of business and financial depression.

4. An expanded recognition on the part of school people of the contribution that can be made by laymen to the educational program.

As we extend our organized educational program beyond the pale of the small percent of youth who continue in elementary school, high school, and college, and open up facilities for educating adults and youth, who in the terms of schoolmen and women have "fallen by the wayside," we open up a new world and new conditions untouched in large part, heretofore, by the school organization. We, as school people, need much aid from laymen in developing the best kind of educational program for these youths and adults. The course of study and plans for work in public schools cannot be cut down and made over like father's trousers for Johnny, if we expect this undertaking to succeed. The program must be based on actual conditions and needs with which the school man is totally unfamiliar and the laymen must come to the rescue.

It is in the achievement of these means to the end of creating a citizenship of non-parasites, an ample supply of trained workmen for all types of vocations, the utilization of our national resources and conservation of both material and human products that the teacher of vocations makes his contribution to American life. He seeks the 60 percent of drop-outs as well as the 40 percent of stay-ins of the public schools, studying their special aptitudes and abilities, the responsibilities to be met in the vocation which they have already entered or seek to enter, and endeavors to train them to render larger service in this field. He creates attitudes and ideals in regard to the purpose of education, whether he be a teacher of law, medicine, teaching, carpentry, plumbing, or homemaking, and increases the number of those who regard education as having for its purpose the doing of work more effectively, rather than the escape from it altogether. Through his teaching, the youth and adult of the land have a higher regard for work of all kinds, whether of brain or hand, and refuse to become dependents of the state. Trained workmen are supplied to meet demands. Through the teacher of vocations, youths and adults are trained to handle material and human resources economically and effectively, and have a keener appreciation of the limits of supply and the great need for conservation.

In order to utilize the multitude of new inventions and discoveries that are rapidly emerging, it is necessary that new devices, new operations, and new methods be developed and disseminated as rapidly as possible. The teacher of vocations is a large contributing factor to this process.

The real teacher of vocations constantly has in mind and brings to those under his guidance, the triple aspect of producing, distributing, and consuming. These go hand in hand. Raw products are constantly consumed in production. Manufactured products are consumed in the institutions for which they are made. On the basis of consumption rather than production, does the home today claim a place in the ranks of vocations.

It is estimated that ten billion dollars are expended every year by the women of this country for home and family life. In this enormous expenditure girls and women need careful training that must be provided in the public schools. It is through their selection and purchase that standards of family and social life are determined, so fundamental to successful national life.

The teacher of homemaking is as truly a teacher of vocations as is the teacher of any wage-earning pursuit. The future of America depends upon the success with which the complex social and economic problems of today are solved; and most of these problems are closely connected with production, distribution, and consumption. All these are invaluable as contributions to American life.

The American teacher of vocations is training for selection, purchase, and wise utilization in production, distribution, and consumption, for the development of social and national standards in American life, and for wholesome social relationship in professions, in industry, in agriculture, and in the home.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO AMERICAN LIFE BY THE TEACHER OF GEOGRAPHY

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Geography is no longer cartography.

It has become the description of the earth as the home of man. It is an interpretation of life, in the various regions of the world, in terms of the air, land, and water of this planet. It is a combination of the former political, economic and physical geography—a scientific analysis of the interrelation of the human, plant, and animal activities and the various elements of natural environment, such as climate, soil and topography.

The time is fast approaching when the professional standing of an educational institution, be it elementary school, high school or college, will be measured in part by the standard of its work in geography. There are many reasons for this measuring stick.

Geography has come to play an important part in the economic and spiritual life of the world.

The teacher of geography acts as a clearinghouse of information. To her adults turn in considering possibilities for carrying on certain types of industries and in finding centers of recreation. In business life, trained geographers are employed as advisors in steel corporations, cotton farms, departments of agriculture and commerce, and in conducting economic surveys, such as that in Cincinnati. Through lectures to such organizations as women's clubs and men's service clubs, the teacher of geography is applying a geographic viewpoint to the analysis of national and international problems.

Education trains individuals how to earn a living, and how to make living more worth while. By means of the geography work, the teacher aids the pupil to acquire a basic knowledge of geography and to develop habits and skills that enable him to become a selfreliant worker, using the proper geographic tools in earning a living, and also in making living more worth while for himself and others. Every vocation has a definite geographic background and every trip taken as a means of recreation can produce broader results if it be taken "with geographic eyes." Through his geography work, the child also develops an attitude of "world mindedness," as applied to the local community, the state, the nation, and the world. Thus, the teacher of geography establishes a proper balance of emphasis in building courses of study by the careful distribution of local, state, national, and world geography.

Patriotism without geographic understanding based on uptodate facts and principles is mere froth, an effervescence that appears under stress of war but disappears when legislatures are in session and compromises on great national questions are considered. The north cannot live without the cotton of the south because the long, cold winters will not permit cotton to grow in the north. The west, with its mild, moist climate needs the bleaker east as a market. The south, with its climatic advantages, would starve without the market of the north.

The national citizens of the United States must know accurately how, and to what extent, the elements of natural environment are holding the different sections of our country together. He must be more than a citizen of California, of New York, or of Chicago. It is the teacher of geography who trains him to understand the interactions between the plant, animal, and human life and the elements of nature in each of the specific regions of the United States. There is no climate of the United States; there are many climates.

But this citizen, whom we, as teachers, are helping develop through education must know more than local, state, and national geography. He needs to understand why the people of the United States, living in the temperate forest belt, can no longer live unto ourselves economically. One need mention only a few of the tropical products, rubber, coffee, bananas; or a few of the cold region products, furs and minerals. He requires a knowledge of the earth, as organized into climatic belts, vegetation regions, topographic levels, soil regions, forest and water resource areas, and the geographic reasons for each type.

Only with this background can the citizen understand what is meant by economic independence. The teacher of geography supplies the technic and the tools whereby the student learns to see life from the world viewpoint.

What of the geography teacher's contribution to the spiritual life of our country? His privilege and responsibility is to introduce the child or adult to the great work of God as revealed in the mountains, plains, plateaus, equatorial forest, polar regions of the earth. But it is also his

responsibility to lead the students to understand the interrelations of diversified areas on each other and on man. Such understanding broadens one's vision; one's belief in an Almighty Power is strengthened by the understanding of and reverence for His handiwork. The teacher of geography brings close to the students these major aspects of the earth itself, so that we may be more grateful for the tremendous material advantages that we, in the United States, have over many other sections of the world. Moreover, these students are led to speculate regarding the probable future influences of these young mountains, valleys, dry deserts, and tropics, not merely on human activity but also on animal and plant production.

The teacher of geography interests others also in the relation of natural environment both to the economic and to the cultural life of the various people; to their art, music, literature and ethics. The climate of northern Europe, for example, determines the Gothic arch in architecture, and sparse rainfall dictates the shape of the Bedouin's tent!

Our Hell was conceived as a place of intense heat but it suited the Norseman for his Heaven. The Tibetan form of marriage is reasonable in Tibet, but it would not be tolerated in the United States.

Thus, the teacher of geography contributes to American life a background of knowledge of interrelations between life activities and elements of natural environments. This knowledge develops in students a longing to know the truth about the earth and its people and other resources so that they may say, with Edna St. Vincent Millay:

The world stands out on either side
No wider than the heart is wide;
Above the world is stretched the sky,
No higher than the soul is high.
The heart can push the sea and land
Farther away on either hand;
The soul can split the sky in two,
And let the face of God shine through.
But East and West will pinch the heart
That cannot keep them pushed apart;
And he whose soul is flat—the sky,
Will cave in on him by and by.

CONTRIBUTION OF THE TEACHER OF LITERATURE TO AMERICAN LIFE

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The first and most utilitarian among the contributions that the teacher of literature may make to the enrichment of American life is the development of vocabulary. In order to think the widest range of thought and to think these thoughts with the sharpness of discrimination that is the crowning glory of human thinking, every person should have a large vocabulary. The newest dictionaries list more than 450,000 words. The man who runs down the columns of the dictionary and does not recognize one word in nine, or

a total of 50,000, is intellectually poor. Each of us has a "home vocabulary" of about five thousand words. All of the rest of the fifty thousand or more we must acquire from various outside sources. All studies will, of course, enrich vocabulary, but literature makes the largest single contribution, and it is a vitalized vocabulary that literature contributes; furthermore, familiarity with literature gives phrasal power to some degree at least. The teacher of literature cooperates best with the teacher of rhetoric and composition when he develops in the student some capacity for feeling what Keats called "the intoxication of the fine phrase."

Without some familiarity with the best in English and American literature the speech of our nation would inevitably tend more and more toward dialect and provincialism. The one thing that maintains unity in the speech of the Anglo-Saxon race is the fact that we have as our common heritage a long line of literary treasure from Hamlet to *The Scarlet Letter*.

In the refining and humanizing of American life the influence of literature can perhaps scarcely be overestimated. There are certain arts and art products that have as their special field of activity that refining, sensitizing, and disciplining of the emotions that we sum up in our word culture, but only one of these humanizing agencies was effective among our pioneer ancestors. Our forefathers were virile men, capable and ambitious, but in general coarse-fibred. A gentler race with finer culture must have failed in the rude struggle for existence. These pioneers came into a land "where the king's writs could not run," and their only protection lay in the uplifted hand ever ready to smite, and in the quick finger upon the hair trigger of the rifle. To this overmastering stock pictorial art and statuary art were non-existent, because these frontier people never saw statues or pictures, music existed for them only in its simplest and crudest forms, significant architecture never once beckoned to them. Literature was the only one of these refining influences that found its way into the wilderness with them. The pioneers had but few books, but fortunately some of these were the works of the masters or were made up of extracts from the masterpieces of the world's literature. The pioneer boy, Abraham Lincoln, ragged and uncouth was rich in the possession of a copy of Shakespeare's plays. The sonorous phrasings of the King James version of the Bible, and the purple patches constituting the extracts from literature making up the old McGuffey's Reader, the National Reader, and the elocutionary selections of the day; these all combined to "intenerate the granite" of the national character.

One of the ministries of literature is "to make the world seem less forlorn and life more like a holiday"; to "other us," to transport us, to lift us out of ourselves, to dull the heartache or at least to rose tint the gray skies of sordid everyday life that shut us in, and to stir within us vicariously a sense of romance. The merchant, the carpenter, the farm boy, each of us may fare forth with the hero and heroine of long ago

Where cool and broad the waters run
Through leagues on leagues of poplars gray,
Beneath the veiled soft southern sun
May wander forth of yesterday;

Go Maying in that ancient May
Whose fallen flowers are fragrant yet,
And linger by the fountain spray
With Aucassin and Nicolette.

The pages of literature are rich with pictures that reflect the beauty of the objective world, and, better still, beauty in the moral world; this leads to the highest function in literature and to the noblest work of the teacher of literature, the setting up of ideals. The Greeks placed in the gynaeceum, the intimate rooms of parents and children, the glorious forms of sculpture that Greek art created; so that in moments of joy or grief, of passion or of pain, the parents and children alike might see before them those matchless forms, forms so perfect that life itself seems to throb through the lucent marble; to the end that the child might somehow grow to be like these serenely beautiful images of the human form divine. With a skilful teacher literature may serve a like purpose in moulding the spiritual nature.

THE POLICY OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION TOWARDS PRIVATE FOUNDATIONS AND OTHER NATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

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It is thought best to treat the two parts of this topic in the reverse order to that in which they are given. In dealing with the second part, "other national organizations," it is understood that these organizations are educational in their bearing and that they have a national influence. There, are, however, many educational organizations which though sectional in name have a very definite national bearing. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is such an organization, for since its beginning in 1896 it has steadfastly widened its field until it has become national in influence because its standards are accepted by like organizations throughout the United States.

Besides such cases, each state, with one or two exceptions, has its own educational association which is related to and affiliated with each other state association and with the National Association in such a way that it too is national in its scope.

If we omit such organizations as these, however, there are still, in Bulletin 16, for 1926, of the Bureau of Education, entitled "A Handbook of Educational Associations and Foundations in the United States," listed sixty-three organizations containing within their titles the word "American," such as American Association of Junior Colleges which leads one to believe that they consider their missions national in scope. Besides in the statement of its purpose the organization referred to extends its field to include all junior colleges without regard to their locations.

There are eighty other educational organizations each of which con-

tains in its title the word "National." This indicates that the group extends its field to the whole United States and purposes to work therein.

In this same bulletin are listed fifteen foundations and two funds each of which is nationally interested in some phase of education or educational investigation.

We have, therefore, over one hundred fifty national organizations working in some portion of the field of education in the United States, and yet only seventeen educational organizations of any sort are listed as affiliated or having a definite cooperative relation with the National Education Association. These are: Department of Elementary School Principals; Department of Superintendence; National Council of Education; Department of Adult Education; Department of Business Education; Department of Classroom Teachers; Department of Deans of Women; Department of Kindergarten Education; Department of Music Education; Department of Rural Education; Department of School Health and Physical Education; Department of Science Instruction; Department of Secondary School Principals; Department of Social Studies; Department of Visual Instruction; Department of Vocational Education; and the American Association of Teachers Colleges. Thus not more than one in ten of the national organizations to promote education is affiliated with our organization nor are the two hundred fifty sectional organizations, except the state associations mentioned in the beginning, so related to it that there is any working basis between it and them. Neither has there been any definite attempt to establish any cooperative relationship between this association and the various foundations included in the group mentioned.

It would seem that many if not all organizations working in the common cause of education ought to be affiliated in some rather intimate way in this work and that the National Education Association ought to have some helpful policy towards them. On the other hand this relationship ought not to be such that this association would seem to dictate to any educational organization either as to its scope or purpose and procedure nor should this association be in any way placed in the position of having any other organization, even though engaged in educational work, hamper its activities, restrict its field or thwart its plans. Whatever relationships do exist should be for the common good of both organizations.

Some notion of the present policy can be reached if we examine into the relationship which the National Education Association has developed with such educational organizations as have been willing to affiliate with it.

It has permitted its own departments to hold their meetings when they desired and where they preferred. It has allowed them to study such topics and publish such findings as seemed to meet the needs of these departments while promoting their best interests. It has granted these departments the privilege of prescribing their qualifications for membership and setting the fees therefor. All have exercised their own initiatives in directing the work of their departments.

As a member of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and as its present secretary I think I can show to some degree the policy of the National Education Association towards the organizations which are affiliated with it by explaining the working plan which has been developed between it and the organization which I represent.

The American Association of Teachers Colleges is the outgrowth of an organization which was started among the normal school presidents of the north central states about twenty-five years ago. Only four or five presidents were interested in the organization which they called "The Council" at first, but their enthusiasm soon attracted others to membership and the organization came to include most of the presidents of normal schools and teachers colleges in the north central section of the United States. The organization was called "The North Central Council of Normal School Presidents" and still the National Education Association took little or no note of its existence for it was not a national organization. The organization, however, grew rapidly and extended its territory until about ten years ago when it adopted the name "National Council of Normal School Presidents and Principals." Even this organization had little recognition from the National Education Association except the expression of a kindly educational approval for its field was not developed and its purpose was not very clear although this was being rapidly formulated.

About this time there began the very rapid development of state teachers colleges and their presidents while members of the National Council of Normal School Presidents and Principals organized a smaller group among themselves and later called this group "The American Association of Teachers Colleges." This latter organization rapidly increased in size and at Cleveland in 1923 after a joint committee had developed a plan the National Council of Normal School Presidents and Principals and the American Association of Teachers Colleges were combined under the name of the latter.

During this growth and this transition into a national movement the National Education Association had continued its friendly educational attitude and during the latter days had made indirect advances towards affiliation, but it remained for the individual members of the American Association of Teachers Colleges to bring about a little closer relationship by an appeal to the National Education Association for consideration by one of the departments of the National Education Association. This was at the time when the Department of Superintendence showed a tendency to refuse membership to educators not actively engaged in public school administration accompanied by a further tendency to discourage any other organizations from holding their meetings at the same time and place with their own annual meeting unless all were members of the Department of Superintendence.

The American Association of Teachers Colleges and its predecessors had adopted the plan of holding its annual meeting on the two days preceding the meeting of the Department of Superintendence and many of the presi-

dents desired to remain and attend the meeting of the superintendents, too. Hence these presidents and the American Association of Teachers Colleges were disturbed by these tendencies on the part of the Department of Superintendence, but the whole matter was very easily adjusted through the good offices of the National Education Association so that the American Association of Teachers Colleges holds its annual meeting as has been its custom and such of its members as desire take active membership in the Department of Superintendence and secure all of the benefits of that organization.

This incident, however, made the National Education Association more aware of the American Association of Teachers Colleges and its aims and showed the American Association of Teachers Colleges the value of more friendly educational and administrative relations with the National Education Association so that later it was not very difficult for the American Association of Teachers Colleges to be persuaded that it would be to its advantage to become a department of the National Education Association.

It became about finally in this way: The secretary of the National Education Association set forth to the American Association of Teachers Colleges through its secretary what his association could do for the latter association and what advantage this would be to the former. He explained that the National Education Association has research experts for some of its departments now and that it is willing to use these experts insofar as their time will permit or employ additional experts to work on problems of mutual interest to the two associations and adjust the cost equitably to the two associations. He further stated that if the American Association of Teachers Colleges had a major problem of research which did not have a bearing on the problems of the National Education Association he would still be glad to have the American Association of Teachers Colleges employ its own research workers and either add them to the research department of the National Education Association or permit them to confer with this department for advice based on its unusual experience.

Another point of interest lies in the fact that as a department of the National Education Association the American Association of Teachers Colleges is entitled to have the proceedings of its annual meetings published in the *Proceedings* of the National Education Association and thus get additional publicity for these proceedings, but it can also put them out bound separately as its own yearbook at about two thirds the cost of an independent effort since the same "set up" answers the purpose of the National Education Association as well as its own.

Still another point of value lies in the publicity which the American Association of Teachers Colleges gets for itself and its programs through the publicity work of the National Education Association. Its programs are announced in the *Journal* and reports of its meetings are carried in this journal. Its programs may be printed with the programs for the Department of Superintendence along with the programs of all affiliated organizations which meet at that time. Through the publicity department

each day's program as presented at the annual meeting may be given to the press and published throughout the country.

Furthermore through this plan of affiliation the American Association of Teachers Colleges and its program are sponsored by an organization whose membership is given in hundred thousands while its own membership is but one hundred fifty.

Why such magnanimity on the part of the National Education Association? This Association is working in general in behalf of education. Its officers and management are pledged to the promotion of all that is good in education in this country. Its membership is largely composed of men and women who have been trained in these teachers colleges and like institutions and who themselves are interested in education in its every aspect. They are members of the National Education Association because they are volunteers in the army of teachers fighting for a better education of the youth of this country that these youths as our successors may bring a higher type of citizenship to this nation. Such a policy therefore towards a type of education like that promoted by the teachers colleges of the United States engenders confidence in the organization administering that policy, increases its membership and in turn empowers it to more fully promote its policy and justify its existence.

This is not the only example which could be cited. There are other departments of the National Education Association whose experience and final affiliation are even more interesting but I am not so familiar with them. There are, too, many other organizations like the American Association of Teachers Colleges whose primary problems or fields are of an educational type which is closely correlated with the problems and varied fields of this association and they too should join us in this movement to unify and solidify educational effort. Certainly the following organizations are a few of them that could be so affiliated if their titles and avowed purposes indicate at all their missions:

The Child Study Association of America
The American Child Health Association
The American School Citizenship League
The National Child Welfare Association
The National Committee on Research in Secondary Education
The National Council of Primary Education

In passing it may be in place to remark that the titles of the many educational organizations listed in the Bulletin elsewhere referred to in this paper indicate that there is much overlapping of their fields and probably some dissipation of effort. I believe we might bring much better results if all educational organizations combined in a single colossal drive upon one or more of the strategic points which must be captured before education can march forward unmolested.

Who shall advise or attempt this consolidation of effort? May not the National Education Association at least offer its council chambers for a

conference in this direction with a hope that all educational effort may direct itself to the end that the battle for education may be more decisive and have fewer educational casualties.

One other form of educational organization needs special consideration in connection with the policy of the National Education Association. I refer to that group of organizations commonly called foundations. From the standpoint of their educational purpose the policy of this association towards them may readily be the same that it has been towards its own departments as described above. That is, from this standpoint the policy of this organization towards them may well be friendly, cooperative and supervisory. But from the standpoint of their financial support and sometimes from the standpoint of the personnel of their administrative bodies it may be necessary to vary the policy somewhat.

The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching states its purpose as follows: "To do and perform all things necessary to encourage, uphold, and dignify the profession of the teacher and the cause of higher education." It provides retiring allowances and pensions for teachers. Its management is vested in twenty-five trustees, eminent in education or other public service. This statement of the purpose of this foundation as well as the provision for its administration gives conclusive evidence that it intends to enter a field where the National Education Association may well lend a hand and offer every encouragement. If however, it should turn out that this foundation is maintained by funds secured by the unscrupulous oppression of men and women unable to defend themselves, which funds are offered as a peace offering to the educational public while oppression from which they come grows ever less endurable, then the policy of this association towards the Carnegie Foundation might with propriety become unfriendly and condemnatory if not one of open warfare. It is my opinion that happily no such cause for an unfavorable attitude on the part of this association exists nor does any other condition obtain such as to debar the most friendly relations so far as I am personally aware.

Nevertheless if it should happen at any time that the Carnegie Foundation should offer an unusual salary to a member of this association on condition that he should obtain an appointment at the hands of this association to head a committee to do research work of one type or another for this association we might well ask ourselves whether the acceptance of such a salary will leave our member unhindered and unafraid in his search for the truth. In fact if a foundation offers funds for any purpose but puts restrictions on the offer the restrictions must be analyzed carefully before the funds or the offer are accepted.

If a foundation desires to express its confidence in our association or its membership as such it would be more expressive it seems to me if that foundation were to give funds outright to this association to carry on research work in a field which may be prescribed by the foundation but without further restriction as to the persons who shall do the work or

the findings they may publish. This association must conduct its own affairs and its members as such must be responsible to it alone.

The purpose of the General Education Board is given as this: "To promote education within the United States without distinction of race, sex, or creed." This is an undertaking in which this association might well join hands with the General Education Board. But if in the personnel of the administrative body of that board which publishes reports, studies and occasional papers on phases of education there are men and women unfriendly to public education, these reports, studies and papers may show distorted diagnoses and prescribe surgical operations which will maim the victim when his case needs only rest, fresh air, wholesome food, and warm sunshine.

Some would try to refute the above statement by affirming at once that such reports, studies and papers are the result of scientific investigations and that a scientist discovers the same facts whether he be friendly or unfriendly to the subject of his investigation. This affirmation is in large measure true, but even so, a correct diagnosis stating the ailment is the important thing in the case in order that the proper prescription may be written and administered. But diagnosis is a personal reaction to a set of facts or conditions, and personal reactions depend upon the attitudes of the diagnostician towards the facts or conditions at hand.

To illustrate the point I desire to make, let me suggest this: A physician is called in to visit a sick child. He discovers the child's temperature, the rapidity of his pulse, the redness of his throat, the flush of his skin, the coat on his tongue and likewise his blood pressure. He diagnoses the case as measles and prescribes the proper treatment for measles. After much delay the child begins to show slight improvement and later recovers but to a neighbor who has taken four children through attacks of scarlet fever the scales from the skin of this child revealed the fact that he too had scarlet fever and not the measles.

It is only fair to say that the symptoms for measles and scarlet fever are much the same, but had a physician who was familiar with scarlet fever and therefore sympathetic with its victim examined the above case he would have diagnosed it as scarlet fever and at the same time he would have warned of the possibility of deafness as a resultant evil which later developed in the above case as a further evidence of the actual ailment and an incorrect diagnosis.

To be clear, then, an educational illness needs an educational expert familiar with and sympathetic towards educational maladies in order that a proper diagnosis may be given and a specific treatment prescribed. Furthermore, when a weakness is apparent in elementary education an expert in elementary education should be called to analyze this weakness, discover the location of the focal infection, tell why it is present and outline an educational procedure which will overcome the weakness by killing the infection, after which he will prescribe a procedure which will cure the malady and prevent its recurrence. It is better still to call in a group of

experts in elementary education for a consultation concerning the weakness for the sake of checking one against the other in determining the cause of this weakness and the proper treatment.

But what has all of this to do with the policy of the National Education Association towards a foundation? Just this. If a foundation is humanly just and sympathetically administered from an educational viewpoint the National Education Association should have a policy to encourage it, assist it, and secure its affiliation in carrying out the purpose of the National Education Association which is stated as follows: To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States.

On the other hand educational surveys, inspections and investigations conducted by the foundations or supported by philanthropic funds should have no approval by this association, nor should it in any way participate in such surveys, inspections, and investigations unless they are conducted by educational experts fully in sympathy with the educational agencies which are being examined and even then they who plan these investigations should do so by invitation or with the hearty approval of the administrators of these agencies. Furthermore, such investigations should be carried out only to secure a basis for constructive criticism and helpful advice. When this is the purpose of any educational investigation the National Education Association may well encourage and support it with its funds and forces.

Before concluding this paper it seems well to state that the policy here outlined and suggested has not been submitted to the officers of this association for their approval, nor should it be considered as more than the view of one who has given some rather careful consideration to existing relations, after which he ventured, what has seemed to him, some plausible suggestions.

Finally then it seems to me that the policy of the National Education Association towards other national organizations, foundations and funds interested in the various phases of national education ought to be one of helpfulness and encouragement leading to affiliation if by careful discernment they are found to be in the hands of conservative, sympathetic friends of education who hope to improve the type of education we have now, or even develop a higher type of education than the one now being promoted, by helpful and constructive criticism whereby the weakness and strength of our educational system are treated in a kindly but relentless spirit with respect to the product of this system as shown in its general citizenship, its moral, religious and educational leaders and its legislative, executive and judicial bodies. But any organization, foundation or fund which has for its purpose anything unsympathetic to our educational ideal or anyone in its administrative body unfriendly to public education at public expense, to the end that every boy and girl in this republic may have his or her unimpeded opportunity in the great adventure of citizenship,

ought to be discouraged, condemned and if necessary fought without quarter by this association.

We can only maintain our moral selfrespect as an association by upholding our educational ideals with the same firmness and devotion we have given a nation in the promotion of our national ideals. The responsibility of this association has multiplied with every step onward in the work it has taken up and with every new field it has entered. May its policy ever be such that it may always fulfill its responsibility to public education as a national safeguard to our institutional life during our prodigious experiment to demonstrate that a democracy of some type is the only form of government which can survive through the ages.

THE POLICY OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION TOWARDS FEDERAL LEGISLATION

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I am very grateful indeed to the President of the Association, not only for what he has said this morning, but for all the kind things he has said and done throughout the twelve months of his administration. I think Dr. Blair came at a time when we needed him very much. Everything he has said and done regarding our legislative work has advanced the cause.

Dr. Davidson will tell you about the situation regarding the Education Bill in Congress so I shall pass over that portion of the report. More work was done in the field last year than during any other year in which I have served you. I spent 150 days in the field and traveled 20,000 miles. Thirty-eight visits were made to 23 states, in other words, 61 visits were made to 40 cities. The headquarters of 15 state associations were visited. Thirty meetings of state associations were attended and one or more addresses were made at these meetings. During that time many valuable contacts were made and the follow-up work was done, which is a necessary part of field work.

A great mass of literature has been printed and distributed almost wholly upon request. Ninety-six thousand pamphlets were sent out into every state in the union, and nearly 20,000 letters were sent to individuals. State-wide debates were conducted in high schools and colleges in 31 states, and an effort is now being made to check up on those debates to find out the number of people who heard them, how the decisions came out and what the general advertising effect was.

Dr. MacCracken in his report to the American Council on Education not long ago stated that these debates probably were the most valuable publicity the bill has had, and that if the Congress of the United States does not soon pass this bill, there will be growing up in due time in America a large body of young women and men who will be thoroughly convinced as to the merits of this legislation and who will themselves demand its passage

During the five years that I have served the National Education Association at Washington and in the field I have learned at least two or three very definite things. One of the things which all of the legislative workers in Washington, representing great national organizations like ours have learned is that resolutions and statements have lost their force and effect. It no longer makes any impression on Congress to have your secretary or some other secretary representing some other national association, appear at a hearing and present a very fine statesmanlike statement in support of a piece of legislation which they say has been endorsed by a million or more men and women. Congressmen immediately want to know how many of these men and women believe in the legislation under consideration, how many of them have made it their own, how many of them are willing to stand by it, how many are willing to fight for it in their own respective congressional districts.

We have learned among other things that a resolution is not the end of work for legislative measures, but only the beginning of it. The endorsement of a bill by a local, state, or national organization, to my mind, simply gives to the members of that organization the right to go out in the name of the organization and begin to work for it.

I have learned, too, that there are a great many friends of the Education Bill in Congress, men who really want to vote for it. Some of them have told me that the educators in their districts were opposed to the bill. Others have told me that in the final analysis they were going to depend upon the judgment of the educators in their districts. I am the last person in the world to censure a congressman who hesitates to do anything for us before we ourselves decide what we want. I have no illusions about the public; neither have these Congressmen. They expect us to champion our own cause and to do the educational work with the laity in their districts, so it may be somewhat safe for them to vote for the Education Bill. I think that this is a fair position for them to take, and I am in sympathy with them.

I have also learned some things regarding conditions in the field in these last five years. When I joined the headquarters staff, it was the desire of the Executive Committee that the program of the National Education Association be promoted among the laity of the nation. With that in view I have traveled far and wide attending conventions of national organizations that have endorsed our bill with the purpose of encouraging them to go forward in their work for the measure. A constant effort has been made to enlist the support of national organizations until today there are 29 such groups supporting the movement for a federal Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. I am told too often by members of local organizations that they would like to go forward with the work for the bill but that the superintendent of schools is not interested or perhaps he is actually opposed to the bill. In some cases it may be the school principal who discourages the work of the local organi-

zation. Those things are not to our credit. Not a great while ago, I turned back at the end of a long field trip to visit a city with the understanding that I was to talk to a thousand or more teachers on the Education Bill. When I arrived I was requested to change my subject. I was told that I might, in the course of my talk, mention the Education Bill, but the injunction was to sort of slip up on the blind side of the teachers, as it were. It seems to me that after having talked this idea for nearly seventy-five years, it is time for us to take our stand and turn our faces in the direction in which we are going and move forward.

Now, there are a few obstacles in the way. I have enumerated some of them. Advocating and believing in the Education Bill, but hoping somebody else will step in and do the job, will not get us anywhere. There is great hope in some quarters that some strategy will be played at Washington whereby this measure will be catapulted to success. Some of our people are looking for the sensational to take place. Rome was not built in a day and neither will the Education Bill be put over over-night. In my judgment this measure is not the kind that can be passed by sensational methods. I firmly believe that the only thing that will count in the long run is the educational work which is persistently and courageously done day by day in its behalf.

I find in some places an exaggerated fear of opposition on the part of newspapers. I do not know what there is so deadly about a half column of print. As a matter of fact we are getting a great deal of newspaper and magazine support. I have sent you cartoons and editorials in letters to show you how newspapers from San Diego to Atlanta, and from Boston to Seattle, have supported this legislation. Even if some editor does write some things that are not true about the Education Bill, we can at least take hope from the fact that no editor wastes a half column of his precious space to fight a dead or dying cause.

What are the grounds for hope? They are many. I firmly believe we have made more progress this year than we have made in the past ten years. Some people will not agree with that, I know. If we simply grasp the opportunities that are ours, we can make more progress during the next two years than we have made in the past fifty. The greatest ground for hope that we have is the educational machinery which has been practically set up since the Education Bill was introduced in Congress. At that time the National Education Association had less than eight thousand members. We did not own a square foot of property anywhere. We had something like four or five members of the headquarters staff. We moved our valuable records in a wheelbarrow from the building which we rented to the building which we bought—that picture and that story are portrayed in Mr. Crabtree's report which you have, and which I hope you will read. Today the National Education Association has a membership of one hundred seventy-five or eighty thousand. I hesitate to predict what the increase in membership will be next year, for fear I might put it too low.

I know many of us believe that the membership will grow by leaps and bounds in the next twelve months. When this bill was introduced in Congress there were only 4 states with full-time secretaries. Today there are 34 state associations well organized with an executive secretary at work twelve months in the year. Each of these executive offices publishes a journal which keeps the entire membership informed as to the policies of the association. In addition, through facilities for publicity, the laity of the state is kept constantly informed as to the progress of education within the state. There is being set up within the states through the state association an organization whose chief function is to advance the interests of the Education Bill. Some of this state machinery is new and needs oiling to eliminate the squeaks. Some of it has little power of pick-up, and some of it just starts and stops. Our great task now is to develop these state organizations and to assist them in their work for the Education Bill, for the state associations include in their membership three-fourths of all the nation's teachers.

With that idea in view I made a long field trip in September, visiting the headquarters of 15 associations to talk this matter over with the secretaries or presidents or any other officers I met at the time. The result of that field trip was the calling of a meeting of the secretaries at Washington in December, at which nineteen states were represented and many others responded with encouraging letters. The meeting endorsed a plan which revolved around the central idea that "education must precede legislation"; education first of our own membership, so that we may talk intelligently about the bill at a dinner table, at a card club, at a theatre party, at a Rotary club, at a faculty meeting, or at a state, local, or national convention. I hope that the time has come when we may rise in our places when misstatements are made about the bill, and say, "Mr. Chairman, the speaker no doubt is sincere and believes what he has said about the Education Bill, but I wish to stand here now and inform him that his statements are not true. This is what the Education Bill says, this is what it does." If an editor of one of your local papers has published misstatements about the Education Bill, intentionally or otherwise, a thousand letters of protest on his desk the next morning will tend to change materially or soften his point of view. When the teachers of the nation become fully assured as to the needs for a federal Department of Education, all of the things that I have enumerated will be done in its behalf.

The state associations were asked to name a chairman to take charge of the work in the various states for we believed that a local chairman would know the conditions in his state and how to proceed with the work for the bill. The plan of work which has been generally accepted suggested the appointment of a congressional district chairman, who in turn would appoint a county chairman. Each county chairman is expected to appoint a county committee, made up not only of educators but a great cross section of men and women living in his locality. We feel sure that when we

have educated ourselves we can and will educate the laity, and when that is done we shall get action on the bill.

What we really need is some of the old spirit of the suffrage campaign. Many women of this convention are familiar with that historic struggle. I know something of what took place, because I was privileged to fight one battle for suffrage. When the campaign was won the little handful of suffragists were but a drop in the bucket compared with this organization and this group of people here today, and what they represent. For seventy years those people fought for that principle, never faltering when victory seemed far away. They did not say when they started out, "We shall work ten years for this movement and if it has not gone over at the end of that time, we shall give up." They did not say when they had interviewed their congressmen once or twice or four times or ten times that there was no use, and therefore they would not try again. I have heard Mrs. Catt say on a number of public occasions that there were many times in the campaign when they seemed to be up against a stone wall and that there seemed to be no way out of their difficulty, but she added with her characteristic smile, "We always did something."

I want teachers in this great campaign to have the same thrill when the Education Bill is passed which I got from having struck one blow in my state for the ratification of the suffrage amendment. To have been a part, a very small part, in that great forward movement for women and for our country did something to me, it did something for me that I shall prize all the days of my life.

I saw something in that Minnesota stunt which I am sure nobody else in this room saw. It symbolized to me the state organization for the Education Bill in Minnesota. That big giant of a man who stood in the center is the chairman for the Education Bill in Minnesota, C. H. Barnes, of Duluth; on the right was J. M. McConnell, the commissioner of education, and on the left W. F. Webster, the superintendent of Minneapolis, and supported on the right flank and on the left flank and to the rear by the other superintendents of the state, the normal school presidents, the college teachers, members of the department of education, high school principals, state directors, the secretary of the association, county superintendents, and classroom teachers from all over the state.

I do not think there is a person in this room that doubts for one moment if this group which appeared here this morning should get behind the Education Bill in Minnesota the Minnesota delegates in Congress would seek the opportunity to support this bill.

There are now forty-seven states organized to do just that piece of work. We hope to have the forty-eight states fully organized before Congress convenes in December. I do not doubt, and never have doubted for one moment, that the Education Bill supported by such an organization will be passed in due time.

THE POLICY OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION TOWARDS FEDERAL LEGISLATION

WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PITTSBURGH, PA.,
CHAIRMAN OF THE LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION

As I stand struggling for a moment to get my bearings upon what I might best and most profitably say, so as to avoid wasting your time, I find my mind still hanging upon the words of introduction spoken by the president of this great Association.

When he drafted me for this position I felt possibly that he knew as well as I that he was making a tremendous mistake. I knew how highly he regarded Dr. Strayer, for he had revealed that fact to me, but never in my life had I been so puzzled as to what to do as when his letter came saying he was not appointing me, that he was drafting me. I pondered over the matter thoughtfully, and then took the train to New York City for an interview with the chairman of the Legislative Commission.

When I looked George Strayer in the eye I said to him, "Dr. Blair is making a terrible mistake, but I want to know if I should bring myself to undertake such a responsible position in the affairs of the Association; whether you feel you can work with me on this Commission as a member in the future as I have tried in my way to work with you." His reply was generous as is characteristic of him, and his pledge of support was so complete and wholesouled that I went back home and wired Dr. Blair, "I accept your challenge to take up the chairmanship, on the condition that you shall have a committee that will represent the best ideals of the Association and that it shall be made in its appointment as broad as the nation and as independent as the profound thinking of this body on this question when it finally reaches its conclusions, to see to it that the Congress of the United States is to do its duty in placing a Secretary on the Ship of State to stimulate education in America."

And now I had prepared a line of thought, but like you I have thrown more speeches into the discard and into the scrap pile than I ever have been able to deliver. Just now, called to the wing, a special request was made upon me, which seemed so sincerely to represent a conviction of the membership of this body, that I feel impelled and compelled to place the icon on the anvil and with hammer forge out a speech in this presence that will meet the wishes put to me just now in the wing. And the question put to me is, "What is the federal bill, about which we have been writing and about which we have been talking? What are its details?"

So much has been said and so much has been written in the past and so much has been spoken upon bills that have been before this body and before Congress that a resultant confusion is evident at this time, even in the minds of many members occupying seats as delegates upon this floor. Fundamentally let me say that over and above all, this bill is part of a great national program of education which focuses upon the most important

living object in America today, the child enroled in the public schools and in all the schools of the land.

Twenty-three years ago I sat on a platform similar to this with the then great president of the Association—God bless his memory—William H. Maxwell of New York. On the morning of the 5th of July, in the big auditorium where sat a large assemblage of the teachers of the republic, he introduced in his brief fashion, indeed almost monosyllabic fashion, the great speaker who had come down from the seat of the nation's capital, to inspire and uplift the teachers of America assembled on that occasion. When William H. Maxwell said, "Ladies and Gentlemen, the President of the United States," there stepped forward that most vital force known to America in half a century; and in true characteristic Rooseveltian fashion he shot out through his teeth this sentence: "Teachers, unless your work be done well this republic cannot last beyond the span of a generation." He made a plea for unity of action, for the creation of a solidarity of organization and a unifying of the spirit of America, in terms of essential instruction that would make for the perpetuation of this republic. He sent us home inspired and uplifted and rebaptized with a higher and better spirit to do our duty a little better for the great cause of citizenship in America, to meet the trust which God had placed in our hands in the terms of the boys and girls and the youth enroled in the schools of our land. On that occasion it seemed to me the great President forecast in his magnificent utterances as they fell from his lips the day when we should be lifted from the chaotic type of organization which then existed in this great body to the time when we should have a body of men and women representing the teachers who have paid-up membership in this Association and those who lie outside the line of paid-up membership.

My first word to you in response to this challenge from the wing is that you in your enlarged feeling, in your enlarged spirit, represent not 200,000 people here today, but all the men and women of the United States of America engaged in the biggest calling known to the nation and known to the world, even in terms of investment, but as Kipling says, "That is another question upon which I shall not touch."

This bill differs in its purpose from earlier bills. There was a time when this body stood first for a Secretary in the President's cabinet, whose function and whose duties should be dignified in a way comparable with the duties of the other members of the President's official family, and in addition to that, step out boldly into the field as during the war when we were feeling the stress of the call upon the public in every locality in America, and say, "We not only believe as a national body in local taxation, but we believe in state aid for the promotion of the great state public school systems of America. We not only believe in that, but we believe the time has come—why, it is here—when the nation should be challenged through Congress to make liberal and adequate appropriation to the states of the American union, to be distributed properly in accordance with the pro-

visions of a just and proper law." One hundred million dollars was inserted as an appropriation to be made by Congress to the cause of public education in America.

So heavily was the call for funds being made on my own state of Pennsylvania that we were paying into the treasury \$750,000,000 a year in war taxes and I suppose we paid more than any other state in the union except New York. What was effecting Pennsylvania was effecting every other state in this union proportionately and the wealth of each respective state. It is no wonder that the schoolmen of the Nation at that time felt that there must be a national appropriation to overcome this tremendous local drain.

I know not whether there are men and women in this audience who are still thinking that those provisions lie in the present bill, but I do know it is almost impossible to get into conversation with a layman anywhere who does not immediately say, "I am opposed to national appropriation for the support of the local schools of the state. I am opposed to centralized authority in Washington when it comes to the local schools of America." Then I have to say to him, "God bless you, that is just what I am opposed to; that is just what the teachers of America are now opposed to, whether they know it or not, because they ask no such thing. They have gone far enough to sluff off that argument. The war has passed, taxes are being reduced, the pressure is not so great that we need to be alarmed with regard to the money going to the national treasury from the citizens of the states. Furthermore we, like you as a layman, are bitterly opposed to any type of federal control that will destroy the spirit of the free, tax-supported schools of America. For be it known that while we have no national system of education in terms of actual organization, we have it in terms of the spirit, which is represented by this great body here. The department of education will only come, if it ever comes, by the enrichment of the spirit, which we already have, which makes for a national spirit and a national ideal and a national appreciation, a national support in terms of local and state taxation for these great forty-eight state school systems that comprise the mightiest and the finest school systems set up on the globe anywhere among the nations of the world."

What was the organization in the beginning? Why the national government practically said, "Hands off in the control of the education of our children. We will leave that to Pennsylvania and to Washington and to Texas and to California, and say to you as states, 'Make of it the best thing you can.'" And so California, Washington, Texas, have been working on that problem to glorify her childhood. It was out of the faith and belief of her own people in the childhood and the youth of the several states and their needs, in the hands of intelligent, well trained, well prepared teachers in the classrooms of the state that there have come those great schools of today. What California is doing in the developing of her state tax-supported schools Texas is doing, Pennsylvania is doing, and each state represented on this floor is doing, and please God we will continue

to do that in America until the very end of time. Nothing can shake the organization as it stands at the present time in connection with the school organization of America. Let us dismiss the issue, please. Let us dismiss the idea that we will ever yield up the control of schools in Washington on the Pacific to the other Washington on the Potomac. You cannot sweep Puget Sound to the tide waters of that great stream upon which Washington lies and carry any of the authority which Seattle and the school districts of this commonwealth hold, and put it in the hands of anybody at Washington, District of Columbia. We are opposed to that, and if we are not we should be, and the genius resting in the schools of our past and which lies in the further development of the spirit of the great schools of the states of the American union, will always lie along the pathway that points in the direction of the thought which I do not need to pursue further with you. Then let me say no such thing as federal control is even thought of in this bill; not a line, not a word, not a sentence speaks in that direction. We are not only flatfootedly opposed to the proposition, we would not even let it be hinted at, in the framing of the bill, thanks to the fine work and far-sighted genius of George D. Strayer and his committee.

It is not here and as far as the Legislative Commission is concerned it will not be here unless this great body, through its representative assembly, gives us specific instructions on that question. And then it would need to be debated with the most sincere feeling on the part of all those who might hold an opinion on either side of that issue.

Then what does the bill stand for? The bill stands for a Department of Education with a Secretary upon the Ship of State, as I have stated, whose function shall be to stimulate education in America. We need at Washington, first and above all an educational fact-gathering department, which will draw together the many scattered activities that are now in other departments and independent units of the government. After eliminating all this administrative waste and duplication of effort, the department will organize the most up-to-date information about American education and send them to Dr. Blair in Illinois and to Mrs. Preston in Washington, and to every superintendent and administrative officer until those facts shall have entered the heart and conscience of the teachers of America. Then this thing I call the national system of education in America, measured in terms of the spirit, shall in all the states be striving to emulate the best things which the best localities are developing in the field of educational progress and procedure.

We have no such body now in the large sense which this bill contemplates.

Do you think it is possible for you to go to Washington and have the same feeling that a laboring man has when he walks down and knows that Secretary Davis is there? Do you think that the business organizations of this country were satisfied or dissatisfied before the Department of Com-

merce was set up? You know what has stabilized in this country—maybe you have been unconscious of it—the relations between capital and labor, to the end that we are the amazement of the world.

It is due to the influence of these two departments, set up in the Cabinet of the President of the United States that our labor troubles have been less and the human feeling which constitutes one of the marvels of modern times, has come to be recognized as a new word in both the labor and the business world. I sometimes use for illustration a type that used to be in the business world in America, a type that said "Every fellow for himself and the devil take the hindmost." Just think back a few years, when a great leader in the transportation world lifted up his voice when he was asked the question, "But what will the public think of this?" and his answer was, "The public? Why, the public be damned." That was the spirit of a generation ago, but what is it now? It can be best voiced by a grandson of the transportation leader, who when he appealed to the vast estate of wealth to help him promote his newspapers that were in distress, was refused that help, because this grandson had put at the top of his papers the new feeling in the world of business, "The public be served."

It has been a long road from the spirit of "the public be damned," to the "public be served," but I thank God it has come in America. Consciously or unconsciously, through the ideals you have been teaching the children of America, you have been setting up that new standard which will grow more and more into the marrow bone of this country. We shall see these two great departments that have exalted and dignified labor, and have exalted and dignified commerce, rendering the service for which they were created, so that wherever the voice of a Davis or of a Hoover is heard it may express a spirit of service in these two great human activities, which we never thought of in the earlier days.

As chairman of this commission, my plea is that American education, American labor, and American commerce shall be increasingly humanized and stabilized by that dignified, wholesome recognition that they are entitled to receive at the hands of the land we love through the Congress of the United States. In pleading for your support of this bill, I pray that you realize its very simplicity, asking for a secretaryship, asking that the department may be so organized that it shall become a clearinghouse and a fact-gathering body. When you realize that, then back of it and help us put it over. We have endorsed it for eight years; it stands now as a refined document before the teachers of the land but we cannot put it over unless we stand together. That is recognized by politicians and statesmen. We cannot get their cooperation if we go to them with a disunited, disjointed, opinion-divided body, asking in our resolutions for a thing which we do not back up with concerted purpose.

I close with an appeal for your help with this concrete illustration. When I went to a meeting of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association when that great man of blessed memory, Charles

Elliott, was president of this Association—oh, how we have been honored by the men who have served us in the past, including our great president, Dr. Blair, who set us on fire with his great human speech at the university the other day. I remember Dr. Eliot sent us to see a ball game between the University of Minnesota and Harvard University. I pause long enough to say that it was as fine an illustration of the proper spirit in athletics as I have ever seen; Minnesota went home defeated but glorified by the sportsmanship of those players. After the game as we walked back along a stream a boat crew swung down the stream—and if there is anything in this world I love it is a boat race. As they came down the stream with their lusty stroke, I cried out, “Magnificent, magnificent.” A young collegian who was guiding us looked at me in surprise. “Magnificent?” he said; I said “Yes, magnificent,” and he said with a falling expression, “Why, it’s rotten, no two of them are pulling together. They never will win with Yale when the time comes.” Of course they could not hope to win unless they learned to yield to leadership, a leadership that would make the oars, all eight pairs of them, touch the water in the same instant. If there is so much as the deviation of a hair’s breath in the stroke they are destroying each others strength. Then I learned for the first time what teamwork means in a boat race. That is just what we need.

My fellow members of this Association, we should have just that kind of teamwork, that will make us pull together to the end, that our goal will be won in converting the Congress of the United States to the belief that we are entitled to have recognition at Washington, a great central department that shall gather the facts and analyze them and then broadcast that information and those facts among the greatest, mightiest profession in the world in the present day.

THE ECONOMIC AND PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF THE AMERICAN TEACHERS COLLEGE TEACHER

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NORMAL, ILL.

The economic status of any body of workers is measured in terms of wages and pensions, permanence of employment, and working conditions. Any occupation whose economic reward plus its social recognition is more attractive than others is sure to attract young people until its ranks are overcrowded and competition lowers the level of remuneration, either by reducing the wage scale or through unemployment. No labor union, or federation, can permanently maintain a scale where the number of qualified workers seeking employment is greater than the public is able or willing to employ. The only remedy is to limit the number of workers by raising the standard.

Wages of labor are paid out of the product of labor. The fisherman or the farmer who works for himself finds his wages in his catch or his crop, whether he hires or owns his boat and nets, his tools and teams. His net wages is the remainder after the hire or interest on his capital are deducted. He carries the risk of bad seasons or low prices. If he works for an employer, the employer pays him from week to week for the value that labor has created, expecting to recoup himself when the product is sold. The employer owns the product and carries the risk. But in either case the wages are ultimately paid out of the product, and cannot permanently exceed the value of the product.

The values created by the teacher cannot be measured by the pound, the bushel, or the ton. They are intangible values affecting the quality of the product rather than its quantity. While certain skills and knowledges gained in the schools have a commercial value, the best results of good teaching are not listed in the market quotations. What the public will pay for these results depends upon the estimate the world puts upon intelligence, character, good citizenship, physical fitness, refinement of manners, an appreciation for the values in life, a cultivated taste and the rest of the intangibles.

But these intangibles do not come wholly or through the set lessons of the classroom, or from the teacher's knowledge or skill. They come through unconscious tuition from the inmost realities of the teacher's personality. It is this fact that makes some teachers better than others. We may standardize the requirements for employment as measured in teachers examinations or in degrees or in experience. We may standardize salaries, but we never can make all teachers of equal value.

The economic status of teachers in teachers colleges ought to be better than in any other school, because the best teacher should be placed where he can render the largest service, where the fine qualities of his work may be multiplied many times through the teaching that his disciples will do. His work is thus raised to the second power. We should be able to bring into our teachers college faculties the ablest and the best. We do attract many of them, but it is permanency of tenure, working conditions, the contacts with adult students, and professional opportunity that attract rather than the salary schedules. What are the facts? Salaries in teachers colleges are frequently lower than high schools pay teachers of lower qualifications in nearby cities. The appropriations made by state legislatures to state universities per student usually range from fifty to one hundred percent higher than to the teachers colleges in the same states. Their professors have lighter teaching loads and are better paid. Why is this?

1. University attendance made a tremendous growth just after the War, while business was booming, prices high, everybody buoyant. It was easy to double or treble the prewar appropriations and afterwards hold the advantage gained. But during the war thousands of teachers turned from teaching to business. Their places were taken by untrained girls fresh

from the high schools. Professional training was not needed to secure a certificate or a job. The teachers colleges did not recover their lost attendance until after the business slump of July, 1920. Business and agriculture depression then made it difficult to enlarge appropriations or improve salaries to keep pace with the growing attendance. Today their classes are crowded, their teachers overworked and underpaid especially in the grain-growing and cotton states. In the manufacturing states salaries are better.

2. Men of wealth and influence, bankers, manufacturers, lawyers, send their sons and daughters to the university. Its alumni, chiefly men, occupy places of power and responsibility. To all these the legislature listens when they plead for liberal appropriations.

To the teachers colleges come from humbler homes young men and women who expect to work for a living, the aspiring stout-hearted sons and daughters, chiefly daughters of farmers, mechanics, small merchants, teachers, people of little political influence; their graduates become teachers, a feeble folk, whose voice does not reach the legislative ear. It is quite drowned by the cry of the overburdened taxpayer.

The remedy—1. Persuade the people of the supreme importance in a democracy of good public schools and that capable, trained teachers are the vital element in good schools.

2. Organize the women of the state, now half of the electorate, in behalf of the children, their chief interest.

Let us now turn to the second part of this subject, the professional opportunity afforded by the teachers college.

If there is any truth in the maxim, "As is the teacher so is the school," the institution that trains that teacher is the most vital factor in a system of schools. For this reason men and women of high professional spirit seek the opportunity that these schools and their work afford.

The teachers college exists for one purpose only, the training of teachers.

What is a trained teacher?

Three factors contribute to the accomplished teacher: natural aptitude, education, experience. We still hear much of the born teacher, but in teaching, as in all other callings, native talent is developed by studies and perfected by experience.

We use the term teacher-training, because we recognize that teaching is an art in which skill is to be acquired rather than a science of which knowledge is to be gained. Yet we think all of us would rather use the broader term, the education of the teacher, which implies a rational art resting upon scientific principles and a larger play of individual initiative.

What should this education include? As a basis there should be a liberal high school education with chief emphasis laid upon English, the natural sciences, and the social sciences, with due attention to music, drawing, and handwork. The professional education should include:

1. A study of how children learn, with special attention to the relation of sense-perception to imagination, to conception and judgment; the relation of attention to interest, of interest to knowledge, the motor-tendency of ideas as revealed in imitation, the laws of habit formation, the feelings and sentiments as creating desire and moving the will. (Psychology.)

2. A study of the principles of teaching, of classroom procedure, as observed in superior teachers and justified by psychological laws. (General method.)

3. A study of the school, its structure and administration, as the organized instrument of education. (School management.)

4. An inquiry into educational aims, and the functions of the various studies, school exercises, and school appliances as factors in the development of the child, and the realization of our educational ideal. (Principles of education.)

5. A study of the various historic systems of national education; the work of educational reformers, of the origin of the forms, methods, maxims, and studies that prevail in our schools. (The history of education.)

6. A re-examination and reorganization of the branches to be taught from the standpoint of the developing interest and the aptitudes of the child. (Special methods.)

7. Further practice in the schoolroom arts—drawing, construction, singing, reading, writing, and public speaking—to improve the teacher's personal skill, to afford a better example for imitation, and to enable him the better to teach others. (The school arts.)

8. Studies in sociology, economics, history, and literature, subjects for grown-ups, that will minister to the deepening interests of the teacher's life, and promote his insight into the aims and problems of education. (Cultural studies.)

9. Observation and discussion of skilful teaching, and increasing participation by the young teacher under sympathetic guidance and constructive criticism of his lesson planning, and of his conduct of the various types of recitations, to the end that correct teaching habits may be formed. His voice, position, manner, dress, should be, if necessary, objects of friendly criticism. If he repeats answers, tolerates slovenly or lazy attitudes in himself or his pupils, is inaccurate in speech or written work, or permits these things in his classes, if he is neglectful of the physical condition of his pupils, or fails to adjust himself to individual needs or peculiarities, if his own lessons and assignments are not carefully prepared and fairly well executed, he still needs the help of the supervising critic. (Practice teaching.)

10. Personal contact with skilful teachers, men and women of fine personality, of high character and consecration, through whose inspiration and leadership the young teacher may be stimulated to a resolute endeavor to attain the highest possible excellence.

These are some of the chief lines along which the professional education of the teacher moves—an education that begins in the teacher-training institution and which should continue until he enters upon his pension—his final reward in the temporalities of this world.

It seems that in the early stages of all arts, rules develop as experience teaches that certain practices usually produce desired results. All early arts are thus empiric, and are learned chiefly through imitation. Later, as higher efficiency is demanded, a careful study is made of the nature of the material, the laws that govern changes in that material, and the best means for producing the desired changes; thus a rational art, a form of applied science, is gradually developed. Butter was made, bread leavened by yeast was baked a thousand years before anything was known of the chemistry

of the process or the reasons why certain manipulations produced the result desired.

Early pedagogy was based upon experience. The early normal schools taught didactically the rules of successful practice.

There was some effort to develop a philosophy of education based upon current metaphysical theories. Problems of discipline, incentives, moral education, method had a large place. Gradually attention was drawn to the need of grounding all method in the nature of the child, his interests, aptitudes, his selfactivity.

With the development of high schools and the consequent lengthening of school life, the normal schools have lengthened their courses to meet the new demands. More than half of the 185 state normal schools have become teachers colleges with four-year courses. There has been some resistance from the state universities and liberal arts colleges. The normal schools have justified the extension of their work by these arguments.

1. The normal school has been established in all lands where there exists a system of state-supported schools. It is a vital part of the public school system because well trained teachers are a prime requisite for efficient schools.

2. The normal school is not the exclusive agency for the training of teachers, but it is the state's chief agent; and as such it must build up the professional spirit, establish the standards, create the ideals, send out the men and women whose call is to educational leadership. The logic that justifies the normal school on the ground that the state must prepare its own teachers carries with it irresistibly the inference that to perform its legitimate function the normal school must make provision for the adequate training of teachers fitted to direct or perform the work of every phase of the common school from the primary school to its culmination in the public high school.

3. In its early days the normal school confined its attention chiefly to the common branches, for little else was taught in the common schools. But the common school is a larger term in content than it was eighty, forty, or even twenty years ago. The teacher in all grades has a larger opportunity. The new researches, the new ideas in science, the new impulses toward nature study springing from the needs of a better agriculture, the new demands for vocational training, the new problems in society, the widening range of literature—all the ideas of our expanding civilization are pushing down into the common school. The training of teachers means more than it ever did before, and the normal school has a larger opportunity, a larger responsibility.

4. The normal school to live must grow, its ideals are not to be determined nor its activity bounded by the ideals of forty years ago. The meaning of education has broadened with the increased complexity of modern life, the term teacher has a wider significance, and the term normal school must have an enlarging content commensurate with the expanding ideals of our educational life.

5. The normal school is specifically a professional school. The training which it gives, if it performs its proper function, is distinctive in character and different in kind from that implied in general education. Only incidentally, not primarily, is a general education acquired in a normal school. The converse of this proposition is equally true, that adequate training for teaching as a profession cannot be merely a feature of a course whose chief aim is a general education.

6. Teaching is a profession calling for the highest devotion, patriotism, and altruistic endeavor. Its professional spirit is a spirit of consecration. This spirit cannot be developed in a school which is merely an adjunct of an institution whose chief

interests are economic and industrial or the mere development of personal culture.

7. High school teachers should be trained in the same environment as elementary teachers. They need the same love of children, the same knowledge of the problems of childhood. To train them in a separate school with different standards and ideals results in a serious break in spirit, in method, and in the character of the work, as the child passes to the high school. Furthermore, this separate training begets an exclusive educational caste. Our schools are already suffering from the presence of this cleavage between the professional aristocracy of the high school and the commonalty of the grades.

8. Principals and superintendents should be trained in a professional atmosphere where the same ideals are set up, the same philosophy expounded, the same principles and methods taught, as are taught to the teachers who are to work under their leadership.

9. Special teachers of music, art, manual training, and domestic science will prove more efficient when they study their specialties in vital relation to the other branches of the public school curriculum.

10. Teachers of all grades can be properly equipped only in institutions whose faculties are in touch with the problems of childhood and adolescence, where all the instructors consider professional education of high value, and where all the students look upon teaching as an occupation worthy of the highest talent, character, and attainment.

THE ECONOMIC AND PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF THE TEACHER IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL

ANNIE C. WOODWARD, SOMERVILLE HIGH SCHOOL, SOMERVILLE, MASS.

History gives us many instances of an educator taken as an economic and professional leader in the community. We look with pride upon such examples as Matthew Arnold, Dorothy Dix, Woodrow Wilson, Anthony Benecet, and at the present time, our own Henry Turner Bailey.

In earlier times the schools were small, so the personal contact between teacher, pupil, and parent was frequent and helpful.

Every teacher felt the personal responsibility of every pupil. Teachers lived in the homes of their pupils and had first-hand information of the conditions under which the pupils themselves were living. The environment of the home was a definite part of the teacher's study and it went far in affording constructive advice.

Whatever our present status may be, I believe that we shall fall, remain, or rise according to our thoughts, our ideals, our visions. We may become as small as our controlling desire; as great as our dominant aspiration.

Some new writers state that the economic status of the teacher is that of the person apart from his profession. They say "His influence . . . is determined by personal qualities and not by profession."

The economic status of the high school teacher goes to show that in the last decade there has been a slight increase, while the junior high-school and elementary teachers have been rapidly nearing the financial standard of the senior high school teacher. Higher salaries must be paid the secondary teachers in order to have standardized requirements in the qualifications

of those teachers. Most certainly, if a high standard is to become general, a secondary teacher ought to complete four years of college, then two years of professional training with practice, for compensation that will warrant such training.

The aims of education can best be furthered by salaries for teachers which will provide for a standard of living, allowing for study, travel, recreation, and activity in social movements. Such a standard of living has no direct connection with the average salary paid. We maintain such a wide difference in salaries in states and communities, I believe, because of the differences in the ability to arouse public opinion.

Our teachers' clubs, associations, and federations have played an important part in obtaining the respect of the general public for the teachers themselves. They have stood together firmly in the solution of the economic problems which confront the school life, and have worked with other organizations for civic betterment.

It is true that the salaries were never better than today. Schedules like the one in Denver, Colorado, have done more good for the teachers' economic and social growth than any one can possibly measure. Yet there is no need to apologize for pleading for higher salaries for the average teacher. There is no greater service rendered our country than that of an honest educator patiently performing a service so patriotic and so vital that without it the future of our republic would be imperiled.

Professional preparation encourages an enthusiasm in teaching which grows from a love for the work through acquaintance with the subject to be taught and a deepening conviction of the value of education in forming character and securing success for his pupils. Investigators do not agree on all points. Complete agreement in regard to the professional training of high school teachers is not necessary for progress. In fact, such would check initiative and stop advancement.

Some of the great masters of secondary schools have kept their pupils marching to the music of noble ideals until that way of marching has become a habit. It is very important that everything connected with the high school curriculum should be scientifically studied from the point of view of its effect on character.

The professional status of a secondary school teacher should, according to the best minds, be dependent upon the training of the mental, psychic, and physical powers. No longer is it held that superiority rests only in a trained mind. The acme of the teacher's desire is an all-round development, resulting in symmetry, balance, and poise.

More than ever before is there a great need for the proper physical development of teachers. Many of the struggles which are causing administrative problems today are physical defects which result from our failure either to use the knowledge we have or to secure the knowledge we ought to have.

I believe that because the high school pupil is at a different period of development a corresponding difference in method of instruction is necessary

for the secondary teacher. Where she acquires it is immaterial as long as she does acquire it.

Also we find that states vary greatly in requirements for certifying teachers; from no effort in examination on the part of the teacher to a rigid examination in all constants. From a college degree, normal school certificate, or private school diploma to a four- or even a two-year high school course is the range of certified preparation for teaching in our country. A secondary school teacher works in either a four-year or a three-year school, depending upon whether the 8-4 plan or the 6-3-3 plan is used in that locality.

The course covers approximately the years from fourteen to eighteen. The curriculum is widely differentiated. Pupil preparation for higher institutions is practically the same, because uniform requirements have been issued from those higher institutions. Other subjects are as varied and large in number as the education of the principal will permit.

Before 1900 not more than a half dozen states possessed a legal standard of certification for high school teachers which was different from that required of teachers in the other schools. In the other states the holder of any certificate of any grade was legally qualified to teach in the high school; in fact, in too many states this is true at the present time. Since 1900 the tendency of legal requirements for the certification of teachers in the United States has been to differentiate between the training required of high school teachers and that required of elementary school teachers.

In thirty-four states the holders of diplomas from normal schools or colleges of accepted standing also hold legal right to teach in the public schools of those states. This shows a tendency to depend more upon the preparation and academic training than upon the examination as a test of fitness for teaching.

As the professional status varies so greatly in different parts of our country, and even in the different sections of one state, I shall draw general conclusions only from the material which I have received. The average statement about the high school teacher is that he has a sufficient education, but does not know how to use it. The knowledge or subject matter may be obtained in some college, university, or other school of higher learning. The idea is fast disappearing that anybody with a college diploma is prepared to teach in a high school. Special attention to methods of instruction, with practice, as given in teacher-training colleges, should be added to the high-school teacher's professional preparation with marked advancement in service. High school teachers must understand the students' point of view and know how to deal with them, so as to aid each student's development according to his ability. The unsatisfactory pupil is a perpetual problem to him, but there should be more joy in his heart over the successful solution of one such problem than over ninety and nine that need no solution. His broad education ought to give him the habit of seeing "great things large and little things small," of "seeing life steadily and seeing it whole." To be able to teach the child, the study of pedagogy is essential. To have the

child before one is prepared to teach him does not lead to the relation of teacher and pupil, but only to confusion. Experience will tune one's knowledge to a teaching sense so that one will not give greater attention to the logical development of the subject than to the development of the logical powers of the child.

That professional training is a necessary part of a teacher's equipment is a proposition which hardly requires proof in these days. Not because all educators are convinced, but because the question has reached such a stage that few are willing to openly state their unbelief. Teaching is primarily an art and, secondarily, a science; the mastery of an art can be attained only by practice; the mastery of a science only by research.

Good training in method tends to make a man master of all methods but servant of none. The teacher can then apply the method as a tool needed to meet best the task of the moment.

To the credit of the high school teacher it should be stated that his scholastic qualifications are probably the best of all groups in our schools. Added to this are his many years of experience which equip many for this work. This may well be said of conditions of service in the more progressive city schools. Many make themselves and their principals a vast amount of extra work in discipline and also fail to get the best results because they do not know the psychology of suggestion. They should remember that the psychological relation between suggestion and initiative is of the closest kind.

If, as Plato says, "Aim is not primarily happiness but justice, and if the good of man consists fundamentally in selfrealization, in developing the capacities of each to contribute to a common good," then, Plato's doctrine is eminently one of equality, since it affords equal opportunity to every one to function according to his talents.

THE ECONOMIC AND PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF THE ELEMENTARY TEACHER

CLARA L. JAHNKE, ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHER, SPOKANE, WASH.

Ships in crossing the ocean, each day at high noon, take an observation to determine the vessel's position at sea. This makes it possible to ascertain the direction in which the ship must be steered to reach the port of her destination. Just as these ocean liners do in crossing the sea, so it behooves us, the elementary teachers, to take our bearings to determine our status and decide on our course.

A committee appointed by the Oregon State Teachers Association to investigate the status of the elementary teachers of that state came to the conclusion, paraphrasing an old quotation, that as far as the elementary teacher is concerned, "There ain't much status and what status there is ain't nothin' nohow!" Judging by a report in a recent research bulletin sent out by the National Education Association, some school boards share

that opinion. When cities ranging from 5000 to 10,000 in population pay some of their teachers less than \$600 a year, they nod assent to "There ain't much status." While we gasp at a six-hundred-dollar salary, I wonder how many of you would have considered that a princely sum when you were teaching for forty dollars or less a month? Today the elementary teacher in the larger cities receives two thousand a year. In addition, retirement funds provide for her when her earning days are over. Tenure is more secure. Some teacher organizations—may their number increase—investigate the soundness of available investments. Doubtless we are on the upgrade. Though we cannot afford many luxuries, we at least are comfortable.

Our present status is not what it should be, but students of educational problems concur that it is rapidly changing. The most hopeful sign is that the teachers, instead of relying on outside forces, are themselves endeavoring to improve the profession. Behold the dawn of a new day.

Frankly, we are not so much concerned about where we are as about the direction in which we are going and the rate of speed at which we are traveling.

The first sign of the dawn is the recent change that has taken place in the requirements for entrance into the profession. Doubtless there are many within the sound of my voice who began their teaching career before graduation from high school. Should I ask those to rise who began after completing only the eighth grade, I should cause some of you embarrassment. Today eight states make two years beyond the high school their entrance requirement. It, however, is regrettable that not all have this high standard. Recently a student at a Washington State Normal School confided to an instructor that the condition of his finances would compel him to stay out the following year to teach. She reminded him that two years beyond the high school is the minimum entrance requirement. He replied: "Yes, I know, but I can go to Idaho or Montana to teach." It would mean disaster in places if the bars for entrance were immediately raised to this high level, but we hope that it will not be long before the forty other commonwealths will follow the example set by these eight progressive states.

A close second among forces improving the status of elementary teachers is training in service. Normal schools, colleges, and universities are offering extension courses and summer schools for those who wish to continue their study. While we cease to be teachers when we cease to be learners, a note of warning may not be amiss. There are only twenty-four hours in a day, and none of us have unlimited strength. If too much time and energy are given to further preparation, not enough is left to do the work in the classroom, which is our major task, and too little time is left for social intercourse and civic activity. A proper balance must be observed.

Increasing the entrance requirements and further preparation in service have raised our status. Another incentive is the introduction of the single

salary schedule. In Denver, Des Moines, Minneapolis, San Antonio, Tacoma, Spokane, Youngstown, and in more than a hundred other cities the plan is now in effect. The principle of the single salary schedule has been generally accepted. Its outstanding feature is that all teaching positions, whether in first grade or in high school, are considered of equal importance and entitled to equal remuneration. Professional qualifications, not the age or grade of pupils taught, determine differences in salary. The pupils of one grade are entitled to a teacher who is as well prepared for her work as the pupils of any other grade. In many places as soon as the elementary teachers qualify for high school positions they are promoted to it at an advanced salary. The elementary school cannot afford to be robbed of these progressive and enterprising teachers who are prepared to render expert service. The remedy lies in the single salary schedule. Persons whose qualifications, length of service, and tasks are comparable are entitled to equal pay. The single salary schedule gives the elementary schools a square deal. It provides a compensation that enables the elementary teacher to make adequate preparation and it also holds her permanently to that service. We urge acceptance of the single salary schedule because:

1. It attracts ability and training to the elementary school.
2. It produces more efficient teaching in the grades by emphasizing a high standard of professional attainment and encourages study and growth.
3. It enables the teacher to be transferred without loss of salary to the position for which she is best adapted and where she can give the most efficient service.
4. Most important of all, it protects the right of every pupil in an elementary school to the service of a well prepared instructor.

It is high time for educators and the public to recognize that the highest type of instruction is as necessary in grade school as in high school and that it is an economic waste for a teacher to work in high school when better adapted to lower-grade work. Too long has the elementary school been the training ground and the stepping-stone to high school positions.

We appreciate the administrators who have helped us to raise the standard of elementary teachers by introducing the single salary schedule in their system of schools and hope that those who have not tried it will give it serious consideration.

Higher qualifications for entrance into the profession, further preparation in service, and the introduction of the single salary schedule have raised the standard of our profession, but the one thing that has done more than any of these to create a professional spirit is teacher participation in administration. Participation is a great university and a means of growth.

The walls of our classroom were once supposed to limit our thinking and our activity. How small the horizon of the teacher who sees only this small segment of the educational system!

It is a wise superintendent who welcomes and appreciates the worthwhile ideas of the classroom teachers. Happy is the school system where

the administrator values the judgment and the counsel of each of his or her associates. Unhappy the school system where the superintendent believes that he is the embodiment of all wisdom and that no educational progress can be made except through him. He dooms the professional spirit of the teachers to an early death. Faculties not used tend to atrophy. Teacher participation develops initiative and encourages research and uses the united wisdom of all the educators in improving the schools.

In Spokane we have a professional committee composed of a representative from each grade, which meets with the superintendent every month of the school year. Superintendent Pratt makes the following statement as to its workings:

The Professional Committee of the Grade Teacher Association has proven to be a most valuable instrument in school administration. It gives the administrator the point of view of the classroom teacher—something which is in itself desirable. It tends to create a feeling of contentment among teachers because they know that the way is open so that any real grievance can be presented. It tends to make the administration more cooperative and less dictatorial."

(Signed) O. C. PRATT, *Superintendent of Schools.*

While teacher participation in administration gives the superintendent the point of view of the teacher, it also gives the teacher a vision of the complex problems of administration, and this mutual understanding makes for sympathetic teamwork. Wherever teacher participation has been carried on in sincerity, thinking people, teachers and administrators alike, agree that it improves the teaching service.

Teacher participation is a new idea in education. While the leadership in organizations of elementary teachers has clamored for it, most of us scarcely know what it means. In some communities no one would dare to mention it around administrative offices except in a low whisper.

Yes, real gains have been made. Never before were teachers recognized as they are today. In places they are taking part in making the curriculum, selecting textbooks, and formulating school policies. At the same time, we realize that much of this new appreciation is purely verbal. Genuine teacher participation in school policy is in its infancy. Its maturity is in the distant future. A mere beginning has been made; the most is yet to be accomplished.

Here let me sound a note of warning. Administrators and classroom teachers each have a distinct field and teacher participation does not mean usurpation of the powers of administration. Participation and usurpation are not synonymous terms.

It is well for us to be concerned about entrance requirements, preparation in service, and teacher participation, but the most hopeful sign of the dawn of a new day is the interest that teachers are taking in legislation.

Education occupies a large place on the calendar of every legislature. Teachers are vitally interested in bills dealing with tenure, with retirement, with taxation, with free textbooks, with the county unit, with school elec-

tions, with the teaching of history and civics, with athletics, with vocational education, and countless other things.

More and more are teachers through their state associations becoming a factor in the legislature. In many states a bill is seldom introduced in the legislature, much less enacted into law, that is not initiated or sponsored by the state teachers' association.

More emphasis should be placed on personal interviews with nominees to find out their attitude on educational measures likely to come up for consideration. Statements concerning his stand should be secured from each candidate before he is seated in the capitol with law-making power. Before election these statements should be sent broadcast to teachers and friends of education. Doing so will save much time in lobbying. Besides, it is fairer to the legislator. It makes it possible for him to give our measures time and thought before a flood of bills pours in on him.

While not all of us can go to the legislature to lobby, there is a more important work that every teacher can do. That is to educate the voter. Parents are incurably fond of their children. Once convince them that a bill is for the good of their children, and that measure will be enacted into law. When bills affecting schools are up for consideration, people naturally turn to the teachers for information. We should understand these measures so well, that we can give such reliable information that the public will again turn to us with perfect confidence. May none of us ever appeal from a selfish motive, but always on the ground of the highest welfare of the boys and girls. Let me repeat. The teacher knows the needs of the school as nobody else possibly can. It therefore becomes our obligation to educate the public. In a republic there is but one irresistible force, and this force is public opinion. It is slow to form, slow to crystalize, but once formed nothing can stand against it. It is our privilege to have a large part in making public opinion. We must face our responsibility for the future of our schools demands it. We must measure up to the demands. A few energetic, progressive teachers can work wonders. Consider what an invincible force we should be if we worked unitedly.

Too many of us are not conscious of our own power. Let us rid ourselves of that inferiority complex. The question was asked; "What is the greatest invention of the age?" Some one replied: "The wheelbarrow, because it taught the Irishman to walk on his hind legs." I implore every elementary teacher to get a wheelbarrow, stand upright, and make the world respect her. I suggest that the Education bill sponsored by the National Education Association makes a splendid wheelbarrow.

Since much of the time of every legislature is taken up with school legislation, and since many detrimental laws are passed merely because there is no educator at hand to give the information needed to legislate wisely, would it not be well to elect an educator as lawmaker? Let us hope that the time is not distant when the teachers through their organiza-

tions will see that an educator is seated in each branch of every legislature to give expert advice when needed.

While one of a teacher's out of school duties is interest in and activity in behalf of school legislation, another field is open to her. This consists of participation in civic affairs. A small boy was asked to name the races of men. He replied, "Black folks, white folks, and teachers." Too many persons share his opinion that we are a race apart.

We are required to teach citizenship. How can we teach what we do not practice? Citizenship requires active, not passive interest in the affairs of the community, state, and nation. Can an active citizen be trained by a passive teacher? It is incumbent upon every one of us not only to feel an interest, but to participate actively in the great movements that make for better conditions. Our preparation for teaching raises us above the average in capacity to contribute to the public welfare. We need to come in contact with business and pleasure, with the commercial and social life of the community. We need to know the public and the public to know us. The public will not respect us simply because the board of education has elected us to our positions. The public will respect us if respect is due and we do not deserve respect till we have earned it.

The status of the elementary teacher has been raised by higher entrance requirements, further preparation in service, participation in administration, interest in legislation and activity in civic affairs, but the inspiration for these advances and the instrument through which they were effected is teacher organization. The cultivation of the professional spirit comes through fellowship among teachers. Professional gatherings develop professional spirit. We need keener appreciation of the value of local, state, and national teachers' meetings. The most important of these is the local, for here the professional spirit has its birth. Too often, when it comes to attending these meetings, we find the attitude of the guests in Holy Writ who "with one accord began to make excuses." Teacher organizations are our professional barometers. Since 1910 the national organization has grown from 7000 members to 170,000. Ten years ago only four states had full-time secretaries; today thirty-four have them, and in some more than ninety percent of the teachers are enrolled in the state associations.

Yes, the status of the elementary teacher is improving. While our ideals determine where we go, it is our enthusiasm that determines our speed. To the progressive teacher, the teacher with vision, our progress seems slow—the speed of an invalid snail. Others, like Alice in Wonderland, complain that they have to run as fast as they can to keep up with themselves. Your opinion on the rate of our progress depends on your point of view. The important thing is that we are moving.

Many factors have contributed to raising our status. The public demands better trained and more public spirited teachers. Administrators exclude the untrained and unfit. Normal schools, colleges, and universities through extension courses and summer schools make it possible for teachers

in service to improve. The parent-teacher association, with its two million members, has aroused the sympathetic interest of the people. While we have all these influences let us not forget that the Lord helps those who help themselves. The teacher's status must be raised by the teacher herself. Outside influences are helpful, but of little avail if the push is not from within. We must be self-starters. Yes, we still are Ford cars as far as our present status is concerned, but we are 1927 models and do not need to be cranked. Some day we hope to be Lincolns.

It is the beginning of a new day. It is the hour of dawn and we look hopefully for the full light of a beautiful day—a beautiful day for the boys and girls who must always be the center of our thinking.

Ships in crossing the ocean, at high noon each day, take an observation. Then these mighty ocean liners, without waiting for tugs or favoring gale, but through their own power move on toward their haven. The elementary teacher has stopped to take her bearings. Appreciating all helpful influences but not relying on them, with a consciousness of the dignity of her high calling, she moves on toward the haven, propelled by the power within.

THE ECONOMIC AND PROFESSIONAL STATUS OF TEACHERS IN THE AMERICAN RURAL SCHOOL

FLORENCE HALE, DIRECTOR OF RURAL SCHOOLS, STATE DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION, AUGUSTA, ME.

There is an unusually close connection between the economic and professional status of the rural teacher. Indeed, it can scarcely be said that there is as yet a distinct rural teaching profession. This is due almost entirely to economic conditions. No line of work can become professional that is made up of a constantly changing body of workers. The most discouraging handicap that rural supervisors and administrators, in general, face is the constant turnover in the personnel each year of teachers in rural communities. This is largely due to three conditions—the smaller salaries still paid, the poorer living conditions and the lesser chance for professional recognition and advancement. In those places where the salaries have been raised to an even level with town and city teachers it is found that the “turnover” is much less, especially if living conditions approximate these others in modern conveniences, chance for privacy, etc.

Next to the economic need in order to professionalize rural education is the necessity to build up constantly a different point of view. Even yet the majority of teachers look upon the rural schools only as stepping-stones and think of promotion only in terms of getting into a so-called “graded system.” This point of view in any department destroys professional spirit. As I have said in another department, the greatest chance for any line of education to become solidly professional is when teachers can select the type of teaching they love and are fitted for and find their “promotion” as to salary and honor right there in that work, without having to transfer to some other so-called “higher” type of educational position for promotion!

The economic situation is improving, but there must be constant effort to better it. The purely professional side of rural teaching is beginning to show a gratifying improvement. This is due to the fact that already recognition is being given to it as a distinct profession in itself and avenues of professional advancement are opening up within its own confines. Such movements as the rural helping teacher plan in New Jersey, originated by the late Calvin Kendall, and the school for rural leaders at Castine in Maine, originated by Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, have done much to develop a rural teaching profession. The work done by the late Macy Campbell of Cedar Falls, Iowa, and by Mabel Carney of Teachers' College, New York, to establish rural departments of education in teachers' colleges and normal schools, has been another marked contribution.

To still further establish rural teaching as a profession, with the accompanying financial rewards, I believe a very great help would be the establishment in the National Education Association Headquarters itself of a distinct division of rural education. We have seen what impetus has been given the work of the classroom teacher by its department in the National Education Association, and I would like to see a similar distinction conferred upon rural education to help build up the respect and professionalism for which all our rural leaders are so valiantly striving.

CHARLES W. ELIOT

A. E. WINSHIP, EDITOR, JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

Charles W. Eliot was a man of great achievement as well as clear-headed educational philosopher.

He took Harvard University at a critical period of its history and transformed it from a college with a past to an institution with a future.

A young man unknown in academic circles, without administrative experience, he assumed responsibility for the direction of the affairs—financial and scholastic—of the oldest and most famous educational institution in the New World. When he retired from active service there were more than five hundred colleges and universities in the United States, and a third of them had more than a million dollar endowment.

In 1869 there were scarcely five thousand professors and instructors in all of the educational institutions in the country. When he retired there were more than fifty thousand.

Notwithstanding the fact that there were one hundred free institutions with state funds behind them, and church universities with vast consecrated millions; notwithstanding the fact that natural resources were discovered and developed to produce immense enterprises in the west, northwest, and southwest, there was never a day in which the scholastic supremacy of Harvard University was challenged; never an hour when it was not the richest of American Universities; when its enrolment was not the most national.

Never for an instant would President Eliot allow any scholastic standard lowered to increase enrolment; never was there a drive for increased funds; and there was never a year in which Harvard was not harvesting some highly important educational creation.

Never was there such a succession of famous men on any faculty as were at Harvard in President Eliot's day. Think of the influence of Oliver Wendell Holmes, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, James Russell Lowell, and Charles Eliot Norton, Asa Gray and Louis Agassiz, Barrett Wendell and George Herbert Palmer, William James and Josiah Royce.

Above and beyond all of this, Charles W. Eliot had immeasurable influence for good on the public schools. The junior high school, functioning in every city of America, is the harvest of his heroic message on the worthlessness of much of the work of the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades of "ye olden time."

Dr. Eliot was a noble demonstrator of civic, educational, and religious personality which had a wholesome, conventional background. He could be progressive without being fanatical. In his much writing he never had a message that was not a mission.

FIFTY YEARS OF A GREAT EDUCATOR

MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

An account of the life of Mrs. Ella Flagg Young can be told in a few sentences. It was passed for the most part in one city and spent in one occupation, that of teaching. Any setting forth, however, of the significance of that life and its contributions to public education in the city of Chicago, where she lived, and in the entire nation, must be wholly inadequate.

Mrs. Young was born in the city of Buffalo in 1845, in an unpretentious, but choice home. Her Scotch descent was apparent in the sincerity and simplicity of her life and in her untiring devotion to her great ideal, the improvement of public schools and the making of them a thoroughly democratic institution. After the age of thirteen, her long life was spent in the schools of Chicago, as student, teacher, practice teacher, principal, assistant superintendent, professor in the University of Chicago, normal school principal and superintendent of schools.

During her educational career of more than fifty years, she saw Chicago grow from a sprawling country village to a metropolis and was largely instrumental in bringing about the same progressive changes in education as occurred in the life and growth of the city, since to her, more than to any other single person, was due the transforming of the schools from those of the narrow, academic type to cosmopolitan schools adapted to meet the needs of a fast changing world.

On such an occasion as this, it is appropriate to refer to that other illustration of her belief in democracy in education, that scene in the Boston meeting of the National Education Association in 1910, when Mrs. Young

was elected president from the floor, in defiance of the report of the nominating committee that had selected another candidate. The gains for democracy on that day have never been lost and finally resulted in this great organization that includes all school workers, to serve all and be served by all. Tonight we salute Mrs. Young as one of the greatest advocates of democracy in education.

Her loyalty to women in general and to the women of Chicago in particular is characteristically expressed by Mrs. Young in this sentiment, "I'd like to do for the women of Chicago what they've done for me in the past in giving me my chance."

The closing chapter in the life of this great teacher of teachers was still one of service. During one of those campaigns for the raising of funds at the time of the World War, Mrs. Young on a speaking tour became overtaxed, and succumbed, giving her last bit of energy to that great principle of democracy as embodied in her country, for which she had lived and worked unceasingly and triumphantly.

*AN APPRECIATION OF WILLIAM TORREY HARRIS,
EDUCATOR AND PHILOSOPHER—ABRIDGED*

JOHN J. TIGERT, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION
WASHINGTON, D. C.

There were giants in those days.—Genesis vi: 4.

In an age of science like the present, when so many discoveries flash into being with bewildering rapidity, when materialism makes boast of its conquests, it is well for the thoughtful soul to draw aside occasionally to some quieter domain, where the roar of the "world-loom" is not so evident, and there ponder upon the deeper implications of life, upon the things of the spirit. We are all so obsessed with "secondary causes," with the phenomenal, that we are apt to overlook or ignore altogether the *noumenal* or the reality that underlies the world of appearances, and this takes us into the realm of idealistic philosophy. In thinking of philosophy, particularly as it is related to education, we naturally think of one of its greatest exponents—Dr. William T. Harris, whose life was an inspiration to all who knew him.

I do not propose to enter into the history of speculative thought in America, but simply to give a bird's-eye view of the life and labors of one who fought so strenuously to lift education out of dry formalism and to relate it to the deeper things of the soul. It is fitting for me, I think, as Commissioner of Education of the United States, to talk to you about Dr. Harris, for he was one of my predecessors in office. It is an interesting fact to record that the most notable appreciation and evaluation of the educational and philosophical views of Dr. Harris, namely, the book by Dr. John S. Roberts, District Superintendent of Schools of New York City, was published under the auspices of the National Education Associa-

tion. Dr. Harris was a life director in this Association, and its president in 1875. He contributed some of his most valuable thoughts to its meetings. "There were giants in those days," and Dr. Harris was one of them. He was not a mere dreamer, with his head in the clouds, but a man of action. "In his study of philosophy," says Dr. Roberts, "he formed the habit of deducing the practical applications of philosophical theories to political, social and educational questions, of viewing current questions and practices in the light of philosophical ideas and of applying philosophical ideas to the solution of practical problems. This mode of thought was applied by him with the keenest interest in the field of education."

William Torrey Harris was born at North Killingly, Conn., September 10, 1835. He received his preparatory training at Woodstock (Conn.) Academy, and Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass. He entered Yale College in the class of 1858, but after spending two and a half years at that seat of learning, he removed in 1857 to St. Louis, Mo., where he began his professional career as a teacher of shorthand. In 1858 he became an assistant teacher in the public schools of St. Louis, rising eventually to superintendent of city schools, holding the latter position from 1867 to 1880. It was in St. Louis that he came in contact with Henry C. Brockmeyer, one of the young men who came to America "in a reflex movement growing out of the political troubles in Germany in the previous decade." Says F. A. Fitzpatrick, in the *Educational Review* for January, 1910:

Brockmeyer was a student of Kant, and an enthusiastic admirer of Hegel. Fresh from his studies, he became actuated with the spirit of modernism, of vocationalism, and determined to learn a trade. He selected that of a stove-molder; later, influenced by Thoreau, he lived as a hermit in the woods; then, reinvigorated, returned to St. Louis to enter the practice of law. He raised a regiment which served through the Civil War, and earned in later years the plaudits of all good citizens for his rugged honesty and his intellectual insight. It was during Brockmeyer's career as a stove-molder that Ira Divoll, W. T. Harris, and Holland discovered him and his knowledge of Kant and Hegel. They made frequent visits to Brockmeyer's room on the "East Side" of St. Louis, often arriving before Brockmeyer had cooked his frugal meal and while he was physically worn out by his labors. The enthusiasm of this little band of students in a new and materialistic atmosphere, seeking light upon the obscure passages and involved construction of Kant's *Critique of Pure Reason*, echoed the ardor and interest of the students of Greek in the fifteenth century, as chronicled by Symonds in his story of the rise of the Italian republic. To Dr. Harris this study meant going over again his Aristotle and his Plato. He mastered the dialectic, and shutting out the rest of the world, for a period he became self-hypnotized by the ontological reveries of Hegel. How he managed to find the time for this study is a mystery to me even now, for at this time Dr. Harris, with Graham, the author of a revised Pitmanic shorthand system, taught stenography in their evening school in St. Louis, the first school of the kind west of New York. Quite a number of able newspaper men learned stenography at this school. One may understand certain mannerisms in Dr. Harris's public addresses, a certain adherence to his notes, when one knows that his manuscript was written in shorthand.

The little band of students in St. Louis practically inaugurated the philosophical movements in the United States. In the year 1867, Dr. Harris founded the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, the first attempt of its kind in America. Twenty-two volumes appeared, the last of which was published in 1893. Into this journal were poured the brilliant essays of many noted men. Brockmeyer and others translated for it the best thoughts of the German metaphysicians. Under the editorship of Dr. Harris it attracted the attention of the greatest European thinkers. In the year 1879, Dr. Harris, Thomas Davidson, A. Bronson Alcott, Ralph Waldo Emerson and F. B. Sanborn founded the Concord School of Philosophy, at Concord, Mass. What the members of this group sought in their discussions at Concord was not "an absolute unity of opinion, but a general agreement in the manner of viewing philosophic truth and applying it to the problems of life."

In the year 1880 Dr. Harris resigned from the St. Louis schools and devoted himself to lecturing on pedagogy and the pursuit of literature. In the year 1889 he became, as I have already stated, United States Commissioner of Education.

In 1906, he resigned from the government service and retired to Providence, R. I., where he died on November 5, 1909. He was buried at Putnam Heights (North Killingly), Conn. On his monument is the following quotation from Goethe's *Tribute to Plato*: "A rare scholar whose life was zealously and untiringly devoted to philosophy and education. His relation to the world is that of a superior spirit . . . All that he utters has reference to something complete, good, true, beautiful, whose furtherance he strives to promote in every bosom."

Dr. Harris married Sarah T. Bugbee, daughter of James Bugbee, of Thompson, Conn., on December 27, 1858, by whom he had two children, Theodore and Edith Davidson Harris. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching conferred upon him "as the first man to whom such recognition for meritorious service is given, the highest retiring allowance which our rules will allow, an annual income of \$3000." Orders were conferred upon him by the French and Italian governments, and many great universities of Europe and America gave him honorary degrees. In 1894 he received from the King of Italy the chivalric decoration of the Commander of the Order of St. Maurice and Lazarus. The French Government in 1878 conferred upon him the honorary title of Officer of the Academy, and in 1889 the title of Officer of Public Instruction. "In personal contact," says a writer in the *National Cyclopaedia of American Biography*, "Dr. Harris was a perpetual flood and flow of light by tongue and pen. He was the indefatigable torchbearer of high philosophy and was forever lighting up those four great watchtowers, Kant, Hegel, Aristotle, and Plato, holding their importance in the order named." He was the author of *The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia* (1889); *Introduction to the Study of Philosophy* (1889); *Hegel's Logic* (1890); *Psychologic Foundations of Education* (1898); chapters on *The Philosophy*

of *A. Bronson Alcott* in Sanborn's *Memoir of Alcott* (1893), and many brochures on art, education and philosophy. He was the editor-in-chief of Webster's International Dictionary.

"He was," says Fitzpatrick, "deeply religious in spirit, what might be termed intellectually a Christian. He seemed to have approached religion from his intellectual side, and not from the side of faith. He was fond of showing how certain dogmas of the Christian world usually accepted through faith were to him intellectually demonstrated."

Dr. Harris' most notable contribution to philosophy was his critical exposition of Hegel's *Logic*, written for Grigg's philosophical classics. The keynote of his insight is the doctrine of "selfactivity." In his essay on Emerson he says:

Plato may stand for the philosophic seer of all time—Plato and Aristotle, it makes little difference which; for Aristotle reaffirms the same doctrine, and proceeds to show in detail the explanation of nature and man, as the revelation of divine reason. That the ultimate presupposition of all science is a personal first cause or absolute reason is evident to the philosopher who has learned to think in the school of Plato and Aristotle, or in the schools of their greatest followers; it is seen to be implied in the fact that the one from whence all proceeds is necessarily selfactive and selfdetermined. Even if it is called water, or air, or matter as first principle, it must be *causa sui*. All things are to be explained as produced by its activity, and as growing or perishing through it. The selfdetermined is both subject and object of its activity, and this must be identified as mind—or has been thus identified by the thinkers mentioned who follow Aristotle or Plato.

Dr. Harris did not enunciate any new principle in philosophy, but laid emphasis on the doctrine of "selfactivity," like Plato and Aristotle. Like all great exponents of idealistic philosophy he held that spiritual life determines the material, that consciousness determines being. Says Dr. Roberts, in discussing the fundamental philosophical ideas of Dr. Harris:

Selfactivity has many stages or degrees of realization. It may be life, as in plants or animals; or feeling and locomotion, as in animals; or reason, as in man; or absolute personality, as in God. Reason is the highest form of selfactivity in man. By it he may act upon his environment both really and ideally. He may form universals and see the relation of the universal principle and its concrete manifestations.

Dr. Harris developed the theory of Plato that there are three stages of thought—namely, common sense, reflection or understanding, and pure reason.

The first stage of thought sees the world as a number of real, independent objects, which do not owe their reality to mind or force. Each object is independent of all others and would continue to exist if all other objects were blotted out of existence. This, the so-called "common-sense view" of the world, eliminates spirit from the world and denies the truth of all ideas relating to God, or freedom, or immortality.

But a higher stage of the understanding, called reflection, refutes this lower stage by showing that it is not the independent existence of things, but their reciprocal influence that is important. Relativity, not independence, is the highest category to this stage of thought. Force is fundamental; and the world is viewed as the result of the correlation of forces. This is the theory of Hume and Herbert Spencer.

To this theory, however, the world is transitory and phenomenal. Everything is finite and dependent. Things are only the manifestations of the interactions of forces. The contents of the ethical and religious worlds are also relations. All reflection leads to an ultimate idea of force which swallows up or destroys everything. This negative theory is pantheism. Agnosticism and atheism are the inevitable conclusions.

Careful consideration of this doctrine, however, shows that the conception of pantheism as an ultimate conception is illogical; that pantheism presupposes a selfactive unity. "Hence the same premises and the same course of reasoning which reflection uses to establish its doctrine of persistent force establish just as well and with the same logical clearness, creative or selfdetermining unity."

Thus Dr. Harris arrives at the third stage of thought—the pure reason, the highest stage of the manifestation of selfactivity in man. His theory of pure reason is similar to that of Kant and Hegel.

Pure reason transcends the world of experience and understanding. It gives order and system to the judgments of the understanding. It is synthetic, not analytic. It sees universals, principles, totalities. It realizes the universality and necessity of some ideas. It goes beyond the objects of sense to the idea of a first principle or first cause. * * *

Without the idea of selfactivity, we could not formulate an idea of God as the Creator, or as selfexistent, apart from the world.

Ideas of God, freedom, and immortality have no meaning to many scientists. Scientists explain these phenomena physiologically or call them diseases of language. This is the reason for the constant opposition by Dr. Harris to the theories of Hamilton and Spencer. Their failure to appreciate the necessity of selfactivity prevents them from conceiving ultimate religious ideas—selfexistence, selfcreation, and creation by external agency. Yet they contradict themselves by setting up persistent force as the ultimate principle. * * *

In contrast to these philosophers, Dr. Harris holds that selfactivity is the highest principle of philosophy—the principle of life, of thought, of mind, of creative activity. It is the basis of theology and philosophy. It is the necessary ground of the idea of God—"of one eternal energy which creates and governs the world." Hence the world is a unity—the subject and object are identified.

So much for Dr. Roberts' able study of some of the implications of Dr. Harris' views.

Dr. Harris' philosophy of pedagogy is to be explained by this doctrine of the "selfactive." The universe is not directed by "a blind, unconscious force," but by divine reason, mind.

A spiritual first principle makes mind the source of the universe and the explanation of nature and history. Mind is consciousness, personality, will, intellect, love. In the absolute personality intellect and will and love are one, because each in its perfection is all. The absolute selfknowledge which makes of itself an object thereby creates, or is, absolute will. But its self-made object is also one with it by love and recognition. Hence Plato called his first principle the good, inasmuch as he wished to indicate that it is a will in accordance with reason, and not a blind will, such as Schopenhauer sets up and Buddhism presupposes. Plato's God creates the world as "like himself as possible," for "no goodness can have envy of anything." Hence nature must be a revelation of infinite goodness and man must have a divine origin and a divine destiny.

Dr. Harris' scheme of pedagogy becomes luminous, after reading the foregoing. Man is a selfactive entity, the master of his own fate, and not the idle sport of chance, called into being by "fortuitous collocation of

atoms." "All below man," he says in his *Philosophy in Outline*, "pass away and do not retain individuality. Man is selfdetermining as individual, and hence includes his own development within himself as individual, and hence is immortal and free." Education should endeavor to prepare him to understand the view of the world entertained by his civilization; to put him into possession of the wisdom of the race; to cultivate character, spirituality, and the social ideal; it should not consist merely in taking care of the body and in the performance of the lower social functions—the preparation of food, clothing, and shelter—though these are of importance in the general rounding out of man.

Dr. Harris was an omnivorous reader. Of Goethe's *Wilhelm Meister* he said: "I endeavor to re-read *Wilhelm Meister* every year and always find it more suggestive than before. It has increased my practical power tenfold." Carlyle's *The French Revolution* and *Frederick the Great* he pronounced to be the greatest epics since Homer's *Iliad*. He was a devoted admirer of Sir Walter Scott's novels, but he proclaimed Victor Hugo's *Les Miserables* to be the greatest work of fiction of the nineteenth century—perhaps of any century.

Dr. Harris was instrumental in establishing the kindergarten as an integral part of the St. Louis school system; this was the first attempt in this direction in America.

It is interesting to note that shortly before he died he was putting the finishing touches to a book on courses of study. Unfortunately for the world, he loaned the manuscript of this book to a friend, who lost it on a railroad train. It was never recovered. One of his most inspiring works is *The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia*. He says: "Of all the great world-poems, unquestionably Dante's *Divina Commedia* may be justly claimed to have a spiritual sense, for it possesses a philosophic system and admits of allegorical interpretation. It is *par excellence* the religious poem of the world."

In the *Chautauquan*, during 1881-1882, he published his scholarly treatise on "Christianity in Art," which is a discussion of "the nature of art and its five special forms—architecture, sculpture, painting, music, and poetry—devoting most consideration, however, to the department of painting as the chosen field of romantic art. Romantic art . . . is the Christian form of art." He intended to bring out these papers in book form, handsomely illustrated, but never could find the time to re-edit and prepare them for the press.

Reports of Committees

REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE ON COMMITTEES

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

THE report of the Committee on Committees will be very brief. We find that the president and the Executive Committee have carried out the recommendations made a year ago, and which you approved, and our only function at this time is to indicate the committees we think should be continued and those we think should be transferred, to report to other bodies or to be discontinued.

We recommend that the Commission on the American School Program be discontinued; that committee has not been active, largely due to the ill health of the chairman, and we understand it is the opinion of Mr. Owen himself, the chairman, it should be discontinued.

The Committee on the Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Subjects, of which Dr. Claxton is chairman, is to be continued.

The Committee on Community Relations is to be discontinued. We understand this committee has finished its work, and the present chairman would not wish to continue as chairman. We think the new president and Executive Committee should determine whether such committee is needed or not.

The Editorial Council does not seem to be active. We therefore recommend the discontinuance of this committee.

The Committee on Educational Problems in Colored Schools, is an active committee, and we recommend that it continue.

The Committee on Ethics of the Profession is to be continued.

The Committee on Homes for Retired Teachers is to be continued.

We refer to the Department of Health Education the Committee on Health Education, but we recommend that an appropriation be made that will enable the Department of Health Education, through a new committee, to continue its cooperation with the American Medical Association in a very important piece of work.

The Committee on International Relations is continued.

The Legislative Commission and the Committee on School Libraries are continued.

The Resolutions Committee is provided for, I believe, in the bylaws.

Continue the Committee on Retirement Allowances and the Committee on Revision of Departments.

The Committee on Rules, of course, is necessary.

The Committee on School Museum Relations, we understand, has completed its work and we recommend that it be discontinued.

We recommend that the Committee on Visual Education be referred to the Department of Visual Education.

The Budget Committee, of course, will be necessary.

The Committee on Necrology is provided for in the bylaws.

There seems to be a desire on the part of a number of people that there

should be a new committee on salaries. It has been years since the Association has had a committee on salaries, and during the time that has elapsed since the last report there have been a number of important developments, a number of forward-looking salary schedules have been adopted and certain problems have arisen.

The Research Department, under Mr. Norton, has done a remarkably fine piece of work in collecting statistics on salaries. I believe it is the custom of that department now to make an extensive survey every two years.

We recommend that the president appoint a committee on the economic status of teachers, and that it be the function of this committee, with Mr. Norton and his associates, to prepare within the next year another report that will state what we now know or think we know in regard to the development of salary schedules, and in regard to the great problem of the economic status of teachers, not only in the elementary and secondary schools, but in the colleges and universities as well. We believe the time has come for such a report, and it would be very usable by many who are concerned with the technical problem of salary schedule making.

There is also always a constant demand that something be done about the problem of character education. There are always those that cannot see that we are doing anything in the schools about character education, because we do not happen to have a text book on ethics and a period set aside which is labeled "Ethics or Moral Education."

We suggest—not recommend, but suggest—that the secretary raise the question with the curriculum department to decide whether it would be best to make a recommendation as to character education in the schools, something that might prove as an outlet for teachers and executives, and something that might inform the lay public as to the importance of the matter which we adapt to that objective of education, and something as to the methods which we employ in our attempts to achieve that objective.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON NECROLOGY

ERNEST L. CRANDALL, DIRECTOR OF LECTURES AND VISUAL INSTRUCTION,
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

It becomes my duty at this time to hand to the secretary for the archives of this body the roll of the dead. Would that we might make it the scroll of the dead, for it is indeed an honor roll. Every name upon it should be preserved at least upon the scroll of memory. That they are not all inscribed upon tablets of bronze or pillars of marble is due to the fact that men have not yet learned to honor the heroes of peace in the same degree as the heroes of war.

Recent events would seem to belie that statement, yet taken by and large, it still holds. It is true that when recently a modest, clean, clear-eyed, intrepid American youth took his life in his hand and, cleaving the sky, laid the distance between New York and Paris behind him in little more

than a day, he was received like a conquering hero upon his return. Nor was one plaudit grudgingly given, or any single paean of praise in his honor marred by the discordant note of envy—here or abroad. Nevertheless, the fact remains that for the most part, save in rare and exceptional, in striking and spectacular cases such as Lindbergh's conquest of the air, the sacrifices, the self-denials, even the valors of the pursuits of peace remain unsung.

I think it will not be gainsaid that the teacher's career involves much of sacrifice, much of self denial, and requires not a little courage, not physical courage, perhaps, but that moral courage which enables one to turn a deaf ear to the lure of pelf and power, to put behind him visions of place and preferment, and adhere to an ideal of usefulness and service.

Let us not plume ourselves upon this, however. Unless it is a choice that has been joyfully made, it reflects little credit upon us; and if that choice has been joyfully made, then we shall never think of the credit. Besides it is a situation incident to many other careers. Indeed, it is a situation almost inherent in professional life. The preacher, the physician, the scientist, the engineer must all place the ideals of their profession before the hope of gain, or they not only lose caste in their calling, but suffer in their selfrespect.

Yet the love of achievement is in us all, and it is a wholesome and a hopeful thing that it is so. Without it the world would stagnate. The hope of humanity lies in the urge to attain.

Right here may we not draw a lesson for ourselves from the honor that is Lindbergh's. What is it that we hail in him? His courage? Not altogether. The splendor of his achievement? That, but not that alone. His beautiful relationship with his splendid teacher-mother? That, but more than that. His modesty under adulation? A thousand times yes; but that very modesty is only a part of the reticence, of the habit of withdrawing within himself, that led to the one feature of his exploit that signalized it above, and set it apart from all others of its kind. *He traveled alone.* It seems to me that that is what captivated us more than anything.

There is something in the picture which we hold, of that lone horseman of the clouds, that lone mariner of the uncharted lanes of upper air, that solitary traveler through midnight skies, that has caught the fancy of mankind as few events have ever done. *He traveled alone.*

Now, not every name of the hundreds, perhaps thousands of our colleagues who have passed away during the year is recorded upon the list just handed to the secretary. There are inscribed there only the names of those who, in the opinion of their community or their commonwealth, so far as your Committee has been able to gather it, have rendered some signal service to education.

There may be names upon that list that, in a strict interpretation of that limitation, do not belong there. I say it with all due deference, I have no doubt there are. There are also doubtless, yes indubitably names which

ought to be upon that list, which do not appear there. Many a teacher may have passed on unnoticed, almost unmissed, within the past year, who never acquired even a modest halo of reputation, yet whose inspiration has stirred within some youthful breast fires that yet shall give the world another great name, another leader, another pioneer, another Lincoln, another Roosevelt, another Edison, another Peary, another Lindbergh.

But this we shall have to say, my friends, of any name that belongs on that list, whether it is there or not, of any name that belongs on any list of those who have rendered signal service to the cause of education, or to any other great cause—*he traveled alone*.

To every such soul there comes a time when he must say to himself, the counsels of others are not my wisdom, the ideals of others are not my guide, the judgments of others are not my code, the rewards of others are not my recompense. I must go my way unguided, unaided, unaccompanied, and unapplauded. I must work out my own salvation and contribute my quota to the salvation of the race in my own way. I must give of the truth that is in me as God has given me to see it, not as others have taught it to me. I must express the love that is in me, not in the language of convention, but fresh and warm as it springs from my heart. I must show the light that is in me not in the forms that are prescribed, but as it glows in my spirit. I must do, not the deeds that others bid me, but the tasks that seem fashioned to my hand. I must tread, not the paths where others beckon, but the ways that lure my footsteps. *I must travel alone*.

But he who travels alone, draws others after him, not merely the crowd, but those who have been fired by his example. That is the spirit in which we are here today.

We are here to say to those intrepid spirits, known or unknown, who have passed on into the greater light, that they traveled not alone, for we have followed after. And still we stand and gaze after them, and wish them safe home, and thank God that they were, and that their lonely labors have lightened and brightened our own endeavors.

They Traveled Alone

They traveled alone—do not doubt it.
For them no infallible guide
Had marked out a safe, easy, pathway,
Scaling the mountain's side.

Sometimes the darkness about them
Was broken by never a star;
But always they looked to the morning
They journeyed to countries afar.

Often their Christ lay buried
And none rolled away the stone;
Yet they faltered not in their labors
They knew they must travel alone.

They felt—Ah! They felt so keenly
The groping and hoping of youth—
The doubt and the fear and the panic;
But they never withheld the truth.

They knew that we who came after
Would question and challenge and weigh;
Yet how little they recked of our judgments!
They lived for their work day by day.

They lived for the youth all about them,
They lived and they loved and are gone,
Where the springtime of youth blooms eternal
And no more they shall travel alone.

And now, in accordance with a time-honored custom, let us rise upon a signal from the chairman, and stand for a moment in reverent recollection of all those, our colleagues, named or unnamed, who have been gathered to their reward since last we assembled here.

List of names reported by members of Necrology Committee:

Alabama

F. B. Haynes, Bullock County	Miss Alma Wood, Birmingham
S. S. Murphy, Mobile County	Miss Bessie Meek, Woman's College
C. A. Peavy, Escambia County	W. J. Dorroh, Birmingham
W. Y. Adams, Blount County	Miss Dorpha Cox, Birmingham
R. A. Smith, Chilton County	J. W. Howse, Jackson County
Miss Carrie Barns, Fayette County	President T. W. Palmer, Alabama Col-
Miss Floreed Sims, De Kalb County	lege, Montevallo.

California

Archibald B. Anderson, San Francisco, President, State Teachers College	Albert H. Hardy, San Diego (former supt. of schools at La Crosse, Wis.)
Dr. Edward Twichell Ware, President Emeritus of Atlanta University, Los Angeles	Miss Rebecca Greene, Palo Alto
Violet Buttner, San Francisco	Miss Mary A. McArthur, Oakland
	Dr. Benjamin Ide Wheeler, President Emeritus University of California
	Franklin Pierce Davidson, Chico.

Colorado

Dr. Herbert Alonzo Howe, Denver	Miss Clara J. Coney, Denver
Mrs. Susan Holt Playter, Trinidad	Mrs. Mayme Hunt, Denver
Mrs. Lulu Van Dyke, Weld County	Mrs. Maude A. Leach, Denver
Mrs. Frances Ritter, Denver	Miss Minnie Price, Denver
Dr. J. A. Russell, Denver	Miss Sara A. Alderman, Denver
E. Waite Elder, Denver	Earl W. Martin, Western State Col-
Mrs. Effie E. Hackson, Denver	lege
Miss Ethel Donelson, Denver	Jessie Blair, Longmont

Connecticut

William J. Betts, well known educator of Connecticut	Caroline Marchant, New Haven
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District of Columbia

Hosmer J. Johnson, Washington	Mrs. Frances Espey Buckingham, Washington
Benjamin W. Murch, Washington	Miss A. M. Mason, Washington
A. E. Gasch, Washington	Mrs. S. K. Hollingsworth, Washington
Miss R. L. Gordon, Washington	Miss E. G. Robinson, Washington
Miss E. B. Purman, Washington	Miss F. S. Fairley, Washington
Mrs. B. M. Sewell, Washington	Miss A. E. Thompson, Washington
Miss Lillian L. Cox, Washington	Miss Barbara C. Clements, Washington
E. P. Hughes, Washington	Miss L. T. Pace, Washington
Mrs. J. M. McKnew, Washington	Mrs. M. E. Morgan, Washington
Miss Katherine E. Trotter, Washington	

Florida

F. G. Russ, St. Petersburg	Dr. James H. Van Sickle, Miami
Miss Clem Hampton, Hampton Springs	Dr. Oliver Farrar Emerson, Ocala
Sexton Johnson, Orlando	

Georgia

Ernest A. Anderson, Statesboro

Illinois

Harry Pratt Judson, President Emeritus University of Chicago	Dr. Thomas McClelland, Galesburg
Annie Keller, Green County	G. M. Randall, Danville
	Cora L. Sennett, Chicago

Indiana

Miss Brigie Halliman, Fort Wayne	Dr. Benjamin J. Burris, Muncie
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Iowa

Macy Campbell, Cedar Falls	Dean Franklin T. Oldt, University of Dubuque
Miss Catherin Whistler, Council Bluffs	Hill M. Bell (Los Angeles)
I. N. Beard, Osceola	Prof. Charles Cleveland Nutting, Uni- versity of Iowa, Iowa City
J. H. Orcutt (Oregon)	John Baptist Knoepfler, Cedar Falls
Dr. Charles H. Weller, Iowa City	
J. E. Miller, Parkersburg	

Kansas

Miss Mary A. Moore, Olathe	Dr. Joseph H. Hill
Miss Joanna Eaton, Kansas City	W. H. Keller
Miss Mary Stewart, Kansas City	Harriet Rowe, Kansas City
Ralph H. Weaver, Kansas City	

Kentucky

Dr. Laura Drake Gill, Berea	Prof. W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville
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Louisiana

Col. George Soule, New Orleans

Maine

J. Francis MacNichol, Augusta

Massachusetts

Mrs. Louise M. Bullman, Springfield	Dr. Edward Hickling Bradford, Cam- bridge
Miss Ellen A. Barry, Roxbury	Charles W. Elliott, Cambridge
Wilbur F. Nichols, Boston	Melville A. Arnold, Everett

Maryland

Rev. Dr. Wallace Buttrick, Baltimore	Orville M. Boyce, Baltimore
H. W. Caldwell, Elkton	J. Frank McBee, Somerset County
	Norman Elmer Smith, Salisbury

Michigan

Miss Lucy Bettes, Grand Rapids	Mrs. Mabel C. Sykes, Grand Rapids
Alfred H. Lloyd, Ann Arbor	Mrs. Thomas Hughes
Herschel Robert Case	Florence Harvey, Lansing
Dr. C. E. Marshall	Genevieve Kell, L'Anse
David Mackenzie, Detroit	Mae Hogan, Livingston County
Judge Patrick J. M. Hally, Detroit	Eva Beattie, Livingston County
Prof. Lawrence A. McLouth, University of Michigan	Annie A. Craig, Detroit
Dr. John T. Ewing, Alma College	Mrs. Louisa Bennett, Detroit
Prof. Florus A. Barbour, Michigan State Normal College	Margaret A. Holmes, Detroit
Prof. Howard B. Merrick, University of Michigan	Cassie Ryan, Detroit
Dr. Neville S. Hoff, University of Michigan	Emma Wilcox, Detroit
Prof. William J. Husset, University of Michigan	Blanche Howe, Detroit
Volney A. Chapin, University of Michigan	Irene C. Thompson, Detroit
Josephine Woods, Ogenaw County	Celia Potter Knott, Detroit
James E. Quinlan, Mackinac County	William Tubbs, Allegan County
Mrs. Beatrice Murray Quinlan, Mackinac County	Adah Newell, Detroit
Ellsworth G. Holmes, Scottville	Josiah Phelps, Calhoun County
O. M. Misenar, St. Clair	Ann Smith, Detroit
Lewis De Graff, Metropolitan	G. F. Manning
Edward Keeler, Portland	Millie Magnus, Manistee
Marie L. Turner, Manistique	Nellie Peck, Dryden
Mrs. Perry Shutstad, Baraga	Georgia Shear, Grand Rapids
Marie Duchene, St. Clair	Margaret Cannon, Sparta
A. May Aldrich, Grand Rapids	Geo. F. Manning, Elkton Schools
Marion White, Menominee County	Harry K. Allwardt, Battle Creek
A. A. Miller, Oscoda County	Elsie Rudd, Ionia County
Willard L. German, Bay City	Louise Converse, Mt. Pleasant
Grace Opal Hillier, Flint	Artie V. Depew, Rockford
	Maria T. Trueman, Detroit
	Bertha Reed, Hunters Creek
	Margaret Flanagan, Iron River
	Alfred H. Lloyd, University of Michigan
	Prof. Francis W. Kellsey, University of Michigan.

Missouri

Gertrude M. Aytes, Owensville	Alice Daniel, Traer, Iowa
Mrs. Roxie Baird, Nixa	Esther Denke, Gordonville
Michael J. Barry, St. Louis	Edna Doser, Campbell
Margaret E. Bass, St. Louis	Lorene Duncan, Browning
Julia Beam, Springfield	Mary Farrington, Laddonia
Mrs. R. A. Belsche, Richland	Elinor C. Ford, St. Louis
Henry E. Black, Jameson	Tacitus Gaillard (colored), St. Louis
Henrietta Bland, St. Louis	Nellie M. Gentry, Houston
Gladys D. Chase, Breckenridge	Anna C. Gilday, Kansas City
Jewell Childers, Macks Creek	Eva M. Grant, Kansas City
Mary Connor, Elsberry	Matt E. Greer, Houston
Mary M. Dalton, St. Louis	Julia E. Hall, Kansas City
Nelle Dalton, Gilliam	R. H. Hampton, St. Louis

Edith Lee Harding, Webb City
 Chas. Harris, Kewanee
 R. C. Hutcherson, Doniphan
 Mrs. Herbert Illers, Kewanee
 Vada Irwin, St. Louis
 Ollie Jenkins, Naylor
 Jennie M. A. Jones, St. Louis
 Howard Kelley, Aurora
 Adelia M. Kientz, St. Louis
 Bettie M. Lewis, Kansas City
 Ella McDaniel, Joplin
 Abbie McNeil, Kansas City
 D. C. Mickey, Cardwell
 Francis E. Nipher, Kirkwood
 E. Kate Owen, St. Louis
 Effie Parker, Vienna
 Laura E. Peters, St. Louis
 Alice Price, Bellevue
 J. A. Reber, Kansas City
 E. E. Reed, Fulton
 Chas. B. Reynolds, Kansas City
 Sophia E. Richards, Kansas City
 Lucie C. Rosier, St. Louis

Marie Helen Ruth, St. Louis
 Grace E. Ryffel, St. Louis
 Elfrida Schaper, St. Louis
 Nadine Swartz, Marceline
 Ora G. Schwidde, Steelville
 Mary Seymour, Butler
 W. W. Shipley, Cameron
 Loretta Shoemaker, Eldon
 J. H. Simmes, St. Joseph
 Margaret K. Slater, St. Louis
 Mabel Steele, Kansas City
 Clara Taliaferro, Bunceton
 Doyle Thomas, Ravenwood
 Katherine Thurman, Poplar Bluff
 Clara Ulrici, St. Louis
 Nannie Vickroy, Bucklin
 Stanford White, Bertrand
 Anna Wilson, St. Joseph
 Mrs. Anna Mae Wilson, Phelps County
 Mamie Wilburn, St. Louis
 Guy Wilhoit, Springfield
 Gertrude Woods, Princeton

Montana

Mrs. Mary Davey, Butte
 Lucy Jane Kemper, Butte
 Mrs. J. G. King, Deer Lodge
 Mrs. J. W. Seager
 J. H. T. Ryman, Missoula
 Miss Mary Rourke, Poplar
 Celia Huddleston, Butte
 Eliza Woods, Missoula
 Katherine Sidle, Blossburg
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Mrs. M. C. Deering, Great Falls
 Angie M. Palmer, Basin
 E. C. Marr, Great Falls
 Dr. J. H. Underwood, Missoula
 Ada J. White, Great Falls
 Frank S. Kelly, Billings
 Margaret Holland, Butte
 Mrs. Emogene Lectra, Sidney
 Mrs. Chas. F. Henry, Townsend
 Mrs. Emma Spencer, Cascade

Nebraska

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 Miss Lillias Mortimer, Lincoln
 Miss Lucy Putney, Lincoln
 Miss Nettie Foster, Stanton
 Miss Lila Kyler
 Miss Emma Haviland
 Miss Ivah Miller
 Miss Stella V. Gilmore
 Miss Anna Dickerman
 Miss Clara Olson

Miss Pearl Silen
 Miss Anna Hannan
 Arthur H. Platt
 J. W. Searson, Lincoln
 Wm. Prince Aylsworth
 Miss Ruth Goldsworthy
 Mrs. Elizabeth Jelinek
 Miss Louise Luedtke
 Miss Naomi Larsen

New Hampshire

Dr. William Jewett Tucker, Hanover Alvin E. Thomas, Newmarket

New Jersey

Ide G. Sargeant, Paterson
 W. J. Tuers, Jersey City
 Dr. Thomas K. Smith, Newark
 Mrs. M. E. Travers, Paterson
 Mrs. Rose U. Cobb, Paterson

Lillian Baxter, Paterson
 John Enright, Asbury Park
 Augusta A. Ziegner, Jersey City
 Elisah D. Riley, Atlantic County
 Mabel Cheyney, Atlantic County

Mary P. Cretella, Atlantic County
 Ernestine Straus, Atlantic County
 Grace Westfall, Bergen County
 Rena Haines, Burlington County
 H. L. Reber, Cumberland County
 Edith Harker, Essex County
 Anna Marie Rush, Essex County
 Mrs. Lillian Perry, Essex County
 Paulina Badgley, Essex County
 Charles F. Stonesifer, Essex County
 Ethel Farrington, Essex County
 Lunevra F. Crane, Essex County
 Frederick W. Fort, Essex County
 Jennie B. Berry, Essex County
 Julia A. Harlow, Essex County
 Daniel R. Stewart, Essex County
 Otto H. Schulte, Essex County
 Charlotte A. Vogel, Essex County
 Mame Davis, Gloucester County
 Marion Garry, Hudson County
 Carrie V. Spargo, Hudson County
 Emma L. Kemp, Hudson County

Gustav H. Bojus, Hudson County
 Mary A. Farnan, Hudson County
 Sarah Donnelly, Hudson County
 Margaret Benny, Hudson County
 Mildred McCabe, Hudson County
 Santiago Miguel, Hudson County
 Elizabeth Johnston, Hudson County
 Elizabeth Douress, Mercer County
 Mildred Levin, Mercer County
 Bernice Ellen Rogers, Middlesex
 County
 Ida E. Johnston, Morris County
 Adelaide A. Hance, Morris County
 C. E. Downey, Ocean County
 Adolphus Pharo, Ocean County
 Mrs. Lillian Freeland, Passaic County
 William C. Knapp, Somerset County
 Florence Hawkes, Union County
 Katherine M. Cahill, Union County
 Kate Warner, Union County
 Mrs. Alice F. Johnston, Union County

New York

Dr. Ernest Albee, Cornell University
 Mary Sharpe, Rochester
 Cecil A. Kidd, New York City
 Grace L. Van Norden, New York City
 Edward B. Shallow
 Gilbert H. Blakeley
 Henry E. Jenkins
 Arthur C. Borklund
 Irving Hazen
 Dr. Albert C. Hill, Regent
 E. R. Whitney, Superintendent of
 Schools, Schenectady

Miss Mary A. Meyer, Utica Free
 Academy
 Miss Mary E. Scharft, formerly Batavia
 School for the Blind
 Miss Jennie M. Henderson, Newburgh
 George Ensign Baldwin, Spring Valley
 High School
 Principal Fred W. Crumb, Watervliet
 High School
 Charles B. Alexander, Regent

North Carolina

Col. Robert Bingham, Bingham Heights

Ohio

Rabbi Louis Grossman, Cincinnati
 John Jay Adams, Ohio State University
 Dr. Ernest Ashton Smith, Piqua
 William H. Lott, Columbus
 Miss Eleanor C. O'Connell, Cincinnati
 Miss Annie Kerr, Painesville
 Eliza M. Dorr, Fremont
 E. H. Florence, Clark County
 Prof. George A. Peckham, Hiram Col-
 lege
 Nellie Coe, Youngstown
 Clementine M. Pierson, Cincinnati
 John F. Gerwick, Dayton
 Carolina E. Martin, Cleveland
 Edward C. Feiock, Woodsfield

William H. Geiger, Lisbon
 Genevieve Chamberlin, Elyria
 Belle Martin, Springfield
 Lily Croy, Toledo
 Edmund Adams Jones, Westerville
 Edward P. West, Wilmington
 Louis Burr Demorest, Marysville
 Paul Raymond Stevenson, Ohio State
 University
 Clara D. Klemon, Cincinnati
 Gertrude Snider, Defiance
 Olia Miller, Mt. Orab
 Mary V. Gallagher, Toledo
 Dr. Ernest A. Smith, Toledo
 Kittie Craig, Niles

Ella Summers-Powell, Putnam County	Emily St. John Bouton, Toledo
George S. Harter, Greenville	Frances M. McGrath, Toledo
Carrie Keilholtz, Tiffin	Viola Waller, Charles City, Iowa
Maria Woodrow, Hillsboro	Harriet Beckwith, Ravenna
Atley Storer Henshaw, Cincinnati	Ozella B. Rowe, Shaker Heights
Margaret Martin, Columbus	Supt. W. O. Renner, Lexington
Martha Justice, Salem	Electa P. Bradbury, Cleveland
Mrs. Clementine B. Fick, Cincinnati	David R. Breitenbacker, Jacksonburg, Belmont County
Jessie Winbigler, Findlay	Linda M. Duvall, Ohio Wesleyan Uni- versity
Mary J. La Tourette, Middletown	Emma Broach, Akron
Herman Waldmann, Cleveland	C. W. Hoffman, Montpelier
Lenora Borman, Dayton	Ella Griffith, Woodsfield
Minnie Carl, Akron	Emma Warmington, Ashtabula
Minnie L. Dugan, Carthage	Dr. J. A. Shawan, Columbus
Morgan H. Jones, Portsmouth	
John O. Smith, Columbus	

Oregon

Luella M. Brewster, Eugene	W. F. McFarland, Pineville
Ambrosina M. Griffin, Portland	T. A. Melendy, Portland
Margaret Goodin Elkins, Pineville	Harold Price, North Bend
Gene W. Hall, Glendale	Rhoda Rakes, Rufus
Mary Elizabeth Hart, Milwaukee	Edwin DeVore Ressler, Corvallis
Rose Klein, La Grande	Margaret Scollard, Woodburn
D. K. Luby, Salem	

Oklahoma

Dr. George W. Austin, Chickasha	J. S. Murray, Coleman
Miss Elsie Wheeler, Tulsa	

Pennsylvania

Dr. Alonzo Brown, founder of Brown Preparatory School, Philadelphia	Daniel Ruff, New Oxford
Jerome C. Jackson, Gettysburg	Charles V. Smith, Mahanoy City
Miss Fannie L. Johnson, Harrisburg	Irvin W. Ziegler, New Cumberland
Miss Carrie A. Weeks, Philadelphia	John C. Wagner, Carlisle
Francis Alexander Foreman, Center County	George F. Minnich, Lansdale
David O. Etters, Center County	Isabel White, North Braddock
Eli M. Rapp, Berks County	Daniel W. Williams, Nanty-Glo
Joseph H. Tudor, State College	Mrs. Elizabeth Powell Bond, German- town
H. M. Mendenhall, Upper Darby	Verna M. Hill, Bowers
William Romaine Newbold, Philadel- phia	Dr. Joseph Swain, President Emeritus, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore

Rhode Island

Rev. Lyman Beecher Tefft, Providence

South Carolina

Dr. William D. Melton, Columbia

South Dakota

W. W. Girton, Sioux Falls

Tennessee

Rev. Dr. John Royall Harris, Lebanon	W. K. Webb, Bellbuckle
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Texas

L. W. Wall, Dumas
Mrs. O. F. Carlson, Fort Worth
Morgan H. Jones, Fort Worth
J. F. Peeler, Dallas
R. L. Abbott, McLennan County

E. L. White, Laramie
Miss E. Porcher Gaines, Fort Worth
Augustus S. Dale, San Antonio
Hugh Perry
David S. Furman, Dallas

Virginia

Miss Emily Miladofsky, Cherrydale Mr. McFadden, Norfolk

Washington

William M. Mackey, Tacoma

West Virginia

T. M. Marshall, Glenville, Life Member and Director, N. E. A.

Wisconsin

J. E. Roberts, Fond du Lac Miss Frances A. Wilkins, Eau Clair
Dr. Julius Howard Pratt, Milwaukee

*REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ETHICS OF THE
PROFESSION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION
ASSOCIATION*

SARAH T. MUIR, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA, CHAIRMAN

A code of ethics for the teaching profession was the goal set for this committee by the National Education Association. Before a code could be framed, investigations of various sorts were necessary. A careful study of all the existing state and local codes was printed last year and presented to the representative assembly at Philadelphia. In this report the codes for teachers were analyzed, and typical codes were printed in full. A valuable fund of material on the subject was thus put into shape for use by persons and organizations wishing to study codes. With the printing of this study the committee felt it had answered the question, "What has already been done by teachers in drafting codes?"

The next logical step was to find out how the existing codes were functioning and to what agencies were chiefly committed the duty of familiarizing teachers with the code in states where one has been adopted. To this end a questionnaire was sent out in the winter to all members of the committee on ethics and to the secretaries of state teachers associations. From the answers received it became apparent to the committee that while the belief in the value of a code for teachers was strong the actual influence of the code had not so far been generally felt.

It is my intention to set forth briefly in this report a few of the questions asked in that questionnaire and some of the conclusions reached by this committee, together with a statement of the plan for the coming year.

"Are the teachers in your state familiar with the code?" This question and another, asking what means are being used to secure familiarity,

brought out the reply that in many cases no consistent attempt is made to acquaint members of the profession with the terms or the intent of the code. In the first flush of enthusiasm at having accomplished the thing for which it had been formed, the state or other local committee caused the code to be printed in the journal of the state teachers association; or in leaflets for distribution at an annual meeting; or sent to the normal schools with a request that its principles be taught to prospective teachers. In many instances this first publication was its last.

As one reads between the lines he sees that while the committee was at work preparing the code for adoption, there was a considerable stir of interest in ascertaining just what kind of conduct was considered ethical for a teacher and what was not. One group of teachers took to heart the matter of building up a body of ethical practices, but those who followed—and teachers follow fast upon one another—heard only a shadow of the vigorous discussion with which the code was launched.

Does this mean that the good in a code is too evanescent to be worth the writing of it? Does it mean that the only value there is in a code is in the writing of it? Apparently this is not the belief even of those persons who deplore the lack of vitality which some state codes have shown. In most instances the answers from the various states show that lack of familiarity with the code is caused by failure to provide an agency that will insure steady and regular publication and interpretation.

Probably the most significant deduction from the questionnaire can be drawn from the answers to the question, "Do you favor a national code for teachers?" From almost every state the answer was "Yes." And the reason given in almost every instance was that the national code would lend strength to the state codes. Some of the replies are worth listing:

Illinois: "The knowledge that teachers of the nation, as a unit, have accepted certain standards of professional conduct should help to secure observation of those standards."

Minnesota: "A code is needed to dignify the profession, to help make state codes function better, to assist the states which have no codes, and to help those states which have codes to improve them."

Ohio: "It would secure dignity for the profession. A national code would more likely be abided by. We need a national code of real merit."

A few responded that each state should work out its own code. They are in the right, it seems to us. The value of a national code lies largely, it appears, in furnishing support to state codes.

Are any of the state codes functioning? Is there a state where teachers in large numbers abide strictly by the best traditions of their profession and where canons of ethical conduct decide what a member of the teaching profession may or may not do?

The search so far has revealed one notable instance of a code that is being regularly interpreted, regularly adjusted to meet the exigencies of professional life, with findings regularly published where all teachers may see them. This is in Pennsylvania where a commission on professional

ethics sits regularly, interprets cases, makes reports to the House of Delegates, and recommends changes in the code to meet existing situations. George Gailey Chambers, who is a member of the national committee on ethics of the profession, seems to be the guiding spirit in the Pennsylvania commission. Though he modestly disclaims the honor, he appears to be having a large part in making that commission function.

Merely to read the report of proceedings in the *Pennsylvania School Journal* shows what may be accomplished when a local commission keeps constantly before the teachers the principles which they themselves have agreed shall be binding upon them. No doubt other state or local groups are accomplishing much the same sort of thing, but no published record is available if any such commission is acting elsewhere.

It becomes apparent that a national code would give an impetus to states and lend them support in administering the local codes. There is no feeling of discouragement because state codes have not proved so effective as their writers hoped. The building of a code of ethics in any profession is a slow process. The awakening to a need of a written code does not come all at once.

The study made last year of state codes shows that where codes exist they show enough similarity in the principles stated to demonstrate that there are rules of conduct which teachers everywhere consider vital. Conspicuous among these are the clauses which urge teachers to improve themselves by study and by uniting with others of their profession in local, state, and national associations; those which condemn various breaches in contract; those which urge teachers to be fair with one another in applying for positions and specify that superintendents shall be just in their dealings with one another and with their teachers.

From all the study which this committee has so far made it becomes apparent that the time is ripe to formulate a national code with the three-fold purpose of setting up standards for those who are yet new in the profession; restraining the few who, knowing professional ethics, may yet be unscrupulous; and lending dignity to a profession which is growing every day in power and responsibility.

Clearly the duty of this committee is to lay plans to formulate a code that shall be acceptable to all the states from east to west, from north to south; to all members of the profession from the new teachers just out of training school to the experienced administrator holding in the palm of his hand the greatest responsibility in the world—a far-reaching school system. How can a committee achieve this? The chairman of this committee has great faith in its members. They represent the most careful selection on the part of three great presidents of the National Education Association—Jesse H. Newlon, Mary McSkimmon and Francis G. Blair. They represent widely diverse types of teachers—college presidents and professors; secondary superintendents, principals, and classroom teachers; elementary principals and teachers; kindergarten supervisors and teachers.

In a meeting of this committee held in Dallas, Texas, in March, it

was decided that a code to be acceptable to all the teachers must be dictated by all types of teachers. The members decided that the work for the coming years would be to find out what teachers at large believe to be ethical by submitting to them a collected list of ethical principles and asking them to pass upon the value of each. The pronouncements for this list will be gathered by sifting from the large number of codes which this committee has at hand, the dominant ethical canons. As has been stated before, many principles appear in all codes, some appear in few. These ethical pronouncements will include the best in all codes for teachers and perhaps some learned from other professions. When the material has been compiled, it will be submitted to representative teachers throughout the United States. Those to whom the request will be sent will represent widely different types both as to geographical location and as to teaching and administrative duties.

Teachers to whom these lists are sent will be asked to state whether or not they believe that the principles so compiled are vital and should be included in a code of ethics for the teaching profession.

While prediction of the results thus to be obtained is dangerous, the committee feels moderately certain on a few points:

1. The teachers thus addressed will, for the most part, respond to the questionnaire partly because of the simplicity of working which will make answering easy, but largely because of keen interest in the subject.

2. Clauses which relate to purely local difficulties or situations will be discarded even by teachers in states where the conditions hinted at are most acute.

3. The pronouncement on which a large number agree will constitute a body of ethical principles which may be safely used as guides to conduct in the profession of teaching.

The preliminary work which was necessary in order to ascertain how much had been done in code making in our profession has been completed. This committee expects to spend the next year in formulating a questionnaire, sending it out and gathering returns from it. It looks forward confidently to being able to present to this body next year a set of principles which shall not be, as one member wearily put it, "a pretty code which consists of beautiful generalities clothed in pleasing English"; but rather the actual belief of a representative cross-section of almost a million teachers.

The committee earnestly hopes that the members of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association to whom this report of progress is addressed will grant to this committee the hearty support which it has had in the past. With the help of the president and of the efficient Washington office headed by our secretary, J. W. Crabtree, and with the aid of the members of the profession, this committee hopes to present a report next July which will be a notable achievement in the history of the teaching profession in the United States. A written statement of the best which the best of us believe will be one further step in stabilizing our profession.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RETIREMENT ALLOWANCES

E. RUTH PYRTLE, CHAIRMAN

PRINCIPAL, BANCROFT SCHOOL, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA

Committee Objectives.—The Committee on the Problem of Teacher Retirement Allowances has two principal objectives:

1. The maintenance of a clearing house of information for those dealing with the problem of teacher retirement allowances.
2. The offering of facilities for the preparation of reports based upon the best current thought in this field.

In fulfilling the first of these objectives the Committee in cooperation with the Division of Research has assembled at Association Headquarters a library of material on this important problem. This library includes general treatises in this field, copies of the provisions of state and local retirement systems now in effect, the latest available information as to plans for new retirement legislation, and a current directory of the secretaries of retirement systems.

In accomplishing its second objective, the committee has planned its studies so that the best thought and practice in the field of retirement allowances may be pooled. Its last comprehensive report, presented a year ago at Philadelphia, was reprinted with some modifications and additions as an issue of the Research Bulletin. This report has been widely circulated and has been in much demand in connection with recent sessions of state legislatures.

Plans for 1928 Report.—Plans are now being formulated which will result in the cooperative preparation of another comprehensive report for submission to the Association a year from the present time. This report will present as a part of its contents:

- a. A revision and extension of the statement of the fundamental principles of teachers' retirement systems which appeared in the Philadelphia report.
- b. A survey of retirement systems in effect.
- c. A simple explanation of the way in which certain features of teacher retirement systems work in practice.
- d. An annotated bibliography of the recent literature in the field.

Cooperation with Secretaries of Retirement Systems.—At the Dallas meeting of the Association, the Chairman of the Committee and the Association's Director of Research were invited to attend and participate in the meeting of the National Council of Teachers' Retirement Systems. Members of this Council were invited to attend the meeting of the Committee on Retirement Allowances. The interchange of experience which took place at these meetings proved very valuable and definite action was taken looking toward closer cooperation between this Council and the Committee on Retirement Allowances. The detailed plans for such cooperative work

are now being completed with Mr. E. G. Lantman, President of the Council of Teachers' Retirement Systems.

State and Local Retirement Systems Now in Effect

The following list of states and cities having plans in effect has been compiled with the aid of state superintendents, secretaries of state education associations, and secretaries of state or local retirement fund boards. In the few cases where no more recent data could be secured, the list of retirement systems presented on pages 122 and 124 of the May, 1926, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association was used as the basis for including certain systems in this report.

Information as to the detailed provisions of the retirement plans listed as well as the names and addresses of persons to whom correspondence in regard to a particular retirement system should be addressed may be secured from the National Education Association.

State-Wide Teacher Retirement Laws are in effect in the following states:

Arizona	Montana
California	Nevada
Connecticut	New Jersey
District of Columbia	New York ²
Illinois	North Dakota
Indiana	Ohio
Maine	Pennsylvania
Maryland ¹	Rhode Island
Massachusetts	Vermont
Michigan	Virginia
Minnesota	Washington
	Wisconsin

Where state wide teacher retirement laws are in effect, the following cities and counties have local teacher retirement systems independent of state systems:

San Francisco, Calif. ³	Minneapolis, Minn.
New Haven, Conn.	Duluth, Minn.
Chicago, Ill. ³	St. Paul, Minn.
Peoria, Ill.	New York, N. Y.
Terre Haute, Ind.	Bristol, R. I. ³
Allegany County, Md.	Newport, R. I. ³
Baltimore County, Md.	Providence, R. I. ³
Boston, Mass.	Milwaukee, Wis.

¹ The Maryland Law does not include teachers of Baltimore or Allegany County, or the City of Baltimore.

² The New York Law does not include teachers of New York City.

³ Teachers also enrolled in state system.

State Teacher Retirement Laws affecting certain cities are in effect as follows:

Colorado	Canon City Colorado Springs Denver Greeley Pueblo
Iowa	Des Moines
Kansas	Atchison Parsons Topeka
Kentucky	Lexington Louisville Newport
Louisiana	New Orleans
Michigan	Detroit
Nebraska	Omaha
Oregon	Portland
Utah	Salt Lake City
Washington	Bellingham Everett Seattle Spokane Tacoma
West Virginia	Parkersburg Wheeling

No State Law Relative to Teacher Retirement is in effect in the following states:

Alabama	New Hampshire
Arkansas	New Mexico
Delaware	North Carolina
Florida	Oklahoma
Georgia	South Carolina
Idaho	South Dakota
Mississippi	Tennessee
Missouri	Texas

Wyoming

In some of the above states where there are no permissive or mandatory laws relative to teacher retirement, the following cities and counties have local retirement systems:

Mobile County, Ala.	Manchester, N. H.
Jefferson County, Ala.	New Hanover County, N. C.
Wilmington, Del.	Durkee, N. C.
Atlanta, Ga.	Charleston, S. C.
Augusta, Ga.	Chattanooga, Tenn.
Savannah, Ga.	Hamilton, Tenn.
	Nashville, Tenn.

Teacher Retirement Legislation

Many states have held legislative sessions since the Philadelphia meeting of the Committee on Retirement Allowances. Retirement legislation was passed or considered at a large number of these sessions. At the time of preparing this report it was too early to obtain the final word on all legislation acted upon pertaining to teacher retirement allowances. The following summary has been prepared, however, with the aid of material and correspondence received from state superintendents, secretaries of state education associations and secretaries of local retirement fund boards, for the information of the Association's membership. Some information was also secured from related articles or reports appearing in recent issues of state educational journals. Time did not permit checking the statements upon which some of the succeeding material is based. This will be done before the report is finally printed in the Volume of Proceedings. The committee will appreciate notification of any errors occurring in the succeeding summary.

Legislation Affecting State-Wide Teacher Retirement Laws. Legislation has recently been enacted affecting the state-wide teacher retirement systems operating in California, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Nevada, New York, and Rhode Island, as well as the District of Columbia. The more important changes are indicated below.

Indiana. According to an editorial in the December, 1926 issue of *The Indiana Teacher*, "there seems to be a growing demand that the fund again be opened to teachers who failed to elect membership prior to October 31, 1923, at which time the option of joining ceased. This demand is due to the fact that several thousand teachers failed to elect membership because of misinformation, fear of the solvency of the fund, or indifference to the benefits offered by the law." Under an amendment enacted in 1927 the retirement fund was opened until October 31, 1928.

Maine. The non-contributory teacher retirement law was altered by the 1927 state legislature as follows:

The annual pension received from the state by teachers of thirty-five years' experience was raised from \$300 to \$400; that for teachers with thirty years' experience was raised from \$250 to \$325; and for those of twenty-five years' experience, from \$200 to \$250.

Maryland. The pension law formerly in effect in Maryland permitted the State Board of Education to retire a limited number of teachers who became disabled after reaching the age of sixty and completing twenty-five years of service. A committee was appointed in the spring of 1926 to study the situation and make constructive recommendations in regard to a new retirement plan. A report was submitted including financial and actuarial data, the committee's recommendations, and a proposed act to establish the recommended plan.

This act was recently passed by the state legislature and signed by the Governor. It becomes effective August 1, 1927. The new law establishes

a jointly-contributory system, providing superannuation and disability benefits. Membership is made compulsory, except for teachers now members of systems operating in the state, such as those in operation in Allegany County and the city of Baltimore; retirement is optional at 60 and compulsory at 70; a minimum service of five years is necessary for eligibility for disability benefits; upon event of resignation or dismissal the teacher is entitled to a return of his accumulated contributions; the accrued liabilities, assumed by the state, are to be met by a payment of 3.56 percent of the payroll over a period of thirty years, in addition to the normal contribution made by the state.

Nevada. A contribution of \$12 per annum to the fund is required of the teacher according to a law passed in the last legislature.

New York. Several minor amendments of the New York State Retirement Law were passed at the last session of the legislature and became effective in April, 1927.

Rhode Island. Amendments to the teachers' pension law passed by the General Assembly in April, 1926, increased the minimum pension from \$400 to \$500 and the maximum from \$500 to \$700.

District of Columbia. The final printing of the retirement act for public school teachers for the District of Columbia, as approved by the President, June 11, 1926, amended the retirement law of 1920 as follows:

(1) The maximum salary upon which estimates are made was increased from \$1,500 to \$2,000; (2) the contribution from the District Government to the annuity fund was increased from \$10 to \$15 per annum for each year of service on the part of the retired teacher, not to exceed forty years; (3) to be eligible for superannuation benefits, the teacher must have taught in the District schools for ten years immediately prior to retirement; (4) in determining the disability retirement allowance, a minimum credit of twenty years is to be used in determining the sum allowable to teachers of less than twenty years' experience; (5) a reserve to cover normal and accrued liabilities is created by appropriations from the District.

Proposed Changes in State-Wide Teacher Retirement Laws.—Other states where state-wide teacher retirement laws are in effect have had legislation under consideration for a revision of the existing system. Some measures need only the sanction of the Governor before taking effect. Others are under debate in legislatures now in session; still others have not yet reached the form of bills.

Amendments recently passed in the State Legislature of Michigan, and presented to the Governor, fixed the minimum age for the reception of retirement benefits at sixty years, and increased the teacher's contributions to the maximum required by the law.

The Public School Teachers' Retirement Fund Committee of Virginia has been studying the problem of retirement allowances. A plan for a retirement fund has been prepared with the assistance of the Carnegie Foundation. A tabulation of the major provisions of this bill may be found on pages 136-137 of the May, 1926, Research Bulletin of the

National Education Association, "Efficient Teaching and Retirement Legislation." Some time has been given to its discussion and a bill is to be presented to the legislature.

A bill recently passed by the State Legislature of California, and referred to the Governor, would provide for an actuarial investigation of the public school teachers' retirement salary fund by a commission to report at the legislative session in 1929.

An act recently failed in the Legislature of Massachusetts that would increase the maximum assessment from \$100 to \$150 per year; and increase the maximum amount which a member might accumulate to purchase an annuity from the sum that would purchase an annuity of \$500 at the age of sixty, to the sum that would purchase an annuity of \$750 at the age of sixty.

Recent attempts to modify substantially the retirement systems of Montana and Minnesota were defeated.

According to a special issue of *The Wisconsin Journal of Education*, June, 1927, a bill passed the Senate which would seriously undermine the state-wide teacher retirement system at the present time in operation in Wisconsin. If this measure became law no further entrance into the existing retirement system would be permitted. Present members may receive back contributions made to the fund. After July 1, 1928, the powers conferred upon the annuity and retirement boards provided by the law now in effect would be conferred upon the state insurance commission. The bill is now before the assembly. Those interested in retaining the existing law hope to be successful in defeating the measures proposed.

Legislation Under Consideration in States Having Teacher Retirement Laws Affecting Certain Cities.—Interest in retirement legislation has been present in at least five of the eleven states having retirement laws effective only in certain cities.

According to the secretary of the Colorado Education Association, "the Colorado Education Association has undertaken to secure a state retirement law for Colorado at the earliest possible date. Our steps thus far have been as follows:

In March, 1926 we secured the services of the Carnegie Foundation to make an actuarial study of our retirement problem. The material for this study is now in the hands of the Foundation.

In the last session of the legislature, beginning January, 1927, we succeeded in getting a resolution passed authorizing the Governor to appoint a committee of two senators and three representatives to study this problem and make a report to the general assembly that meets in January, 1929.

The Congress of Parents and Teachers at its session in April, 1927, passed a resolution authorizing its president to appoint a committee of five parents to study the problem.

The Colorado Education Association has had a committee on teacher retirement problems for the last four or five years. We have hopes that we shall be able to secure, or at least make a show of securing, an appropriation by the general assembly in 1929."

While the members of the Annuity Committee of the Iowa State Teachers' Association do not consider that present conditions warrant the presentation of measures looking toward establishing a state-wide system, a study of bills in other states is in progress.

A bill providing for the establishment of the Utah State Teachers' Retirement System and making an appropriation therefor was introduced in a recent legislature. While the bill failed, this question was brought prominently to the attention of the legislature and should pave the way for satisfactory action later on. The proposed law permitted the establishment of a retirement association in county school districts of the first class or any city of the second class, providing for contributions from teacher and state, actuarial records, age and service, and disability retirement, with return of individual assessments upon withdrawal. An appropriation of \$15,000 per annum was made to cover the provisions.

Local Teacher Retirement Systems.—An important change among the local systems operating independent of state-wide systems is the merger of the Indianapolis system with the state fund. The merger was first proposed in February, 1922. After considerable discussion petitions were circulated among the teachers in April, 1925, with the result that a large majority approved. A suit was filed in July, 1925, for the minority group. In March, 1927, the Marion circuit court provided for the completion of the merger and the transfer of the fund, amounting, January 18, to \$564,662.34. Of this sum \$451,000 is to be held as a separate trust fund to be used in paying teachers now on a pension. There will be no decrease of allowances now being paid retired teachers.

There has been some publicity given to the recommendation of the Chicago Pension Commission's actuary that the teachers' pension system be placed on an allocation and reserve basis.

Legislation in States Without a State Teacher Retirement Law.—Of the seventeen states without a state law relative to teacher retirement at least seven have taken steps toward initiating legislation in that field. There is noticeable the desire to foster sound retirement legislation by providing for actuarial investigation and estimates of probable costs and surveys of local needs.

Investigations are pending in Wyoming and South Carolina. A committee was authorized by the delegate assembly of North Carolina. In Missouri efforts were made to secure the passage of an amendment to the State Constitution such as would enable the people to vote on a Teachers' Retirement Fund. The enabling act was introduced at the 1927 Legislature in January but failed of passage.

Those interested in retirement legislation in Idaho are attempting to foster the idea of a retirement system. For some time actuarial information had been lacking. The Idaho State Teachers' Association has had a committee cooperating in the study of the personnel and conditions in the teaching profession, and of the retirement laws of other states. The State Department now has the records of practically all the teachers in the

state; the information necessary as a basis for a sound retirement law is in process of tabulation. It was found that the movement was not backed whole-heartedly by the teachers. Publicity has been given the movement and an official ballot is printed in *The Idaho Teacher* of March, 1927, calling for expressions concerning a teacher retirement law and the provisions of such a law.

With a view to securing at some time in the future a teacher retirement law for Florida, a committee appointed at a principals' conference has drawn up a tentative law which the Florida Education Association executive committee is to print and distribute over the state for study. The plan of procedure outlined by the committee included: Securing appropriation to cover cost of actuarial survey, a survey by a competent actuary, drafting a law based on results of the actuarial survey, submission to the 1927-28 district meetings and state assembly of the Florida Education Association for adoption, and, if adopted, securing the necessary legislative support and enactment in 1929.

A bill to establish a state-wide retirement system for Delaware was drawn up with the cooperation of the Carnegie Foundation, but failed of passage in the State Legislature.

A Year of Progress

Considered as a whole, the past year has been one of progress in respect to teacher retirement legislation. The wisdom of providing sound teacher retirement systems is more generally recognized than ever before. Just as progressive industries have recognized that business efficiency is increased by the adoption of sound plans for the retirement of superannuated employees, progressive state school systems are recognizing that teaching efficiency is increased by the adoption of sound plans for the retirement of teachers. The sound teacher retirement systems already in effect are being improved. Careful study is being made of the less well-established systems with a view to placing them on a sound basis. A number of states which have no provision for teacher retirement have definite plans which promise to remedy the situation. The measures being proposed in these latter cases are nearly all of the sound type.

We may confidently look forward to the time when every state in the Union will recognize the wisdom of establishing a sound plan for the retirement of disabled or superannuated teachers.

TEACHER TENURE IN THE UNITED STATES

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CHAIRMAN

Teacher Tenure Defined

In analyzing prevailing conditions as to the length of time teachers are employed there appear to be these four types of tenure.

1. *Tenure at pleasure of employing board*—Under this form of tenure

there is no contract and a teacher can be dismissed at any time. This plan has been practically abandoned in favor of the annual contract.

2. *Specific contract following election*—In the case of the superintendent of schools, the contract is often from one to five years. In the case of teachers, in most communities elections are held annually and contracts are for one year only. Under the annual election plan every teacher, principal, and superintendent is automatically out of a position at the close of every school year, and the burden rests upon them to see that the school board re-employs them, instead of the burden resting upon the school board to dismiss those it does not want to retain and explain their reasons for so doing.

In the absence of tenure legislation, the court decisions throughout the United States hold that the specific contract type is almost universal.

3. *Indefinite tenure*—Under this plan annual elections cease for all time, the teacher being merely continued in the service from year to year without any action on either side, and until such time as the board, for cause, and upon the recommendation of the superintendent shall see fit to terminate the contract.

The assumption on the part of both parties to the contract is that the teacher will continue to serve in a particular school district as long as such service is competent and faithful, provided, of course, such services are needed in the schools of the district.

Dismissals, of course, will continue to take place and will be at times necessary. They will, however, be the exception; and for the vast majority of teachers the question of the teacher's retention will not arise in the indefinite tenure plan. Indefinite tenure contemplates the dismissal or elimination of incompetent and unfit teachers by a method sufficiently easy to protect the children and the profession and sufficiently surrounded by guarantees to assure justice to the teacher.

4. *Permanent tenure*—This is virtually life tenure with guarantee against dismissal except in the event of a crime in violation of the political code. Indefinite tenure becomes permanent tenure when there is no possibility of eliminating the incompetent and unfit teacher. This type of tenure is the extreme at the opposite end of the scale from "tenure at the pleasure of the employing board."

What is the Real Problem?

The real problem is how to promote a sound and stable teaching profession in a manner compatible with the educational interests of society, the welfare and progress of pupils, and justice to teachers. Indefinite teacher tenure is the best method of solving this problem.

Tentative Statement of Principles Which Should Control the Framing and Operation of Tenure Laws

The following statement of twelve principles which should control the framing and operation of tenure laws is highly tentative. It is presented

for study and criticism by teachers' associations and laymen throughout the country. On the basis of this study and criticism it should be possible to arrive at a conclusion as to the worth of the twelve principles set forth.

1. *Tenure laws should be devised and administered in the interest of better instruction for children*—The child's interest, not the teacher's, should be given first consideration. A satisfactory system of tenure is usually just to both sides. It relieves the good teacher from anxiety for the future; it promotes contentment and stability; it protects the efficient teacher and weeds out the incompetent; and it promotes and encourages efficiency.

In the end, the interest of the teacher and the interest of the child are identical. Good teachers prosper in good schools. Schools are good when they provide instruction of high quality for children.

2. *Tenure laws should be accompanied by proper legal regulations governing training, certification, remuneration, and retirement allowances*—It is of little value to urge for tenure legislation unless there exist regulations governing the training and certification of teachers, which give ample assurance that only competent and well-trained teachers will be retained. Adequate salary schedules with specified increments over a period of years encourage teachers to continue their period of service and hence help to make tenure measures effective.

The existence of a system of adequate retirement allowances means that the tenure of a teacher, rendered incapable by old age, can be terminated and he is not left without means of financial support.

3. *Tenure laws should be devised and administered as a stimulus to better preparation and more efficient service on the part of teachers*—Indefinite tenure is entirely dependent on efficient service. The latter in turn is dependent on continued professional growth. No efficient teacher will object to having his work stand on its merits, after sufficient time has passed to show what he has accomplished.

4. *Indefinite tenure should be granted only upon evidence of satisfactory preliminary training, successful experience, and professional growth*—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 in those school systems where rating scales are in effect.

c. Evidence of professional spirit as shown by professional activity and continued study.

Training in service is the one means by which the teacher can continue to be equipped to give up-to-date, reliable instruction and training based on the modern methods. Hence the teacher, granted indefinite tenure, should be required to give continued evidence of professional growth. This makes tenure a reward for faithful and efficient service, rather than a guaranteed legislative right for all.

The community has a right to be protected against teachers who do not keep themselves intellectually alive, and who do not carry on the duties of their office with an ever-increasing efficiency.

5. *Indefinite tenure should be provided after successful experience during a probationary period of adequate length, usually two or three years*—Not all persons interested in teaching make good teachers. It sometimes happens that teachers who have done well in simple, easy situations, cannot adjust themselves to situations more complex. The employing district should be enabled to protect itself against the inception of teachers into its permanent ranks who cannot fully and satisfactorily meet the requirements of its system of instruction. To do this is equally a protection to the best teachers of the system and their standards of classroom procedure. All state tenure laws encourage this procedure.

6. *The right of dismissal should be in the hands of the appointing board*—The right to employ implies the right to dismiss. Since the board of education is the agency which employs the teacher, it would seem that it should also be the removing agency.

In the enactment of tenure measures by state legislatures, there is a slight tendency to provide for hearings before bodies not responsible for the administration of the school system. The employment and dismissal of teachers are administrative acts. No one but the employing board ought to make the final decision in cases of dismissal. The procedure preceding dismissal should be wholly fair, open and above board, and should provide for a decision upon the basis of the evidence submitted. But it is a serious error in school administration to remove from the hands of the administrative body responsible for the conduct of the schools, the responsibility for dismissal. When this is done, it impairs the single-headed, authoritative control of a school system by representatives of the people and their executives and divides the authority for the administration of the schools between the bodies concerned with the procedure of dismissal. This will in the end always result in injury to the schools.

7. *Laws establishing indefinite tenure should provide for the easy dismissal of unsatisfactory or incompetent teachers for clearly demonstrable causes; such as misconduct, incompetence, evident unfitness for teaching, persistent violation or refusal to obey laws, insubordination, neglect of duty, or malfeasance*—Easy dismissal of unfit teachers is the best protection to good teachers. It is the fundamental American right of children to be safeguarded against teachers who do not belong in the profession and who cannot uphold the highest standards of American schools. In the end, the success of tenure legislation depends upon this feature in the laws enacted.

8. *The proposed dismissal of a teacher on account of incompetence or neglect of duty should be preceded by a warning and specific statement in writing of defects*—The notice of dismissal should in itself be given under certain definite conditions which are just to both sides. In the first place, no

teacher should be liable to a termination of contract for failure to render satisfactory services who has not been notified of the deficiencies, and given an opportunity and reasonable assistance to remedy them.

Such employee may, on receipt of such notice, appeal to the dismissing authority, making such statements and giving such information as he feels may throw additional light upon his case.

If within a given time improvement does not result, sufficient to warrant the retention of the teacher, the superintendent should then recommend that written notice be served on the teacher, for specified reasons, to the effect that the board desires to terminate the contract with the teacher to take effect at the close of the school year. If the board approves, due notice should be given to the teacher, and when so served the contract with such teacher terminates at the end of such school year. Teachers not so notified continue in service from year to year.

9. *In cases of proposed dismissal, teachers should be granted right of hearing*—Should the teacher desire a hearing, adequate notice should be given for the preparation of the defense, and the hearing should be before the authority which is responsible for the appointments—the board of education.

For the sufficiency of the reasons for terminating the contract the superintendent and the board should be the sole judge, without the meddling of lawyers or the interference of the courts. The hearing should be so organized that legal technicalities will be reduced to a minimum. The vote should be by a majority of members of the board of education, not by a majority of a quorum.

When final authority lies with the board, despite such rebuttal as the teacher may present, the board has opportunity to control its schools.

10. *Teachers who do not desire to continue in their positions should give reasonable notice in writing of their intention*—No permanent teacher should cancel his indefinite contract during the school term for which said contract is in effect nor for a period of thirty days previous to the beginning of such school term unless such cancellation is mutually agreed upon.

11. *Suitable provision should be made for teachers already in service in putting tenure laws into operation*—When a tenure law is put into effect, it should apply to those who have been in the school system for some time (six years is suggested by certain writers), even though they do not have the preliminary training required under the new law.

12. *Indefinite tenure should be accorded to all classes of certificated school employees on status of teacher, at least*—Instability is a menace to all ranks of the teaching profession. A system of schools may be injured by the dismissal of a superintendent, a principal, or a teacher for other causes than professional failure. The challenge of the profession as a career is cheapened if the protection for all is not provided. The objectives of tenure, in the large, as they relate to teaching as a profession, make

for the unity of the profession and demand tenure as teachers for all its members who are meritorious.

Discussion of Foregoing Principles

The statement of the above principles was submitted to the one hundred members of the Tenure Committee. In the vast majority of cases all the principles were heartily agreed to. In fairness, however, to those individuals who did not agree with certain principles, the following statements, received in time to be included, are presented.

One member disagreed with the fourth principle, namely: "Indefinite tenure should be granted only upon evidence of satisfactory preliminary training, successful experience, and professional growth." He wrote:

All employment should carry indefinite tenure initially. The probationary period has some unfortunate consequences. It invites the dismissal of teachers at the close of the probationary period. It also produces an exaggerated sense of security on the part of the teacher after the probationary period has been fully passed.

In discussing this same principle, two members would have a probationary period of at least three years; three members would have it lengthened to five years; and still another to six years.

One member disagreed with Principle Number 8, namely: "The proposed dismissal of a teacher on account of incompetence or neglect of duty should be preceded by a warning and specific statement in writing of defects." He wrote:

Such warning would have a strong tendency to make trouble—in that it would invite the teacher warned to appeal to others for sympathy. A teacher is of mature mind and should be able to gauge conduct, without threat or threats, from those in authority.

This same member objected to Principle Number 11, namely: "Suitable provision should be made for teachers already in service in putting tenure laws into operation." He wrote as follows:

Standards should be set up and worked toward, not made to suit present conditions and qualifications of those already in service, worthy though they may be. Old teachers may be called upon to sacrifice somewhat for the benefit of the teaching profession. The idea of tenure legislation will gain confidence by a forward look.

One other member suggested that teachers in service or teachers who are employed in emergencies should not be given permanent tenure until they have met in a satisfactory way the minimum requirements for new teachers.

Several members pointed out, relative to Principle Number 9, that in cases of proposed dismissal, the teacher should be granted right of hearing only if he so desired. In other words, the hearing would not be compulsory, if the teacher did not want it.

Another member added that the hearing, when held, should be before the board of education—it should not be a public mass-meeting or referendum.

Arguments for Indefinite Tenure

1. *Indefinite tenure is in the interest of children because it decreases teacher turnover and adds to the stability of the teaching profession*—There seems to be much definite evidence that points clearly to the conclusion that indefinite tenure lessens teacher turnover. In large cities where the principle of tenure is operative, teacher turnover is much less than in rural communities. (See Pages 14 and 15, Tables 1 and 2 of this report.)

In these thirty-one cities of 100,000 and above in the United States, the annual turnover in the group having state tenure laws is only four percent; in the group having no state tenure laws, the annual turnover averages six percent.

Indefinite tenure is guaranteed by practice in nearly all large cities of the United States. In thirteen states, as shown later in this report, it is guaranteed by state law. In numerous cities of other states, it is established by definite rule of the board; in other cities it has become an established practice through the pressure of public sentiment concerning the dismissal of teachers. Even where no state law exists, boards of education and superintendents are usually restrained from unjust dismissals by the attitude of the public.

But in rural communities, this is not the case. Compare rural turnover with the turnover in the cities mentioned above. A few significant facts are presented below:

¹ *Nebraska*: (Rural schools only) 64 percent of teachers new in their positions 1925-26. Only 12 percent serving third year or more in their respective positions 1925-26.

² *Washington*: (One and two room schools) 76.9 percent of teachers new in their positions 1921-22. Only 6 percent of the teachers serving third year or more in their respective positions 1921-22.

³ *Wisconsin*: Rural teacher turnover 65 percent to 68 percent over three-year period.

There can be no question but that the facts support the conclusion that indefinite tenure makes for stability in the teaching corps.

2. *Indefinite tenure is in the interest of children because state school systems in which indefinite tenure laws have been operative rank among the highest in professional standards in the United States*—New Jersey has had a state tenure law since 1910. Its educational rank among the states is "2." Massachusetts has had a tenure law since 1913. Its rank is "12."

¹ Survey by Nebraska State Teachers Association.

² Survey by Washington State Teachers Association.

³ Survey by C. J. Anderson, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Wisconsin.

California has had a tenure law since 1921. Its rank is "1." ¹(Ayres' Standards.)

3. *Indefinite tenure of teachers is in the interest of children because it tends to attract a better personnel into the calling of teaching*—As a rule, able young people seek an occupation which offers a career, brings an adequate economic competency, and is permanent. The elements of permanency and the opportunity for a career frequently over-balance the argument for economic returns.

Teaching has offered in the past little or no opportunity for a career, and no permanency. Able young people have long used it as a stepping stone to some more inviting calling. Witness the number of persons of recognized prominence who have spent a few years of their earlier lives teaching school. Indefinite tenure tends to add the element of permanency; hence as a calling it becomes more attractive and inviting to able young people. (See Table 6, page 20 of this report.)

4. *Indefinite tenure of teachers is in the interest of children because it creates a professional reward for self-improvement and growth in teaching ability*—Assurance of permanency after the probationary period is past is a great inducement to teachers to seek professional recognition, and the economic reward which comes with promotion.

This argument is psychologically sound and is based on an optimistic view of teachers and their faith in the profession. The records of the teaching corps of cities which have had tenure for many years show the strength of this argument. These records reveal a continuous program of professional improvement in almost every instance.

Arguments against indefinite tenure are based on the theory that fear is the ruling human motive and that teachers do their best when fear of dismissal or loss of contract hangs over them. These arguments are demonstrably unsound.

5. *Indefinite tenure is in the interest of children because it protects the great body of good teachers from attack on personal and political grounds and establishes them as a permanent and professional working body whose chief motive is the improvement of teaching and the welfare of the schools*—The report of this Committee in July, 1924, recounted a number of cases of flagrant political attacks upon school administrations and teaching corps in large cities. In several of these cases, groups of teachers of excellent merit were dismissed for their support of the school administration or their advocacy of the rights of teachers and the cause of the public schools. Within the past year, several superintendents of unquestioned ability and professional standing have been deprived of their positions without good cause being shown.

In rural communities thousands of teachers are forced to change posi-

¹ Phillips, Frank M. "Educational Ranking of States by Two Methods," *School Board Journal*, December, 1924 pp. 47-49.

tions because local boards of trustees are human and develop a dislike for the teacher on personal grounds or desire to replace him with a relative or friend. In the multitude of instances classified under these several types of cases, it is the schools and the children that suffer. A permanent professional teaching staff is the most necessary factor in the development and maintenance of good schools.

Indefinite tenure protects the teaching staff of city school systems against disturbance and disruption resulting from political attack. It enables the teaching corps to develop natural leadership from within its own ranks, and hence to carry out a program of professional improvement for its members. The instruction of children and the progress of education can go forward best when a corps of teachers is thus free to develop the genius within its own ranks.

Likewise, in rural schools the continuance of good teachers in their positions is the best assurance of able instruction for children. Good teachers will not go to situations not permanent. Rural boards, if compelled to keep good teachers, will finally develop for their communities a program for the development of a high type of instruction for their children.

6. Indefinite tenure is in the interest of the community because a permanent teacher contributes much more to the community than a transient— A teacher is a citizen. He ought to identify himself with the important movements and issues of his community. If qualified to be a teacher, he is qualified to be a leader. A community can ill afford not to place a premium upon the continuance in the community of those who can contribute to its growth and progress. If teachers are to be transients by prevalent practice, the community and its progress are the losers.

The school is as much a factor in the prosperity and economic soundness of the community as any of its financial, industrial, or commercial institutions. The school leaders should be among those who permanently participate in affairs of the community and help shape its policies.

7. Indefinite tenure makes for a careful method of appointing teachers and does away with annual elections in which there is little pressure on selecting committees to exercise extreme care in making appointments— Boards of education, administrators, and teachers themselves at present regard the importance of the teaching profession altogether too lightly. To elect a teacher to a position is a comparatively inconsequential act. The teacher may be changed easily if a mistake is made. Under the prevailing yearly contract plan, which is almost universal in states having no special tenure legislation, a new teacher may replace the present one at the end of the year.

When teaching becomes a true profession and the position a permanent one during the good behavior and successful conduct of his office by the teacher, the changing of a teacher will take on at least the importance of selecting a shop foreman.

Arguments Against Indefinite Tenure Presented by Its Opponents

1. *It is argued that indefinite tenure retains the inefficient teacher in service by making it impossible to discontinue teachers at the end of yearly contracts*—In some of the states, groups of superintendents, of classroom teachers, and especially boards of trustees, hold that the schools will be injured and that instruction will suffer by the retention of teachers who, in the judgment of the employing authority, such as a rural board of trustees, should not be continued. As has been shown, probably some teachers would be retained in service who might be replaced by better teachers if indefinite tenure were practiced everywhere.

The outstanding evidence upon this point is the comparison between the efficiency of rural school systems and of large city school systems. In the large city school systems cited in the pages of this report, indefinite tenure is almost universally practiced. There could hardly be a question but that the teaching staff in these systems is more efficient, and that a less percentage of the teachers are poor teachers than in the sections of the country where tenure by yearly contract only prevails.

2. *It is further argued that bodies and groups of teachers protected by tenure cease to grow professionally*—This argument is based upon the theory that fear of dismissal is the strongest motive to professional improvement. Some teachers, principals, and even superintendents contend that the stimulus to make good offered by the decision of a board to employ or to dismiss at specific periods is necessary to maintain consistent professional growth, and that a teaching corps with this stimulus removed becomes static and dead intellectually and professionally.

The best evidence upon this point is to be found in what teaching bodies so protected by tenure have actually done. If it can be shown that such teaching bodies as the teaching corps of the State of Massachusetts, which has been protected by tenure since 1913, or the teaching staff of New Jersey, which has been covered by indefinite tenure since 1910, have deteriorated, then there probably would be some weight to this argument. The evidence seems to be wholly upon the other side.

3. *It is further maintained that to grant a hearing places the superintendent on trial rather than the incompetent teacher*—Some superintendents feel that they will not be able to substantiate before a public hearing the complaints filed against teachers. They maintain that the schools suffer because they cannot rid themselves of teachers who can hire a lawyer and jeopardize the position of the superintendent. This argument is valid in cases where the superintendent has little evidence and no courage on his side. Court decisions in cases affecting the dismissal of teachers show definitely that hearings where valid evidence is submitted result finally in the dismissal of the teacher who is truly incompetent.

4. *It is contended that competent teachers have all the tenure they need now and others should not have it*—As stated, this argument is a clever political slogan. The evidence from the great mass of the teaching bodies

of the country shows that good teachers in most of the states, especially in small towns and rural districts, do not have tenure at all, and the great turnover in such districts clearly points to the fact that often other considerations than merit in teaching determine the permanency or lack of permanency of teachers in their positions.

A Comparison of Teacher Turnover in Large Cities Committed to The Principle of Indefinite Tenure with Teacher Turnover in Rural Communities

Teacher Turnover in Cities of 100,000 Population or More

The Committee requested data from the superintendents of schools in all cities of the United States of 100,000 population or more (census 1920) upon the following points:

1. Total number of teachers employed
2. Average number of teachers leaving each year for some other occupation or profession during the last five years.

The returns to this inquiry are shown in Tables 1 and 2. In the case of cities in states having tenure laws, the average number of teachers leav-

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF TEACHERS LEAVING THE TEACHING PROFESSION IN CITIES OF 100,000 POPULATION OR MORE IN STATES HAVING TENURE LAWS¹

City	Number of teachers	Average number each year leaving for some other occupation or profession during last five years	Percent
Baltimore, Md.	3,274	101	3.0
Camden, N. J.	750	92	12.0
Denver, Colo.	1,579	96	6.0
Fall River, Mass.	669	30	4.0
Milwaukee, Wis.	2,200	50	2.0
New Bedford, Mass.	688	2	.3
New Orleans, La.	1,640	4	.2
Newark, N. J.	2,348	15	.6
New York, N. Y.	31,844	1,300	4.0
Oakland, Calif.	1,778	85	5.0
Rochester, N. Y.	1,923	45	2.0
Springfield, Mass.	1,004	75	7.0
Trenton, N. J.	728	2	.3
Total	50,425	1,897	
Average			4.0

¹ Data supplied by city superintendents of schools.

ing each year over a five-year period is four percent of the total corps. In the case of those cities in states having had no tenure laws, the average

number leaving each year over a five-year period is six percent of the total corps.

This difference can hardly be regarded as significant, since most of these cities in states having no state-wide tenure laws have indefinite tenure either by local board of education rule or by common consent of public sentiment. The real significance of this low rate of turnover is seen when compared with the rate of 60 percent to 76 percent in the rural districts of some of the same states. (See Tables 3 and 4.)

TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF TEACHERS LEAVING TEACHING PROFESSION IN CITIES OF 100,000 POPULATION OR MORE IN STATES NOT HAVING TENURE LAWS¹

City	Number of teachers	Average number each year leaving for some other occupation or profession during last five years	Percent
Akron, Ohio.....	1,143	6	.5
Atlanta, Ga.....	1,399	98	7.0
Birmingham, Ala.....	1,278	150	12.0
Bridgeport, Conn.....	849	67	8.0
Dayton, Ohio.....	1,023	30	3.0
Des Moines, Iowa.....	970	4	.4
Detroit, Mich.....	5,856	255	4.0
Grand Rapids, Mich.....	1,107	60	5.0
Kansas City, Kans.....	700	70	10.0
Minneapolis, Minn.....	2,527	200	8.0
Nashville, Tenn.....	537	16	3.0
Norfolk, Va.....	798	101	13.0
Providence, R. I.....	1,424	3	.2
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	865	80	9.0
Scranton, Pa.....	872	40	5.0
Spokane, Wash.....	750	110	15.0
St. Paul, Minn.....	1,373	33	2.0
Wilmington, Del.....	533	28	5.0
Total.....	24,004	1,351	
Average.....			6.0

¹ Data supplied by city superintendents of schools.

Teacher Turnover in Rural Communities

In the rural communities described below no tenure law is operative. Tenure by contract or at the pleasure of the board is the only protection afforded the children and the teaching staff. Indefinite tenure by board rule or by common consent is seldom if ever applied.

TABLE 3.—LENGTH OF SERVICE IN PRESENT POSITIONS OF TEACHERS IN NEBRASKA RURAL SCHOOLS—1925-26¹

Teachers reported for Nebraska rural schools	Number of years teachers have been in same school										
	1 yr.	2 yr.	3 yr.	4 yr.	5 yr.	6 yr.	7 yr.	8 yr.	9 yr.	10 plus yr.	Total
	1,613	624	162	57	18	11	4	2	2	27	2,520
Percent...	64.0	24.8	6.4	2.3	.7	.4	.2	.1	.1	1.1	100

Figures at head of columns indicate the number of years—including this year—that teachers have been in the same school they are in this year. Figures in vertical columns indicate number of teachers who have been in their present position the number of years indicated at head of column; "1 yr." at head of column means the teachers reported are now teaching their *first year* in present positions.¹

TABLE 4.—LENGTH OF SERVICE IN PRESENT POSITIONS OF TEACHERS IN WASHINGTON RURAL SCHOOLS—1921-22²

Type of school	Percentage of teachers in position for					
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year	5th year	Over 5th year
One- and two-room rural schools.....	76.9	17.4	3.7	.9	.4	.6

Teacher turnover in Wisconsin—"Another survey of the 'Status of Teachers in Wisconsin,' by C. J. Anderson, Assistant State Superintendent of Public Instruction, furnishes even more extreme revelations. His report shows yearly changes in positions to be as follows: Rural teachers, 65 percent to 68 percent over a three-year period."³

Teacher turnover in the United States—Keith and Bagley, writing on "The Nation and the Schools,"⁴ describe the rural-school teachers as "transient in the calling." These data from the U. S. Bureau of Education are presented:

The Federal Commissioner of Education estimated the number of recruits needed for this service in a single year (1918-1919) as 130,000—an annual "turn-

¹ Data gathered by Executive Office of Nebraska State Teachers Association.

² Data gathered by Washington State Teachers Association.

³ Extract from Report of Committee of One Hundred on Problem of Tenure—July, 1924.

⁴ Keith, John A. H., and Bagley, William C., *The Nation and the Schools*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1920, p. 211.

over" of one in three. In one of the most prosperous of the middle western states, the Bureau of Education reports the average term of service of the rural-school teacher to be not more than two years.

The Status of Teacher Tenure Legislation in the United States

Thirteen states and the District of Columbia have teacher tenure laws—These are listed in Table 5. Four states passed teacher tenure laws during the current year, namely, California, Indiana, Minnesota, and Montana. Twelve additional states report that they have plans under way looking forward to teacher tenure legislation in the next legislature.

Principal provisions of state teacher tenure laws—The general intent of all state teacher tenure laws seems to be to guarantee to teachers security of position during good behavior and efficiency.

Among the most common features of these laws are the following:

1. Probationary period—1 to 5 years
2. A hearing before the employing board
3. Such hearing must be concluded and a decision in writing stating the grounds on which it is based rendered within a specified number of days after the giving of such notice
4. Right of counsel for teachers
5. Specific causes for dismissal
 - a. Immoral or unprofessional conduct
 - b. Incompetence
 - c. Evident unfitness for service
 - d. Persistent violation of or refusal to obey the school laws of the state, or reasonable rules prescribed for the government of public schools
6. Due notice in writing by governing board to permanent teacher against whom charges have been preferred

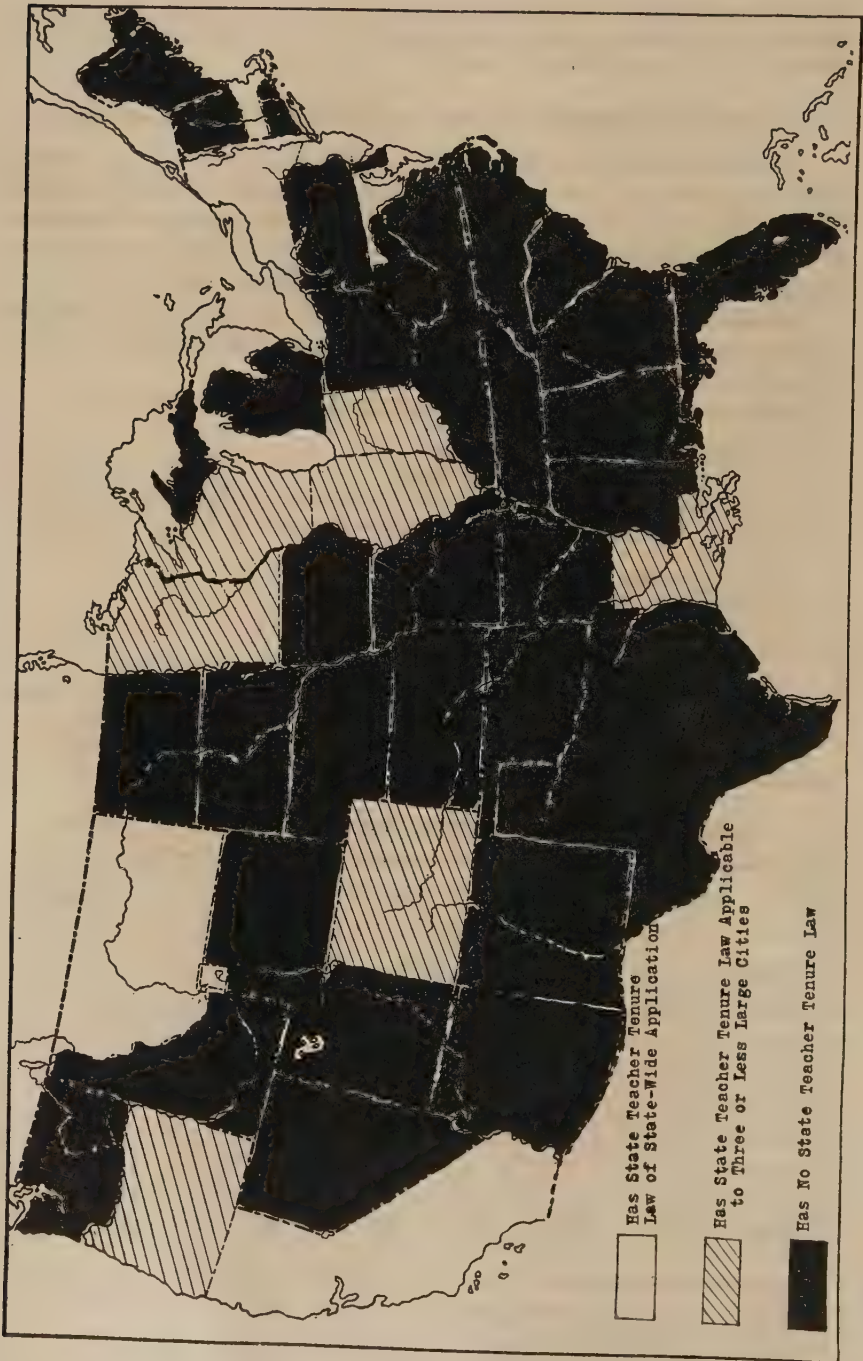
TABLE 5.—STATES HAVING TEACHER TENURE LAWS

State	Where law applies	Year enacted
California.....	State-wide.....	1927 ¹
Colorado.....	Districts with 20,000 or more inhabitants.....	1921
District of Columbia..	Throughout the District.....	1924
Illinois.....	Any district with 100,000 or more inhabitants.....	1919
Indiana.....	State-wide.....	1927
Louisiana.....	New Orleans.....	1922
Maryland.....	State-wide.....	1921
Massachusetts.....	Entire state except Boston.....	1914
Minnesota.....	Cities of the first class.....	1927
Montana.....	State-wide.....	1927 ²
New Jersey.....	State-wide.....	1910
New York.....	State-wide except for rural teachers.....	1917
Oregon.....	Districts of 20,000 or more inhabitants.....	1913
Wisconsin.....	Cities of the first class.....	1921

¹ A previous law enacted in 1921 applied only to districts with eight or more teachers. It was amended by the last legislature.

² A previous law was enacted in 1919. It was amended by the last legislative assembly.

STATE TEACHER TENURE LAWS



7. No teacher who has been lawfully dismissed shall receive compensation for services rendered thereafter, or for any period of lawful suspension followed by dismissal.

For the aid of legislative committees, the texts of the California, Indiana, and Minnesota state teacher tenure laws passed by the 1927 state legislatures are included in this report. For texts of the eleven state teachers tenure laws in effect previous to 1924 see pages 170-174 of the *Research Bulletin*, Vol. II, No. 5, November, 1924, National Education Association.

Data Showing Number of Young People Entering the Teaching Profession from Among the High School Graduates of the United States

Two important means for school improvement—Recruiting the brightest minds among our high school graduates for the teacher-training institutions is one of the chief means of improving public education. A second means of improving teaching is retaining these able young people in the teaching profession after they are trained. To ascertain the percentage of high school graduates who enter teacher-training institutions, and to discover whether or not these institutions are recruiting the brightest minds from among the high school graduates, the Tenure Committee sent an inquiry blank to several hundred principals of high schools, which, in 1924, according to the records of the U. S. Bureau of Education, had an enrolment of 1000 or more students. These three questions were asked:

1. What was the total number of pupils graduating from your school during the school year 1925-1926?
2. How many of these were preparing to be teachers?
3. How many of the ablest twenty-five percent of the class were preparing to be teachers?

Replies were received from 229 high school principals, giving data relative to 64,266 high school graduates in thirty-four states for the year 1925-1926. Table 6 summarizes these data by states. It shows that twelve percent of the high school graduates, from 229 high schools having an enrolment of 1000 or more students, are preparing to be teachers. It also shows that twenty-one percent of the ablest twenty-five percent are preparing to be teachers. These figures are encouraging. If approximately one out of every four of the ablest twenty-five percent of our high school graduates is among those preparing to be teachers, conditions relative to the teaching profession must be made such as will retain these capable young people in the profession.

School boards would do well to analyze their local situations to discover which of the following causes of brief and uncertain teacher tenure are exerting the greatest influence in their communities:

1. Economic:

- a. Inadequate salaries
- b. No provision for old age or disability

TABLE 6.—NUMBER OF GRADUATES, FROM 229 HIGH SCHOOLS, PREPARING TO BE TEACHERS, 1925-1926¹

State	Number of high schools reporting which have an enrolment of 1,000 or more pupils ²	Total number of graduates 1925-1926 from schools reporting	Number preparing to be teachers ³	Number of the ablest twenty-five percent preparing to be teachers ³	Percent number of ablest twenty-five percent preparing to be teachers is of total number preparing to be teachers	Percent of ablest twenty-five percent preparing to be teachers
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
United States.....	229	64,266	7,902	3,367	42.61	20.96
Alabama.....	4	1,014	68	40	58.82	15.81
Arizona.....	2	452	48	31	64.58	27.43
Arkansas.....	2	279	22	7	31.82	10.15
California.....	17	5,025	509	216	42.44	17.20
Colorado.....	1	178	23	3	13.04	6.82
Connecticut.....	5	1,669	194	71	36.60	17.03
Dist. of Columbia....	5	1,627	120	43	35.83	10.59
Florida.....	2	378	21	16	76.19	17.02
Georgia.....	1	241	24	6	25.00	10.00
Illinois.....	17	4,682	328	156	47.56	13.33
Indiana.....	9	2,000	310	154	49.68	30.80
Iowa.....	6	1,327	156	66	42.31	19.94
Kansas.....	1	322	52	52	100.00	65.00
Kentucky.....	2	412	50	33	66.00	32.04
Maryland.....	2	688	70	32	45.72	18.61
Massachusetts.....	17	5,396	545	318	58.35	23.57
Michigan.....	15	4,847	871	478	54.88	39.47
Minnesota.....	3	865	80	44	55.00	20.37
Missouri.....	6	1,513	128	62	48.44	16.40
Nebraska.....	2	644	53	28	52.83	17.39
New Hampshire.....	1	257	24	7	29.17	10.94
New Jersey.....	9	1,926	319	81	25.39	16.84
New York.....	27	9,050	1,610	524	32.55	23.17
North Carolina.....	1	166	40	25	62.50	60.98
Ohio.....	23	6,638	439	196	44.65	11.82
Oklahoma.....	4	1,063	112	47	41.97	17.74
Oregon.....	4	1,165	159	45	28.30	15.46
Pennsylvania.....	19	5,406	927	375	40.45	27.76
Rhode Island.....	2	346	40	11	27.50	12.79
South Dakota.....	1	205	24	8	33.33	15.69
Utah.....	2	668	75	40	53.33	23.95
Virginia.....	1	396	45	15	33.33	15.15
Washington.....	9	2,057	178	80	44.94	15.57
Wisconsin.....	7	1,364	238	57	23.95	16.72

¹ In some instances the high school principals reporting stated that the figure which they gave only represented number attending normal school or teachers college; other students entering university may later become teachers.

² In making any comparison by states, it should be remembered that the number of high schools reporting from different states varied greatly—hence the basis of comparison is not the same.

³ The numbers submitted by high school principals were in certain cases estimated or approximated.

2. Political:

- a. Arbitrary dismissal by school boards
- b. Operation of the spoils system, with attendant appointments as political reward, and dismissal for punishment

3. Professional:

- a. Lack of training and professional ideals
- b. Uncertainty of tenure
- c. Dissatisfaction with supervision and administration, and similar elements in the teaching situation

4. Social:

- a. Teachers judged by unscientific standards, and lack of freedom of expression
- b. Community and individual prejudice
- c. Poor living conditions
- d. Lack of appreciation and recognition
- e. Marriage

5. Personal:

- a. Inability and unwillingness to cooperate
- b. Desire for change
- c. Ill-health
- d. Desire to make more money

Many of these causes are difficult to measure. A few are beyond the powers of a local school board to remedy. One definite way, however, by which teacher tenure can be stabilized is through legislation.

Annotated Bibliography—Articles Appearing During 1926-1927

For a selected annotated bibliography of articles on the subject of teacher tenure published previous to November, 1924, see *Research Bulletin*, Vol II, No. 5, November, 1924, of the National Education Association. For a similar bibliography of articles published up to May, 1926, see the 1926 Report of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure of the National Education Association.

Anderson, Earl William, *The Teacher's Contract and Other Legal Phases of Teacher Status*, Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 246, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1927, 180 p.

An analysis of numerous teacher contract forms, local rules and regulations, state laws, and legal decisions, to find out:

What uses do local boards of education make of contract forms and of rules and regulations in restricting teachers? To what extent may a teacher be legally so restricted by contract? What are the state laws affecting the relationships of teachers and boards of education, and what are the trends of these laws? What is the optimum board-teacher relationship?

Chamberlain, Arthur H., "Teacher Tenure in the Legislature," *Sierra Educational News*, Vol. 23, No. 4, April, 1927, p. 204.

Urges support of the tenure bill before the California legislature and shows wherein this bill differs from preceding tenure measures.

Cincinnati Teachers' Association, *Official Bulletin*, May 27, Tenure 1921-1929, Cincinnati Teachers' Association, Cincinnati, Ohio.

History of four unsuccessful legislative campaigns for indefinite teacher tenure in Ohio. Undaunted—their slogan is: "Tenure Statewide in 1929."

Crabtree, J. W., "The Principles of Teacher Tenure," *Nebraska Educational Journal*, Vol. VI, No. 10, December, 1926.

Names these as the features embodied in broadly conceived program of teacher tenure:

a. Only graduates of well-equipped teacher-training institutions, fully recommended for teaching by these institutions, are allowed to enter teaching even for trial as probationary teachers.

b. All teachers are on probation for an adequate period—two years or more—during which time they must demonstrate that they have become successful teachers.

c. After the probationary period has passed all teachers are placed on indefinite tenure during efficiency—that is, they continue to hold their places without annual re-election as long as they render efficient service or until dismissed for just and stated cause.

d. The procedure for terminating indefinite tenure is such that the right of school boards to dismiss inefficient teachers for proved inefficiency is safeguarded while the efficient teacher is given certain safeguards which protect him from the worst of the degrading and respect-destroying evils of the "hire and fire" policy.

Ditto, George, "Teacher Tenure," *The Mississippi Educational Advance*, Vol. 18, No. 5, February, 1927.

Presents data as to teacher turnover and summarizes the principal features in existing tenure laws.

Fish, Florence, "Tenure," *Journal of the Minnesota Education Association*, Vol. 6, No. 9, December, 1926.

Summarizes the provisions of the Teachers' Tenure Law passed at the last session of the Minnesota legislature.

Fish, Florence, "Tenure—Questions and Answers," *Journal of the Minnesota Education Association*, Vol. 7, No. 1, January, 1927.

Lists ten questions frequently asked concerning the Tenure Bill before the last session of the Minnesota legislature, and presents definite and concise answers.

Hunter, Fred M., "Teacher Tenure in the United States," National Education Association, *Volume of Addresses and Proceedings*, 1926, pp. 202-222.

Complete report of the Committee of One Hundred on the Problem of Tenure of the National Education Association presented at the Philadelphia meeting in July, 1926.

Reviews work of the National Education Association's Tenure Committee, presents data as to teacher turnover, and reviews recent literature on the subject of teacher tenure.

Indiana Teacher, "Teacher Tenure," *The Indiana Teacher*, Vol. 71, No. 7, March, 1927, pp. 7-9.

Presents the entire text of Indiana's new teacher tenure law and also the picture of Governor Jackson signing the law.

Indiana Teacher, "What Other States Think of Tenure Law," *The Indiana Teacher*, Vol. 71, No. 8, April, 1927, pp. 14-15.

Letters from secretaries of state teachers' associations congratulating the teachers of Indiana on the passage of their tenure law.

Jarvis, Paul G. H., "Recent Supreme Court Decisions on Teacher Contracts," *School and Society*, Vol. 24, Nos. 606 and 607, August 7, 1926, and August 14, 1926.

Reviews court decisions relative to teachers' contracts in many states, including Minnesota, Texas, and Iowa. Data presented are based on a large number of actual court cases and are most illuminating in the variation of practices revealed in different states.

Johnson, Ruth M., "Permanent Tenure for Rural Teachers," *New York State Education*, Vol. 14, No. 7, March, 1927, p. 443.

States that rural conditions furnish arguments against permanent teacher tenure. Among the conditions cited are these: Every rural school district is an administrative unit by itself. There is no chance for the transfer of teachers to another building as in the city. Some school boards, rather than have a teacher indefinitely, will terminate her service at the end of the probationary period, thus increasing turnover.

Journal of the Louisiana Teachers' Association, "Teacher Tenure in the Public Schools of Louisiana," *Journal of the Louisiana Teachers' Association*, Vol. 4, No. 8, April, 1927, p. 35.

Presents the following data relative to teacher turnover in Louisiana as given in Superintendent Harris's report:

Fewer than 50 percent of the teachers in a single parish in the state, with the exception of Orleans, have been employed in the same school for a period as long as five years; and only 23 per cent of the teaching staff as a whole last session have been in the same positions for five years or more. The percentage of new teachers ranged from 69.1 percent in Beauregard to 14.6 percent in Orleans. In 14 of the parishes, more than 50 percent of the teachers were new during the last session, and in 16 parishes, the percentage of new teachers ranged from 40 percent to 50 percent.

Journal of the Minnesota Education Association, "Teacher Tenure Act," *Journal of the Minnesota Education Association*, Vol. 7, No. 4, April, 1927, pp. 109-111.

Gives the complete text of the Teacher Tenure Act passed by the legislature of Minnesota at the session of 1927.

Kinder, J. S., "A Few Notes On Teacher Tenure," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, Vol. 75, No. 10, April, 1927, pp. 545-546.

Presents data as to teacher turnover in a mid-western state. These data show that 41 percent of all superintendents, principals, and high school teachers were in their positions for the first year; 84.14 percent had been in their present positions less than five years. The author states:

One factor which helps in causing such teacher turnover is the fact that the state is organized on the district plan. Each small school district, with its local school board, rules supreme in its domain. It is a very diplomatic teacher who can please a majority of the school board year after year.

Little, M. R., Jr., "Retention of Teachers," *Georgia Education Journal*, Vol. 19, No. 2, February, 1927, p. 12.

Replies to a questionnaire sent to every part of the state of Georgia, including both small and large city systems, showed that the percent of teacher turnover ran all the way from 10 to 35 percent. Among the causes given were these: Salary and lack of preparation for the work, marriage, business, terms too short, better places, and better salaries. All the superintendents stated that the loss was greater in the one-, two-, and three room schools than in the consolidated schools.

These three defects of the present rural situation were emphasized: (1) poor living conditions for teachers, (2) poor working conditions—small room with little equipment and little cooperation, and (3) ignorant school boards.

Martin, T. D., "Teacher Tenure Legislation," *Journal of the Louisiana Teachers' Association*, Vol. 4, No. 5, January, 1927.

Points out the evil effects of annual elections, lists three arguments in favor of the adoption of tenure legislation, discusses the difficulties which sometimes arise in the operation of tenure laws, and points out the advantages of the proposed Pennsylvania tenure law.

Montana Education, "Teachers' Tenure Law as Amended," *Montana Education*, Vol. III, No. 7, April, 1927, p. 8.

Gives the text of the Montana teacher tenure law as amended by the last legislative assembly.

Pennsylvania School Journal, "Tenure Problems," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, Vol. 75, No. 3, November, 1926, p. 153.

A letter addressed to all members of the Pennsylvania State Education Association, by the Association's Committee on Tenure Problems, asking for a reply to these nine questions:

1. The Committee feels that the provision of law requiring the annual reelection of teachers makes the teacher a political rather than a technical officer of the state. Is this correct?

2. The Committee feels that this provision invites school boards to make changes in their teaching force. Is this correct?

3. The Committee feels that this provision causes teachers voluntarily to change their positions more often than they would otherwise do. Is this correct?

4. The Committee feels that this provision causes teachers much annual unrest and anxiety, thus lessening their efficiency. Is this correct?

5. The Committee suggests a change in law, substituting for an annual contract a contract without a time clause to remain in force so long as both parties are satisfied and to be terminated, on the one hand, by the teacher only after due and proper notice and at the close of a school term; or, on the other hand, by the board of school directors only after reasons have been presented and opportunity given for reply, and in the case of incompetence, ample time given for improvement. Is this reasonable?

6. Does this suggestion give proper protection to the competent teacher?

7. Does this suggestion conserve to school boards adequate control over the teachers in their employ?

8. Is this suggestion likely to reduce the present large annual turnover of teachers?

9. Is this suggestion more apt to be received favorably by school board members than a proposal for a tenure law similar to that of New Jersey or California?

Rowland, Albert Lindsay, "Tenure Problems Committee Report," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, Vol. 75, No. 6, February, 1927, p. 47.

Reports that the summary of replies to the nine questions on tenure submitted in the November, 1926, issue of the *Pennsylvania School Journal* are preponderantly affirmative.

Rowland, Albert Lindsay, "An Adequate Tenure Law for the Teachers of Pennsylvania," *Pennsylvania School Journal*, Vol. 75, No. 8, February, 1927, pp. 383-385.

Reviews the history of attempted tenure legislation in Pennsylvania, presents arguments for teacher tenure, and outlines the points which should be included in the text of a proposed tenure measure for Pennsylvania.

Deplores the fact that in some communities teachers are looked upon as political officers, elected to a public office the emoluments of which are valuable

and should be distributed as widely as possible. States that this pernicious practice should cease and that the welfare of the boys and girls attending the schools should be the sole consideration.

Washington Education Journal, " 'Old Pedagogue' on 'Teacher Tenure,' " Dad to Daughter Epistle, No. 5, *Washington Education Journal*, Vol. 6, No. 7, March, 1927, pp. 206-207.

Warns against "spring rover mood" of the teacher which causes her to shift from one position to another. Points out that divorce in the schoolroom, as in the home, may be at times a necessary evil, but it is certainly an evil.

Gives these figures on teacher turnover in the State of Washington: Annual turnover in the position is approximately 50 percent—higher in rural schools and less in city schools—and the turnover in the service about 25 percent.

Texts of California, Indiana, and Minnesota State Teacher Tenure Laws

(Passed by state legislatures in 1927)

California State Teacher Tenure Law

Boards of school trustees, and city, and city and county boards of education shall have the power and it shall be their duty:

First—To employ a principal for each school under their control, and they may employ a district superintendent for one or more schools employing eight teachers or more under their control. In each city school district governed by a city board of education, such board may employ a city superintendent of schools and such deputy or assistant city superintendents as it may deem necessary and fix and order paid their compensation unless the same be otherwise prescribed by law. Any deputy city superintendent of schools, or assistant city superintendent of schools, or district superintendent may be elected for a term of four years.

Second—To employ persons in public school service requiring certification qualifications, as provided in part *third* of this section; also to employ janitors and other employees of the school; to fix and order paid their compensation, unless the same be otherwise prescribed by law; *provided*, that no board shall enter into any contract with such employees, other than persons in positions requiring certification qualifications to extend beyond the close of the next ensuing school year; except that persons in positions requiring certification qualifications may be elected on or after May second for the next ensuing school year, and each person so elected shall be deemed reelected from year to year except as hereinafter specified; *provided*, that any person not under permanent tenure who shall fail to signify his acceptance within twenty days after notice of his election or employment shall have been given him by the clerk or secretary of the governing board of the school district, or shall have been mailed by the clerk or secretary of the governing board by depositing such notice in the United States post office, with postage thereon prepaid, addressed to such person at his last known place of address, shall be deemed to have declined the same. Any board of trustees, or city, or city and county board of education may arrange to pay the persons in positions requiring certification qualifications so employed by them in ten or eleven or twelve equal payments instead of by the school month; *provided*, *however*, that where the board of trustees or city or city and county board of education arranges to pay such persons so employed by them in twelve equal payments for the year, they shall begin such payments on the first day of the calendar month following the opening of schools for the current year. In all cases where school is not opened during the month of July, the board of trustees, or city board or city and county boards of education may withhold such warrant or warrants which may have fallen due prior to the opening of school until such

persons so employed by them shall have returned to the employment for which they were engaged by the board of school trustees or the city or city and county board of education and shall have resumed their respective duties, and then such payments shall be continued from month to month on the first day of each calendar month thereafter until said persons shall have been paid the full amount due to them for that fiscal year; *provided*, that a person in a position requiring certification qualifications, who serves less than a full school year is entitled to receive as salary only an amount that bears the same ratio to the established annual salary for such position as the time he serves bears to the annual school term; *provided*, that whenever the first day of the month falls upon a holiday, payment of salaries shall be made on the following day.

Third—(a) To employ, for positions requiring certification qualifications, only persons who hold legal certificates in full force and effect, and on file at the time of such appointment in the office of the county superintendent of schools, to serve as substitutes, probationary or permanent employees, and to give the county superintendent of schools immediate notice in writing of such employment on blanks furnished by the superintendent of public instruction, stating the name and address of each person thus employed.

(b) To fix and prescribe the duties to be performed by all persons in public school service in the school district.

(c) To classify as substitute employees those persons employed *in positions requiring certification qualifications* from day to day for less than one school year, to fill positions of regularly employed persons absent from service.

(d) To classify as probationary employees, those persons employed in positions requiring certification qualifications for the school year, and who have not been classified as permanent employees as hereinafter provided, such classification to be made at the time of employment, and thereafter in the month of July of each school year.

(e) *To classify as permanent employees all persons, except those hereinafter specified, who shall have been successfully employed by the district for two or three complete consecutive school years in positions requiring certification qualifications. Such classification shall be made at the end of either the second or third complete year of such employment at the option of the governing board of the district. No person employed in an administrative or supervisory position requiring certification qualifications shall be classified as a permanent employee other than as a classroom teacher.*

(f) To grant leaves of absence.

(g) To accept the resignation of any employee and to fix the time when such resignation shall take effect, which date shall not be later than the close of the school year during which such resignation shall have been received by such board.

(h) To dismiss substitute employees at any time at the pleasure of the board.

(i) To dismiss probationary employees during the school year for cause only, as in the case of permanent employees, except that on or before the tenth day of June in any year the governing board may give notice in writing to a probationary employee that his services will not be required for the ensuing year. Such notice shall be deemed sufficient and complete when delivered in person to such employee by the clerk or secretary of the governing board of the school district or deposited in the United States registered mail with postage prepaid, addressed to such employee at his last known place of address.

(j) To dismiss permanent employees in positions requiring certification qualifications, except as hereinafter provided only for one or more of the following causes, after a fair and impartial public hearing. Causes for dismissal are immoral or unprofessional conduct, incompetence, evident unfitness for service, persistent viola-

tion of or refusal to obey the school laws of California, or reasonable rules prescribed for the government of public schools.

Dismissal for cause shall be made only after the following provisions shall have been complied with: The governing board shall give at least ten days' notice in writing to any permanent employee against whom charges shall have been preferred, which notice shall state fully the charges, and the time when and the place where such hearing is to be held.

The governing board shall hold such hearing under reasonable rules which it shall adopt, and the employee against whom the charges shall have been preferred shall have the right to be represented by counsel, and to call witnesses on his own behalf and take their testimony at the hearing and to cross-examine all other witnesses who may testify at such hearing; *provided*, that such hearing shall be confined to charges only.

The board may dismiss any permanent employee after a hearing as in this section provided, upon proof of the charges covering any one or more of the causes for dismissal enumerated in this section, upon the affirmative vote of the majority of the board. No member of the board shall be qualified to vote who has not been present throughout the entire hearing. Such trial shall have been concluded and the decision rendered within ten days after the beginning of said trial.

It is hereby provided, however, that whenever it becomes necessary to decrease the number of permanent employees in a school district on account of the decrease in the number of pupils attending the schools of such district, or on account of the discontinuance of a particular kind of service in such district, the governing board may dismiss such employee at the close of the school year.

If the dismissal of such employee shall become necessary on account of the decrease in the number of pupils attending the schools of the district, such employee so dismissed shall be the *last* person engaged in the type of work so discontinued. If such service is reestablished within one year from the time of such discontinuance, the employee so dismissed shall have the preferred right to reappointment.

The board shall give any person who shall be dismissed under this proviso a statement of honorable dismissal.

Nothing in this act shall be construed so as to repeal or negate any provisions concerning employees of school districts contained in the charter of any city, county, or city and county heretofore or hereafter adopted and approved in conformity with Article XI of the constitution of this state.

All employments under the provisions of this section shall be subordinate to the right of the Legislature to amend or repeal this section at any time, and nothing herein contained shall ever be held, deemed or construed to confer upon any person employed pursuant to the provisions hereof a contract which will be impaired by the amendment or *repeal of this section*.

Fourth—To provide in cities, and in cities and counties, having boards of education, and in other districts employing thirty or more teachers, for the payment of the traveling expenses of any representative of the board of education, when performing services directed by said board.

Fifth—If any section, subsection, sentence, clause, or phrase of this act is for any reason held to be unconstitutional, such decision shall not affect the validity of the remaining portions of this act. The Legislature hereby declares that it would have passed this act and each section, subsection, sentence, clause, and phrase thereof irrespective of the fact that any one or more other sections, subsections, sentences, clauses, or phrases be declared unconstitutional.

Indiana State Teacher Tenure Law¹

SECTION 1. Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana, That any person who has served or who shall serve under contract as a teacher in any school corporation in the State of Indiana for five or more successive years, and who shall hereafter enter into a teacher's contract for further service with such corporation, shall thereupon become a permanent teacher of such school corporation. The term "teacher" as used in this section shall mean and include licensed public school teachers, supervisors and principals of all public school corporations, and licensed assistant superintendents and superintendents of school cities and towns. Upon the expiration of any contract between such school corporation and a permanent teacher, such contract shall be deemed to continue in effect for an indefinite period and shall be known as an indefinite contract. Such an indefinite contract shall remain in force unless succeeded by a new contract signed by both parties or unless it shall be cancelled as provided in section 2 of this act. Provided that teachers' contracts shall provide for the annual determination of the date of beginning and length of school terms by the school corporation, and provided further that teachers' contracts may contain provisions for the fixing of the amount of annual compensation from year to year by a salary schedule adopted by the school corporation and such schedule shall be deemed to be a part of such contracts; and further Provided, That such schedule may be changed by such school corporation on or before May 1st of any year, such changes to become effective at the beginning of the following school year: Provided, That all teachers affected by such changes shall be furnished with printed copies of such changed schedule within thirty days after its adoption.

SECTION 2. Any indefinite contract with a permanent teacher as defined in section 1 of this act may be cancelled only in the following manner: Not less than thirty days nor more than forty days before the consideration by any school corporation of the cancellation of any such contract, such teacher shall be notified in writing of the exact date, time when and place where such consideration is to take place; and such teacher shall be furnished a written statement of the reasons for such consideration, within five days after any written request for such statement; and such teacher shall, upon written request for a hearing, filed within fifteen days after the receipt by said teacher of notice of date, time and place of such consideration, be given such a hearing before the school board, in the case of cities and towns, and before the township trustee, in the case of townships; such hearing shall be held not less than five days after such request is filed and such teacher shall be given not less than five days' notice of the time and place of such hearing. Such teacher, at the hearing, shall have a right to a full statement of the reasons for the proposed cancellation of such contract, and shall have a right to be heard, to present the testimony of witnesses and other evidence bearing upon the reasons for the proposed cancellation of such contract. No such contract shall be cancelled until the date set for consideration of the cancellation of such contract; nor until after a hearing is held, if such hearing is requested by said teacher, nor until, in the case of teachers, supervisors, and principals, the city or town superintendents, in cities and towns, and the county superintendents, in townships and in cities and towns not having superintendents, shall have given the school corporation his recommendations thereon, and it shall be the duty of such superintendent to present such recommendations upon five days' written notice to him by such school corporation. Nothing contained in this section shall prevent the suspension from duty of any teacher pending

¹ Passed by the 1927 session of the state legislature and signed by the governor. The Indiana State Teachers Association sponsored the measure.

a decision on the cancellation of such teacher's contract. Cancellation of an indefinite contract of a permanent teacher may be made for incompetency, insubordination (which shall be deemed to mean a willful refusal to obey the school laws of this state or reasonable rules prescribed for the government of the public schools of such corporation), neglect of duty, immorality, justifiable decrease in the number of teaching positions or other good and just cause, but may not be made for political or personal reasons: Provided, That when the cause of cancellation of an indefinite contract is immorality or insubordination as defined in this act, such cancellation shall go into effect at once, and, Provided further, That when the cause of cancellation of an indefinite contract is not immorality or insubordination as defined in this act, such cancellation shall go into effect at the end of the school term following such cancellation. The school board of any city or town, by a majority vote, evidenced by a signed statement in the minutes of the board, or the township trustee, by a written and signed statement recorded in his records, may cancel an indefinite contract with a teacher after compliance with the provisions of this section: Provided, That the decision of the school board shall be final; and, Provided further, That the decision of the township trustee shall not become effective for ten days, during which time an appeal may be taken to the county superintendent, in which case the county superintendent shall investigate the case and make a final decision within five days.

SECTION 3. No teacher shall be appointed by any school corporation in Indiana, and no teacher shall become a permanent teacher in any such school corporation, until the superintendent, in the case of school cities and school towns, and the county superintendent, in the case of townships and school cities and towns not having superintendents, shall have made a report upon such teacher's preparation, experience, and license, and it shall be the duty of every such superintendent, within ten days after request, to make such report upon any person whom the school corporation is considering as an applicant: Provided, That nothing contained in this section shall be deemed to prevent the granting to any superintendent of additional authority in the selection and employment of teachers either by law or by the rules or regulations of any school corporation.

SECTION 4. No permanent teacher shall be permitted to cancel his indefinite contract during the school term for which his said contract is in effect nor for a period of thirty (30) days previous to the beginning of such school term unless such cancellation is mutually agreed upon; such permanent teacher shall be permitted to cancel his indefinite contract at any other time by giving a five days' notice to the school corporation. Any permanent teacher cancelling his indefinite contract in any other manner than in this section provided shall be deemed guilty of unprofessional conduct and the state superintendent is hereby authorized to suspend the license of such teacher for a period of not exceeding one year.

SECTION 5. Any school corporation, upon written request, may grant leaves of absence, for periods not exceeding one year, to any permanent teacher for study or professional improvement or because of physical disability or sickness, subject to such rules and regulations governing leave of absence as may be adopted by such corporation: Provided, That without written request any school corporation may place a permanent teacher on leave of absence for periods of not exceeding one year because of physical or other disability or sickness, provided that such teacher shall have a right to a hearing on such unrequested leave of absence in accordance with the provisions for hearings contained in section 2 of this act.

SECTION 6. This act shall be construed as supplementary to an act of the General Assembly, page 195, Acts 1921, entitled "An act concerning teachers' contracts and providing for the repeal of conflicting laws."

The Teacher Tenure Law of the State of Minnesota¹

For an Act to Regulate the Employment of Teachers in the Public Schools in Cities of the First Class and Fixing the Conditions Under Which They May Hold Their Positions or May Be Discharged or May Be Demoted.

Be it enacted by the Legislature of the state of Minnesota:

SECTION 1. The term "teacher" shall include every person regularly employed as a principal or to give instruction in a classroom, or to superintend or supervise classroom instruction, or as placement teacher and visiting teacher.

SECTION 2. The term "school board" shall include any and all boards or official bodies having the care, management or control over public schools; and the term "commissioner" shall include any and all instances where a single official has the care, management or control over public schools.

SECTION 3. The word "demote" shall mean to reduce in rank or to transfer to a lower branch of the service or to a position carrying a lower salary or compensation.

SECTION 4. All teachers in the public schools in cities of the first class in the state during the first three years of consecutive appointment shall be deemed to be in a probationary period of employment during which period any annual contract with any teacher may or may not be renewed as the school board or commissioner shall see fit. The school board or commissioner may during such probationary period discharge or demote a teacher for any of the causes as specified in Section 6. A written statement of the cause of such discharge or demotion shall be given to the teacher by the school board or commissioner at least thirty (30) days before such removal or demotion shall become effective, and the teacher so notified shall have no right of appeal therefrom.

SECTION 5. After the completion of such probationary period, without discharge, such teachers as are thereupon re-employed shall continue in service and hold their respective positions during good behavior and efficient and competent service and shall not be discharged or demoted except for one or more of the causes as specified in Section 6, and after a hearing as specified and provided in Section 7.

SECTION 6. Causes for the discharge or demotion of a teacher either during or after the probationary period shall be:

- a. Immoral character or conduct unbecoming a teacher.
- b. Failure without justifiable cause to teach without first securing the written release of the school board or commissioner having the care, management or control of the school in which the teacher is employed.
- c. Inefficiency in teaching or in the management of a school.
- d. Affliction with active tuberculosis or other communicable disease shall be considered as cause for removal or suspension while the teacher is suffering from such disability.
- e. On account of discontinuance of position or lack of pupils.

SECTION 7. The charge or charges against a teacher shall be in writing and signed by the person making the same, and then filed with the secretary or clerk of the school board or commissioner having charge of the school in which the teacher is employed. Such school board or commissioner before discharging or demoting a teacher shall then accord the teacher against whom such charge or charges have been filed a full hearing and shall give to said teacher at least ten (10) days' notice in writing of the time and place of such hearing; such notice may be served personally or sent by registered mail addressed to such teacher at

¹ Passed by the 1927 session of the state legislature and signed by the Governor. The Minnesota State Teachers' Association sponsored the measure.

his or her last known postoffice address; provided, that if said charge be made by any person in connection with said school system said charge may be disregarded by such school board or commissioner. Upon such hearing being held such school board or commissioner shall hear all evidence that may be adduced in support of the charge or charges and for the teacher's defense thereto. Either party shall have the right to have a written record of the hearing at the expense of the board and to have witnesses subpoenaed and all witnesses so subpoenaed shall be examined under oath. Any member of the school board or any commissioner conducting such a hearing shall have authority to issue subpoenas and to administer oaths to witnesses.

SECTION 8. Each party appearing before said school board or commissioner shall have the right to be represented by counsel, and such counsel may examine and cross-examine witnesses and present arguments.

SECTION 9. All hearings before said school board or commissioner shall be public or private at the decision of the teacher against whom such charge or charges have been filed.

SECTION 10. Such hearing must be concluded and a decision in writing, stating the grounds on which it is based, rendered within twenty-five (25) days after the giving of such notice. Where the hearing is before a school board the teacher may be discharged or demoted upon the affirmative vote of a majority of the members of said school board. If the charge or charges, or any of such, are found to be true the school board or commissioner conducting the hearing shall discharge, demote or suspend the teacher, as seems to be for the best interest of the school. Provided, that no teacher shall be discharged for either of the causes specified in Paragraph "c" of Section 6, except during the school year, and then only upon a charge or charges filed at least four (4) months before the close of the school sessions of such school year; such decisions of the school board or commissioner, as the case may be, shall be final.

SECTION 11. In all cases where the final decision is in the favor of the teacher the charge or charges shall be physically expunged from the records.

SECTION 12. Upon the filing of a charge or charges against a teacher the school board or commissioner may suspend the teacher from regular duty. If upon final decision the teacher is suspended or removed the school board or commissioner may in its or his discretion determine the teacher's salary or compensation as of the time of filing the charge or charges. If the final decision is favorable to the teacher there shall be no abatement of salary or compensation.

SECTION 13. Any teacher whose services are terminated on account of discontinuance of position or lack of pupils shall receive first consideration for other positions in the district for which he is qualified.

SECTION 14. The period of service rendered by teachers in the districts in which they are employed at the time this act becomes effective shall be considered in computing their probationary period.

SECTION 15. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.

SECTION 16. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after July 1, 1927.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

WILLIAM F. RUSSELL, DEAN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

Last summer at Philadelphia the report of the Committee on International Relations took the form of a description of what had been done

at Edinburgh, with two simple proposals to the incoming president of the Association.

The form the report takes today is an informal description of what we plan to do at Toronto a month hence.

The president of the Association acted speedily upon the recommendations. Our delegation was appointed in good season, with representatives from all the states of the union, and forms, in my judgment, an excellent representation of the nation.

In about a month from now our one hundred delegates will be seated in the huge auditorium on the campus of the University of Toronto, much as this group is seated here, but instead of having standards bearing the names Vermont, South Carolina, Oregon, Texas, there will be the banner bearing the name the National Education Association of the United States, the Education Association of Scotland, of Japan, of China, etc., as well as many other universities and organizations and smaller bodies, representing more isolated and less developed countries of the world.

Now, this group that sits here in this room represents localities and associations and organizations in various parts of the United States, and I do not think that any of us were sent here solely to enjoy the beauties of Seattle, solely to sail on this wonderful Puget Sound, or to wander up and down the streets, or solely to shake hands with one another. We are sent here primarily to learn, primarily to gain from our fellow members of our profession new ideas, new knowledge and new powers. We are not sent here to save the rest of the United States. We are not sent here to carry the message of progress from our state to some other place.

When I was even younger than I am now I went down from the country to teach in the south and to save the south, but I soon saw if I could save myself I would do well.

Now, I think the exact parallel between the relation of the important parts of the nation to this Association holds good, as between the relation of this Association to the World Federation of Education Associations.

Your committee had an interesting experience at Edinburgh. Your committee has had several meetings since, and it is our plan and our conviction that we shall go to Toronto in your interests. We are going there to learn what these other countries are doing. We are going to find out how their associations are run, how they are financed, how they function, what are the distinctive things there. We are going to find out about procedure and practice and the administration of health education and international sports and the teaching of history, and all types of things.

Your delegation is going to meet in advance of the main meeting and we are going to parcel out that whole huge meeting, assigning sections of it to particular delegates, who will be there to report what goes on.

What we want to do when we come back is to have you say "What about

this?" And we will say "What do you want to know?" And we will tell you.

Now, the idea will fall flat and will never get anywhere unless the National Education Association and the state education associations have something they want to know. Our financial investment in the World Federation of Education Associations, which amounts to one thousand dollars a year, will have little effect except the education of one hundred delegates, unless the National Education Association and the state associations profit from what your delegates have learned at Toronto.

I maintain that our group should be a real mine of information and a source of inspiration after they return from this meeting, and we can do better and serve your purposes better if in advance we can get some idea of what it is that you want to know.

I think every delegate at Toronto should be upon the programs of sections of the state associations and on programs of sections of the National Education Association itself.

Now, just another final word. We are going there with the motto of "What do you know?" rather than "I will tell the world." We are going there with the idea of learning, and I want to say in confidence that in my judgment that is the real way in which to gain international friendship and international goodwill.

I do not wish to be considered as deprecating talk about peace. I believe in peace and I believe in talking about it. I do not want to deprecate personal friendships you have made in other lands, because I, like you, have made them, and I understand how exceedingly pleasant and happy they are, but I do believe that the more one talks about certain things in life and certain customs between man and man, the less good it does. I think friendships among people come from those who have some interest in common. They have struggled with one another and argued with one another and have been helpful to each other.

The National Education Association delegate is going to work with that group; we will argue with them and fight with them and we will learn from them and they will learn from us, and on that basis in the long run will come mutual understanding and mutual interest among the teachers of these lands, which I think is a steady and a firm and sure step toward that international understanding which in the long run should bring peace and goodwill.

So then I hope you in the Representative Assembly here will formally approve the action of this committee, and you will uphold our hands and carry forward our policy, so that after we go to Toronto this time and as we go to other countries in future years we will not be an aimless group of tourists; that we will not be just a group of one hundred people out to see strange lands, but that we will be serious people earnestly seeking information which will enable us to answer questions of importance to our people back home.

*REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON VISUAL EDUCATION
FOR THE
NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION*

FRANK M. CODY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DETROIT, MICHIGAN

The Committee on Visual Education for the National Education Association wishes to report progress rather than conclusions. During the present year members of the committee have studied and submitted to the chairman problems in the field of visual education most in need of study and research. The chairman has consolidated the report in the following form to include the common problems which the members of the committee believe should be given consideration during the following year.

1. That research and study be carried on to discover the proper objectives for a broad program of visual education.

2. That an analytic study be made of the relative values in a general program of instruction of the following visual aids—slides, film slides, still films, auditorium films, classroom films, exhibits, photographs, and visual materials.

3. A study and report made of the degree of differentiation which should be made between visual material used for classroom instructional purposes and those used for auditorium or entertainment purposes.

4. That research should be carried on to determine the degree to which economy results in learning from the use of visual materials and to determine when visual aids should supplement, enrich, or be substituted for present instructional materials.

5. That a study be made to determine the degree to which visual education can be made a factor in bringing about local, national, and international relationships and common understanding.

6. That research be carried on in the field of the administration of visual education for the purpose of developing standards for the purchase of materials and equipment, and distribution, delivery, and care of such materials in a large school system.

7. That research and study be made to organize and set up a program of supervision accompanied by measurements of the various visual aids and materials.

8. That study and research be carried on to form the basis for the working out of definite standards to govern supervisors and teachers in the selection and use of visual aids.

9. That definite study and research be made to determine the degree to which visual education should be made a definite part of the curriculum in cities using the various visual materials.

*REPORT OF JOINT COMMITTEE ON SCHOOL MUSEUM
RELATIONS*

HENRY TURNER BAILEY, DIRECTOR, CLEVELAND SCHOOL OF ART,
CLEVELAND, OHIO, CHAIRMAN

At the annual meeting of The American Association of Museums held in St. Louis two years ago, a resolution was adopted to the effect that ways and means be devised to bring about a closer touch between the two great educational agencies, the National Education Association and the American Association of Museums, for better cooperation and better mutual service. President Hamlin appointed a committee consisting of: Anna B. Gallup, Children's Museum, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Dr. S. A. Barrett, Director, Milwaukee Public Museum; Harold L. Madison, Cleveland Museum of Natural History; Henry W. Kent, The Metropolitan Museum, New York City; J. Arthur MacLean, of the Toledo Museum of Art; Caroline M. McIlvane, Chicago Historical Society; Dr. James Sullivan, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.; C. G. Rathmann, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo., chairman, which, in conjunction with a committee of the National Education Association, should shape plans for a more active and more effective cooperation between the schools and the museums. At President Hamlin's request, Miss Mary McSkimmon, the President of the National Education Association, appointed a committee of her organization consisting of: Florence Holbrook, Principal, Chicago, Ill.; Jessie E. LaSalle, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.; Clifford J. Scott, Superintendent of Schools, East Orange, N. J.; Mrs. L. L. Wilson, Principal, Philadelphia, Pa.; Margaret Alltucker, Assistant Director, Research Division of National Education Association; Otto F. Ege, Head Teacher, Training Department, Cleveland School of Art; Dr. Henry Turner Bailey, Director, Cleveland School of Art, chairman.

The committee went to work at once, the two chairmen conferring through correspondence with the members of their committees as to the best methods of conducting the work. At the request of Miss McSkimmon, the two chairmen and Harold L. Madison, a member of the Museums Committee, and Otto F. Ege, a member of the National Education Association Committee, met with her in Cleveland in April of last year, to make definite recommendations as to how the schools and the museums could be brought together for better cooperation.

The recommendations were drafted, stating in detail what the schools can and should do to put the children in actual contact with the world around them through the use of the great outdoor museum, where they can get first hand information as to all they should know about the work of Nature, through excursions to field, park and forest, through maintaining school gardens and through supplementing all this study of real objects, such as are in our museums and pictorial illustrations, to make the children better acquainted with the work of both nature and man. The

report recommends that normal schools and teachers colleges train their students in using the materials in the outdoor and indoor museums intelligently and efficiently. It is further recommended that the schools furnish the museums with school representatives who are to select the material to be used in the schools, to assemble it, to take proper care of it, and to make it accessible to the schools. The teachers in schools are to urge the teachers to take their classes to the museum so that the children may be trained to become intelligent museum visitors and later on enthusiastic supporters of museums. And, lastly, it is recommended that the schools cooperate with the museums by bearing such part of the expense as will enable them to help the schools effectively.

The report of the committee was presented to the Museums Association at its meeting in New York and to the National Education Association at its meeting in Philadelphia, and approved by both organizations. The recommendations were brought to the notice of the representative of all museums through our *Museum News*.

The next step to be taken was to have the message in the report reach all the teachers in our country.

In February of this year the two chairmen met in St. Louis and decided to bring the recommendations to the notice of all the school people through having them published in all the educational journals of our country. To do this most effectively, and to prevail upon the editors to publish the literature, they determined to have the recommendations accompanied by an explanatory letter to the editors, also by an article setting forth the value of visual education, the necessity of better cooperation between schools and museums, and the advantages which both institutions would derive from such cooperation, and by photographs showing work in the school-room with museum or other visual education material. All members of the two committees were requested to write articles to accompany the recommendations, and all have done so.

Doctor Bailey, the chairman of the National Education Association Committee, attended the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association at Dallas, and secured an appropriation for the printing of recommendations, the explanatory letters, the photographs, and for defraying the expense of circulating this material.

We began to send the literature to the papers at the beginning of last month. The articles are now in the hands of the editors of the leading educational journals of our country. They have appeared in some of them, and the editors of others have assured me that they will appear in the next issue of their publications.

We have not confined our work to the periodicals, but are endeavoring to interest daily papers in our movement. Through the good offices of Anna B. Gallup, our recommendations, with explanatory remarks, appeared in the *New York Sun* and the *New York World*. We shall continue this work until all of the educational journals and many of the leading dailies have been reached.

The two committees asked Mr. Coleman, secretary of the Museums Association, to send out a questionnaire to ascertain in what way the museums are cooperating with the schools at present. All the information has not, as yet, come in and so we are unable to report results to you at this meeting. All the material in the museums is visual education material, and the museums are ready to supply such parts of it as the schools need, provided the schools will properly cooperate with the museums in bearing such a part of the expense as will enable the museums to give the schools the help they need.

But the schools in places where there are no museums and particularly the rural schools need the help of the two associations. There is a wealth of visual education material in this country which should be made accessible to the schools. We are sure that most of the schools would welcome the help that can be given them through such material, if they knew how to get it.

All the foregoing was presented at the annual meeting of the American Association of Museums, as a part of the report made for the joint committee by Mr. Rathman. Thereafter The American Association, at its meeting in Washington, May 23-25, adopted the following resolutions:

"In order to carry out the recommendation for better cooperation between schools and museums made by the joint committee appointed by the National Education Association and The American Association of Museums, which recommendations were presented to the National Education Association at its meeting in Philadelphia last year and to The American Museums Association at its meeting in New York last year and approved by both organizations.

"Be it resolved that the two Associations jointly appoint a commission consisting of representatives of the universities, colleges and schools and of representatives of the art, science and history museums whose duty it shall be to gather information as to how and where material for visual education can be secured and furnished to schools in places in which there are no museums, particularly the rural schools, to inform the schools that such material can be had and help the schools get what they need. Such materials are as follows:

- A. Actual objects, such as mammals, birds, insects, specimens of sea life, food products, tree products, materials for clothing, materials for shelter, raw materials in the different stages of manufacture, etc., actual specimens from the fields of biology, geology, botany, anthropology and the other various branches of science.
- B. Lists of available educational films and slides showing growing and moving things, and industrial processes; in short, the activities of nature and men.
- C. Facsimile reproductions of historical documents, pictures and objects in the historical museums of the country, of special value in the teaching of American history and literature.
- D. Reproductions in color of the finest pictures, textiles and other decorative material in American museums.

- E. Photographs and reproductions in color of objects in natural history museums having unusual cultural values.
- F. Reprints of illustrations in black and white and color from the best work of artists, modern and ancient.
- G. Photographs of the finest sculpture, the finest architecture, and the finest handicraft produced in the United States and in other countries.
- H. Reproductions in color of the finest mural decorations in American buildings, and elsewhere.
- I. Illustrations of the finest products of American industry.
- J. Pamphlets made up of sample pages of the finest work of American designers and printers.
- K. Illustrated pamphlets descriptive of the scenery, institutions, occupations, and resources of cities and countries, such as are published by boards of trade.

"Be it further resolved that the commission be authorized to employ a paid secretary who shall give his whole time to ascertaining the sources from which such visual education material may be secured and to helping the schools to get it.

"Be it further resolved that the National Education Association and American Association of Museums make a joint appeal to the Russell Sage Foundation or some other organization interested in the advancement of public education to secure a grant of \$8000 to pay the salary of the secretary and to defray the necessary office expenses."

The Joint Committee now recommends: (1) That the National Education Association approve of the resolutions adopted by the American Association of Museums; (2) That the present Joint Committee be discharged; (3) That a Visual Education Commission be appointed, as suggested in the first resolution; (4) That that Commission be empowered to appoint a paid secretary; (5) That steps be taken at once to secure a fund of at least \$8000 to make these resolutions effective in promoting visual education throughout the United States.

REPORT OF THE COOPERATING COMMITTEES ON BEHAVIOR PROBLEMS OF CHILDREN OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK

OLIVE M. JONES, PRINCIPAL, PUBLIC SCHOOL NO. 120, NEW YORK CITY
CHAIRMAN

The Cooperating Committees on Behavior Problems of Children made a very comprehensive report in 1926. The report was approved by both the National Conference of Social Work and the National Education Association and each committee reappointed for the school year 1926-27. The National Education Association published the report in pamphlet form in two editions of about two thousand each in order to meet the demand for the report on the part of social workers and people interested in delinquency as an educational problem.

On November 15, 1926, the twelve members of the two committees met

in New York City in joint session for the consideration of replies to a communication sent out in October and signed by both chairmen. The letter asked the members of both committees to review the objectives stated in the 1926 report, to consider the relative importance of the various steps suggested as means of achieving these objectives, and to suggest procedure. The majority of the replies agreed upon No. 5 of the steps listed in the joint report published in 1926.

The joint session of November, 1926, resulted in the following decisions:

1. That the chairman of each committee should appoint a subcommittee to conduct an inquiry along the lines indicated in No. 5 as follows:

Study of the preparation of teachers and social workers in their various training schools in relation to the teaching of child psychology, mental hygiene, and social psychiatry, and formulation of recommendations.

2. That the two subcommittees should pursue their inquiries in their separate fields of work but should work in close cooperation and prepare a joint report.

3. That the two chairmen of the cooperating committees were empowered to select speakers and otherwise assist in preparing for the presentation of the subject of behavior problems at the Dallas meeting of the Department of Superintendence, February, 1927, and at the Des Moines meeting of the National Conference of Social Work, May, 1927.

In accordance with these decisions by the members present at the joint session, November, 1926, the following were asked to serve as subcommittees to study as suggested in No. 5 noted above:

For the N. E. A. Committee

W. Carson Ryan, Jr., <i>Chairman</i>	Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey
Meta Anderson	William S. Gray
Helen T. Woolley	

For the N. C. S. W. Committee

Henry W. Thurston, <i>Chairman</i>	Jane Culbert
Rev. John M. Cooper	Frank J. O'Brien
Jessie Taft	

The report cannot be issued until next year. Time and study were essential for the preparation of questionnaires, reading the replies, and other procedure necessary to gather an adequate and accurate volume of facts concerning the preparation of teachers and social workers in subjects and methods relating to behavior problem children. The report will be a valuable one and has already served a valuable purpose in awakening many training school faculties to the need of more and better preparation of students regarding behavior problems.

During the absence of Dr. Ryan on sabbatical leave during the major part of the year, the chairman of the National Education Association committee asked the Research Division to prepare a questionnaire to be sent to the presidents of all teacher-training institutions, together with a letter explaining the purpose of the inquiry. Appreciation of the work of Dr. John K. Norton and Dr. Margaret M. Alltucker is hereby gratefully expressed.

The questionnaire follows. Replies are to be sent to Dr. W. Carson Ryan, Jr., Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania.

Training Teachers How to Deal with Behavior Problem Cases

Behavior problem children are those who stand out or who differ from others of their group because of certain undesirable habits, personality traits, or behavior in the home, school, or community; whose conduct interferes, or is likely to interfere, with the individual's (or the group's) fullest development and usefulness socially, educationally, or hygienically; and whose behavior may result in more serious handicaps of one sort or another in later life.

1. What courses are offered in your institution that bear directly on the question of training teachers to handle successfully behavior problem cases?

.....
.....
.....
(Here list titles of courses)

2. What books are used as required texts in the courses offered in psychology, moral education, or behavior problems?

.....
.....
(Here list titles of textbooks)

3. Is there a child guidance clinic or a behavior clinic near enough to your institution so that your students can visit it and observe the work? Yes.... No..... If yes, how many visits does each student make during one school term?.....

4. Is opportunity given students in your institution to observe the work in the local schools of successful teachers of *behavior problem children*? Yes.... No.... If yes, approximately how many such observation visits are made by a student during each term?.....

5. Suggestions and comment:

.....
.....
.....

Name of Institution.....Address.....
(Name of person supplying information).....(Title)

Collaboration of the two subcommittees must await the return of Dr. Ryan, but meantime the N. C. S. W. committee has gathered considerable information. It is urgent that the report shall not be hurried and that ample time be allowed the two subcommittees to prepare and issue a report valuable not only for its information, but also for helpful constructive suggestions.

Two reasons for the importance of the proposed report have made themselves manifest at every session of the cooperating committees and at every meeting either committee has conducted:

1. That two great groups of people, the social workers and the teachers who should work together for the removal of the causes of delinquency, are often antagonistic to each other because neither understands, nor has been trained to know, the specific aims for which the other is working.

2. That more young teachers become discouraged and quit teaching because they have not been trained to recognize or to overcome the diffi-

culties in discipline precipitated by the presence of behavior problem children than for any other cause.

3. The work of the N. E. A. Committee on Behavior Problem Children was referred to the National Council of Education. Henry Lester Smith, President of the National Council of Education, set aside one session of the Council meetings at Dallas, during the convention of the Department of Superintendence, for the discussion of the plans of the cooperating committees. The program was arranged by the two chairmen. Three speakers were selected to present three different points of view: That of the mental hygienist by Dr. Frank J. O'Brien of the Psychological Clinic, Louisville; that of the School Administrator by M. C. Lefler, Superintendent of Schools, Lincoln, Nebraska; that of the training of teachers by W. Carson Ryan, Jr., Professor of Education, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pennsylvania.

No special meeting was arranged in connection with the Des Moines meeting of the N. C. S. W. in May, 1927, because the conference designated one day for emphasizing at all sections the cooperation of school and social workers and arranged that all division programs for that day include topics related to or included in the joint report of the cooperative committees. Many school people were included among their speakers.

To sum up the results of the year's work, the chairmen of the two cooperating committees call your attention to:

1. The important report now in progress on the preparation of teachers and social workers for comprehending and for dealing with behavior problem children. We believe that this has never before been attempted and must be productive of much good.

2. The stimulus provided to right thinking and cooperative action on behalf of behavior problem children provided by the meetings the committee has held, public programs prepared, and accounts published in reports and in the public press.

3. The inseparable relationship between intelligent care of the behavior problem child and the prevention of delinquency and crime.

4. The urgency of cooperation between educators and other agencies engaged in social work in order that they may share for the good of the children the knowledge of conditions and causes gained from widely varying points of view.

For these reasons the continuance of the Committee on Behavior Problem Children is recommended for another year and is hereby requested.

The National Council of Education

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION was organized in 1880, growing out of a paper read by Thomas W. Bicknell before the Department of Superintendence. See *Proceedings*, 1880:90-94. The active membership of the Council consists of 60 members chosen by the Council; 60 chosen by the Board of Directors of the Association. The list is published in the *Proceedings*, 1925, pages 310-314. For constitution and bylaws, see *Proceedings*, 1906:608-11. The Council meets twice each year, once in February and once in June. The officers of the Council for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Henry Lester Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.; *Vicepresident*, Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Calif.; *Secretary*, Adelaide S. Baylor, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, George W. Child, Superintendent of Schools, Salt Lake City, Utah (term expires 1928); A. J. Mathews, President, Tempe Normal School, Tempe, Ariz. (term expires 1929). Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1880: 90-94	1892:745-806	1901:349-499	1910:307-375	1919:675-739
1884: Pt. 3:1-67	1893:925	1902:306-408	1911:331-476	1920:107-109
1885: 405-551	1894:593-678	1903:301-376	1912:499-605	1921:269-368
1886: 261-331	1895:430-509	1904:333-377	1913:355-424	1922:349-574
1887: 257-328	1896:393-470	1905:271-340	1914:293-404	1923:425-551
1888: 253-321	1897:317-583	1906:607-623	1915:527-627	1924:350-428
1889: 347-440	1898:489-588	1907:329-454	1916:195-287	1925:266-336
1890: 289-364	1899:380-529	1908:313-500	1917:129-219	1926:280-327
1891: 275-378	1900:297-364	1909:331-435	1918:135-149	

THE FALLACY OF TREATING SCHOOL SUBJECTS AS "TOOL SUBJECTS"

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THE psychologist who has studied the evolution of language is perhaps more impressed than are others by the fact that words embody and transmit profound beliefs. It has been said that the phrases "struggle for existence" and "survival of the fittest" have done more to direct modern thinking than whole volumes of statutes passed by parliament or congress.

I do not know who first called arithmetic and reading "tool subjects." Whoever he was, he stigmatized these subjects and classified them as in some sense inferior to history and science and literature. Suppose that we could have been present at the first use of the term "tool subjects" and could have persuaded the company not to use that term but to call reading and arithmetic the "right and left hands of learning," what would have been the effect on subsequent educational thinking of the adoption of our more complimentary terms?

I am not suggesting an idle speculation about the history of words. My psychology tells me that words are the embodiments of discriminations and the epitomes of theory.

When a writer on education says arithmetic is a "tool subject," what does he mean? We have only to appeal to present-day educational literature to secure a clear answer. Arithmetic is thought of as a subject which is a kind of necessary evil. If one wants to pry loose interest from capital one will have to do a little calculating. If one wants to purchase bricks and lumber for building a house, one will have to delay in the truly constructive work long enough to add up a column of figures. If one is to engage in compounding a recipe one will have to stop and measure and count the ingredients. The ends of life are possessions, and buildings, and food; these are the matters with which many educators declare themselves to be concerned; these, they tell us, are the substantial sources of valuable mental experience; these are the concrete facts of life. Number is to the minds of many of our contemporaries a formal abstract something which has crept into the schools and crowded out property, and buildings, and food.

As I read the modern textbook in arithmetic I find that the tables are few and short. There is concreteness on every hand. There are pictures of people buying and selling, there are reproductions of checks and bills of lading, there are problems from geography and baseball, but the fact that the number series has a character and regularity of its own is pushed as far into the background as the pages will permit. The new textbooks might have on their covers a picture of a tool as symbolic of their content. They seem to announce in the loudest tones the belief that all the good things in modern civilization are real, tangible objects; number is merely

something to be used now and then as a vague and unsatisfactory substitute for things that are concrete and substantial and truly important.

Whether I am right or not in thinking that the pedagogical attack on arithmetic is due to a failure-complex will, of course, have to be judged in the light of educational history which reaches beyond our own day. Certain it is that the schools of our own time do not know how to teach arithmetic. The net result of the testing which we have done since the first paper on arithmetic tests published by J. M. Rice in 1902 is a shocking revelation of the incompetency of the schools in teaching arithmetic. The Cleveland survey showed a decade ago a fact which is revealed again in the California Curriculum Study which has just come from the press, namely, that more pupils fail in arithmetic in the third grade than fail in the second, more fail in arithmetic in the fourth grade than in the third. From this point on there seems to be a falling off in the number of failures in arithmetic but probably the apparent increase in success of the school's operations is due to the elimination of the pupils whom the school cannot train. The successive increases in the number of failures are convincing testimony to the difficulty of teaching arithmetic. One suspects, as I said before, that the attitude of teachers toward this subject which they call a mere "tool subject" is in large measure attributable to the fact that they do not know how to teach it successfully.

I can hardly expect to stem the tide of common opinion by anything that I can say in a single paper, but I am here to urge that the term "tool subject" be carefully reconsidered. For my own part, I reject it absolutely. The man who calls arithmetic a "tool subject" and with this name dismisses it as something less worthy than subject-matter courses has been guilty of criminal neglect of true values.

The figure of speech which one ought to use, if figure of speech is necessary, is not the figure of a tool, that is of something that is now taken in the hand, now laid aside; the figure of speech which is appropriate is one which conveys the idea that number is an ever guiding principle of life. One assimilates food and grows into a being full of strength and maturity. One lives in the sunlight and his vision is filled with new images and his mind is stimulated to new action. The number system is such an energizing principle. It has changed the life of men. It has become a mode of thinking. It pervades every observation which modern man makes. It can no more be laid aside than can the right hand. It is not a tool.

What has been said about number can be repeated in exactly the same terms with regard to reading. The pupil who has learned to read will never again lead the kind of intellectual life which he did before he acquired the art. Words will come into the mind of the pupil who has learned to read in a new form. The world of books will be a familiar world and written expressions will be an intimate part of the pupil's inner experience.

What I am trying to say cannot be reconciled with that false educational psychology which is current in certain quarters where arithmetic is

described as a mastery of so and so many different number combinations and a collection of so and so many distinct associations. Arithmetic is a general mode of thinking. It could not be perfected until a system of symbols was invented which could express adequately the ideas of precision and regularity.

I confess I am astonished when I see some of the analyses which purport to be the scientific foundations on which school curricula are to be built and find no mention of these general ideas of order and arrangement and precision. I am told that the school should teach children how to make change and how to measure wall paper and how to tell time and that sections of arithmetic should be devoted to these specific tasks, but I look in vain for any appreciation of the fact that the school ought to lead pupils who have only a hazy and unsystematic notion of the world to see the value of arrangement and order in all thinking and to cultivate the general ideas of regularity and precision.

I am anxious to array myself as emphatically as I can in opposition to those who argue for an elimination of mathematics from the school curriculum. I am quite prepared to join in a criticism of much of the teaching which goes on in the schools at the present time. Instead of being discouraged by the formalism of present-day courses, I am encouraged by the agitation which has arisen against formalism. I am encouraged even though I see some of the criticisms of formalism turned into attacks on the subject itself. Personally I see no reason for trying to escape the difficulties which arithmetic and algebra and geometry encounter because of inefficient teaching and inadequate understanding of their purpose. These difficulties should not be evaded by casting the mathematical sciences out of the curriculum. Mathematics have demonstrated their place in the intellectual world. If we do not teach them successfully, let us ask ourselves what are the reasons for our failure and let us ask ourselves whether we have been intelligent in defining the true content of these sciences.

Little children come into the school at a period in life when they have attained very little in the way of orderly arrangement of experience. They have no notion of regularities and system. It is the business of the school to transmit to the pupils the intellectual methods of arrangement by which the complexities of the world may be unraveled and a new pattern made of experience. The most comprehensive and flexible patterns for the rearrangement of experiences are those supplied by the mathematical sciences.

We have all observed much teaching in the schools which consisted in solving problems of earning and spending but left no clear notion in the pupil's mind of the kind which I described a little time ago when I spoke of the general ideas of addition and subtraction. How often have we all heard children in the schools say, "I don't know whether to add or subtract, whether to add or multiply." Even more common is the failure to prepare for the higher synthesis of addition and subtraction which is made in algebra.

When we note the failure of ordinary instruction in arithmetic to cultivate general ideas we cannot wonder that so many pupils fail. Teachers have not regarded arithmetic as a science made up of general modes of thinking, they have thought of it as a series of rules. They have called it a "tool subject." They have pictured it as something that the child can lay aside without impairing his view of the world. They have hurried over the tables which show how orderly and systematic number ideas are because somebody has told them that the mind deals only with particular experiences and that all knowledge is concrete.

He who is master of the number system has a way of thinking that the race has worked out with infinite labor. He will never again fall back into the confused and inexact ways of viewing the world which were characteristic of his childhood. He has grown intellectually by assimilating the number system. He has a mature mind. He has strengthened his mind. He is a new individual.

If I have persuaded you in any degree, you should join me in criticising the superficial studies of the curriculum which are trying to limit the study of mathematics to those problems in the solution of which people use some rule of combination. You should join me in resisting the tendency to banish mathematics from the programs of students in the high school. You should join me in protesting against the classification of arithmetic as a "tool subject."

CHAOS OR INTEGRATION IN EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT AND EFFORT

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The statement of my subject may seem extreme but the title calls attention to a condition that demands the serious consideration of our most able thinkers.

The danger is chiefly that great educational waste may occur, with attendant injury to individuals and to society, unless the profession can work out more effective ways of coordinating educational thought and practice. The danger is not of utter confusion, but of interminable and unjustifiable delay in attaining those objectives that are always within easy reach.

Would that I had the gift to picture the conditions that obtain in educational thought and practice in the United States today. We have a national system of education, the general form of which is distinct. This system, embracing as it does the same general types of elementary, secondary, and higher education in every part of the country, both in public and private schools, is none the less exceedingly complex. Within each type of school are found wide variations in the quality of education offered. There is also a wide variety of specialized schools. This variety in types of organization and methods of procedure is not altogether a bad thing. Freedom to experiment, next to its popular support, constitutes the out-

standing merit of our system of education. Integration of educational thinking and practice, so far as this practice is based on research or tested experience, is not inimical to freedom of development, but essential to it. Lack of such integration means stagnation and waste.

A surface indication of conditions is seen in the lack of coordination that exists between our voluntary professional associations. The National Education Association itself comprises many departments, committees, councils, commissions—frequently working without reference to one another. But the National Education Association even with its numerous divisions does not actually cover the entire field. The National Society for the Study of Education, the National Association of College Teachers of Education, the American Association of University Professors, the various associations of universities and university presidents, the numerous state teachers' associations, only imperfectly coordinated with the National Education Association, associations of teachers in particular fields as in English, mathematics, science, and many other professional organizations are undertaking studies of the utmost importance. Add to these the numerous schoolmasters' clubs and similar associations of men and women and we have a glimpse of their extreme variety and diversity.

The greatest defect in our system of professional organization lies in the fact that those who administer higher education and those who administer elementary and secondary education do not have sufficient means of contact. Each group is going its way altogether too much without reference to what the other is doing, and the penalty is paid by youth, many of whom are subjected to two educational régimes, one in the elementary and secondary schools and the other in the colleges and universities, often largely unrelated in methods.

What is the condition in regard to research? There has been a gratifying multiplication of research agencies. The money and the effort that have gone into scientific experimentation are making a science of education. But here again there is no unity of effort. There are not adequate facilities for disseminating the findings of research. Those who are concerned with bringing all that the profession has learned about a particular problem to bear on the solution of that problem find it difficult to know just what the profession has learned. This is illustrated by the condition that has confronted curriculum-makers. It is always difficult and sometimes impossible to obtain a complete list of all of the investigations on a problem and frequently investigations have not been printed or are not available. Individuals or committees studying a new problem must in most instances make their own evaluations, with a grievous loss of time. Finally, many investigations are reported in terms so technical that the classroom teacher not highly trained in statistical method finds it difficult to interpret and apply the findings. It is recognized, too, that because of lack of coordination, much duplication still obtains.

The lack of teamwork in American education is still further illustrated by a situation that is arising with the rapid growth of departments of edu-

cation and teachers colleges. There is danger that these departments and colleges may lose that intimate contact which they ought to maintain with the schools; in other words, that the educational theorists and research workers may lose contact with the field. You may be surprised to hear me express this fear, and you may be all the more surprised to hear me say that I think there is evidence that this condition already exists to an alarming extent.

The situation is a perfectly natural one. It arises out of the developments of the last generation. A generation ago there was no science of education—only the merest beginnings of one. Those who undertook to teach courses in education did not find the materials for such courses readily at hand. The result was that they went into the schools for much of their material, and during the two decades prior to 1917, when the science of education was in its infancy, we find the young, forward-looking professor of education in closest contact with classroom and office. He spent a surprisingly large amount of his time in the field.

Today the young man with little or no practical experience, either as teacher or as administrator, who has completed his thesis for a doctor's degree and takes his place as a teacher in a school of education, finds at hand numerous works on his speciality. He is not compelled to go to the schools to find materials. He finds them on the shelves of the library.

The past ten years have been "hectic" in the schools. Executives everywhere have been fighting crucial battles for school support and in many places for proper conditions of control. The economic and social stress that followed the war has increased the difficulties of administration. Is it surprising, therefore, that two or three years after the close of the war certain superintendents wanted the Department of Superintendence to secede from the National Education Association and to restrict its membership entirely to superintendents in order that they might deliberate on their own problems? Fortunately, this movement failed, but it was indicative, I think, of a condition that needs our consideration.

Have schools of education been deeply concerned about the leading issues that administrators have faced? The conditions out of which grew the Ku Klux Klan and other post-war movements have brought epochal problems to the schools. The stress and strain of rapidly increasing costs in a period of economic depression have been most severe. Dayton, Tennessee, calls to mind movements that have raised curriculum issues fundamental not only to the life of the schools but to our whole national development. To gain any comprehension of these movements, one must be a student of social forces. What interests have been eminent in schools of education manifested in the effect on the public schools of these movements? Again, what do we know about interpreting the schools to the public? What investigations into this problem have been conducted in schools of education? When a young man steps from the classrooms of a professional school into a superintendency, how many problems does he encounter on which no light was thrown in his classwork in the professional school?

Our system of education is of the people. To understand it and how it works, one must understand the American people. Educational theorists have told us that we should have a larger unit of administration for the rural schools. A very fine theory. We all subscribe to it. But who has told us how to bring the people to want this larger unit of administration? Who has told us how to keep the schools out of politics, even under the best schemes of control and administration that can be devised? Perhaps there are no answers to these questions, and yet it is pertinent for a superintendent of schools to raise them.

It has been my privilege to belong to certain informal discussion groups composed largely of college professors of education with a sprinkling of school executives. Sometimes I have come away from the discussions much depressed because of the remoteness of my problems to some of the questions that were debated with eagerness by the college professors.

The college professor can no doubt make out as bad a case against the superintendents. There is indeed one notable movement to base courses in administration on problems encountered by school executives in their daily work. But the point I want to make is that there is a lack of contact between the two groups.

This must suffice for a picture, though inadequate, of the present lack of contact and cooperation between educational forces. I wish now to direct your attention to two evils that grow out of these conditions, the confusion that results from thinking on educational problems with inadequate data and the waste that occurs from working at education piecemeal.

Any serious student of the development of education in America in the past generation must, it seems to me, be convinced that one of the evils that characterizes our profession is the habit of thinking on educational problems with inadequate data. This tendency is illustrated by the controversy over the question of educational determinism. Sometimes this battle is fought under the name of determinism; sometimes under some other name. For example, there are those who believe that through the use of intelligence tests a classification of pupils can be made so exact that they can be directed with assurance toward college or professional schools on the one hand or into varying types of vocational education on the other. Some extremists apparently feel that with these tests it can now be exactly determined whether the pupil is destined to be a day laborer or an artisan, or whether he may enter into the realms of business or professional life. And these extremists would build a system of education on the assumption that higher education should be open only to the predetermined elect.

There is much heated argument as to the numbers seeking entrance to the college. Some who hold conspicuous places in the educational world (they may also be leaders) would set up college entrance requirements so rigid as to severely limit the enrolment. Many advocates of such severe limitation believe that the country needs relatively few college graduates and that it is possible to decide with justice who of the large number yearly graduating from our secondary schools are entitled to the blessed privilege

of a college education with all the social prestige and economic advantage which go with it.

No one questions the value of intelligence tests and the misuse of the tests must not be considered as a criticism of the tests themselves. They are now invaluable aids in the administration of any school. Nor does the speaker lack sympathy for those who face the baffling problem of college administration and finance. There is a controversy regarding the use of intelligence tests for the vocational guidance or classification of pupils, and another regarding the limitation of college attendance. There are extremists on both sides of these questions. Evidently what is needed is more research and a study of all data pertinent to the question and less noise and heat.

We hear much of heredity. We are told by the radical determinists that only a very small percentage of the people can profit by a college education and some claim that the intelligence test is in fact an adequate measure of innate ability.

What is the cause of this difficulty? It seems to be found primarily in the fact that we do not take into consideration all of the data that bear on these problems. Apparently some of the most vocal advocates of particular policies are unaware of important researches that have been carried on in other fields of knowledge that bear directly on their proposals. For example, biological research in the past ten years has thrown much light on the influence of heredity and environment, and should warn educationists against drawing hasty conclusions from researches that have been conducted up to the present time in mental testing and related fields.

Since the war we have heard statements to the effect that intellectually America is a nation of twelve-year-olds; or that it is a nation of sixth graders. These statements have at least a shred of justification. They are, of course, based on the results of the army tests and similar data. Many have drawn the hasty conclusion that our whole system of secondary education is out of joint; that there are relatively few who can profit from the type of education offered in our high schools, and still fewer who can with profit attend the college or university. Consequently, we are told that attendance on the high school should be greatly restricted, and that university attendance should be very rigidly restricted.

Such a policy would mean the adoption of a radical form of educational determinism in America. This raises issues of the most fundamental character in our national life. Do you agree with me that we are prone to jump to conclusions; that one of the evils from which American education suffers is that of basing far-reaching policies on insufficient data? The advocates of such radical determinism would do well to read such a volume as Professor Thomas Hunt Morgan's *Evolution and Genetics*.

What is the conclusion of all this? We should not formulate opinions on an educational problem until we have considered what biology, sociology, anthropology, and all the other "ologies" have to say in regard to it. Edu-

peculiarly dependent on all of the other social and biological sciences. It follows, therefore, that those who are working on a particular problem of education cannot overlook what other sciences have to contribute to the solution of that problem.

Programs of school finance must take into consideration all that economics have taught us about taxation, about budgeting, about the factors that determine the abilities of particular communities to support education, about the advantages and the disadvantages of borrowing, how best to borrow, and the extent to which it may be legitimately practiced in a given community. It is inconceivable that a student of educational finance should not be grounded in the principles of economics and should not keep in touch with the researches in this field.

A salary schedule must be based on a firm psychological and educational foundation as well as on sound finance. With only one objective in view some advocate a merit system of paying teachers. I receive several letters every year asking for my opinion on merit systems. If one leaves enough things out of consideration, the arguments in favor of a merit system are almost unanswerable. But if all pertinent data are considered the situation may be entirely changed. What is the effect of the merit system on morale? What is the effect of morale on the efficiency of the work done? Education is a unique science, in that it not only has a technic of its own but is in the classroom? What do we know about morale? How can the morale of the teaching staff best be maintained?

Adequate answer to any of these questions cannot be found within the covers of all the books that have ever been written on the subject of education. This will suffice to illustrate what I have in mind when I say that one of the great evils of the day is that of thinking on educational problems with insufficient data.

A second evil is that of working at education piecemeal. This is illustrated by the contrasts that characterize present curriculum revision movement. Remarkable strides have been made in the improvement of curricula in elementary schools and junior high schools, but what have we done in the senior high schools? Nine-tenths of the practice in the senior high school today is based on mere tradition, or on opinion, as yet not supported by facts. This is true in the teaching of Latin, mathematics, science, English, and in almost every subject in the curriculum. Traditional subject-matter and methods are so strongly entrenched that curriculum revision has made practically no dent on procedures in this institution.

A few universities and colleges have broken with convention by experimentation with new courses in the liberal arts colleges. Witness the introduction of such courses as the course in contemporary civilization at Columbia University, or the orientation course for freshmen and sophomores at Chicago University, and similar experiments. But, generally speaking, the college, like the high school, has made little progress.

The map of the curriculum revision movement is "spotty." Occasionally

will be found a public-school system or a college in dead earnest in attacking the major educational problem of the day. But one thing is very evident. There is little touch between the curriculum makers in the college and those in the public schools. We seem to be blissfully ignorant that we are making courses of study for boys and girls who will progress from the kindergarten to the graduate or professional schools, and that common sense requires that the curriculum for each individual be considered as a whole. The situation that exists at the present time is ridiculous and cries out against our ignorance and slothfulness.

Again, great strides have been made in the improvement of schools in cities, while there is relatively little interest in the improvement of conditions in rural schools. Those of us who are working in cities are content to let a few souls with missionary spirit struggle against great odds to improve conditions in the country, apparently forgetful of the fact that the welfare of the nation is dependent upon the education of all of its youth, including the millions who live in the rural districts.

In further support of the contention that we have a tendency to work at our job piecemeal, let me cite the waves of enthusiasm that have arisen and fallen in our profession in a quarter century. In one period we were talking about correlation, in another about vocational education, in another about the junior high school. Then we were swept off our feet by the testing movement. Now we are feverishly engaged in revising the courses of study. But because we are unable to coordinate our efforts and our thinking, and because we have not learned to see educational problems as a whole, our efforts are altogether too desultory and fragmentary.

I shall not continue this discussion further. Enough has been said to make clear my contention that there is a serious lack of integration of educational thought and effort, and that the results of this condition are, first, an amazing waste of effort and, second, the retardation of educational development.

What is the way out? The solution will not be easy to find. We must steer our course between the Scylla of mere license on the one hand and the Charybdis of autocracy or of a system of thought and practice imposed from above, whether by the state, or by an educational hierarchy self-established, on the other hand. There must be a middle course that will preserve all of the values of independence of thought and action, and at the same time obtain the values of integration.

I have no solutions to offer. I can only suggest a few of the more obvious ways in which a better coordination might be brought about.

1. The first thought that comes to mind is that of the opportunities for leadership which this situation presents to the National Education Association. This Association is the dominant professional organization in America. It is the only organization that touches every field of educational endeavor through its membership, its departments, its commissions and committees. But, as pointed out above, the National Education Association only barely touches certain fields. It will mark a great step forward when those who are responsible for administration and teaching in colleges and universities actually join the forces of the National Edu-

cation Association. Not until that time can the National Education Association hope adequately to fulfill its function as a great clearinghouse for educational thought.

The National Education Association also has its problems of internal organization. Its many departments and committees are not effectively coordinated. There is opportunity for educational statesmanship in making this great voluntary association serve to the extent that a comprehensive national association should in the integration of educational thought and effort in America.

2. There was a time when the Department of Superintendence was so small that its meetings were largely forums of discussion. Such a time obtained in more ancient days even in the National Education Association itself. Then the National Council of Education was in its turn a great forum for educational debate, into whose lists entered the leaders of another generation—men like William T. Harris and other giants of his time. In those days the National Council served as an integrating force. It was in fact a national academy of education. Unfortunately, it no longer serves this function. Its meetings have become too much like other educational meetings, where committee reports are heard and received or approved, and where formal addresses are made. The movement to reconstitute the council may produce results. Time will tell whether it can regain the unique position which it once held.

Undoubtedly there is need for a forum into which thinkers from every field will come for the discussion of educational problems. Such a forum, whether it be the National Council of Education or a national academy of education, or whatever it may be, if it be made small enough to permit of discussion and if membership be representative of every field and restricted only to men and women of achievement, can make a tremendous contribution to the integration of educational thought and effort and thus to educational progress.

3. My third suggestion relates to the responsibilities of the nation. The service of the national government to education has been and is invaluable. But compared to what the federal government could do in the way of supporting, encouraging, and promoting educational research and in providing for a wider and more effective exchange of educational thought and experience, what it is doing in these respects seems indeed very insignificant.

I have yet to meet any member of my profession who advocates the control of education by the federal government. Integration imposed by the authority of the federal government is much less to be desired than chaos but the choice is not between Prussianism on the one hand and chaos on the other.

There are a number of reasons for creating a national department of education with a secretary in the President's cabinet. But we are concerned here with what the federal government can do in integrating educational thought and practice. The need of extending educational research is so great that these needs cannot be met except by a larger participation of the federal government. While we are spending millions on defense, and on rivers, harbors, and roads, a few hundred thousand dollars more invested in educational research where the need is so great seems indeed a reasonable expectation. No investment that the federal government can make will be more productive either of happiness or of national wealth in the years to come. The federal government alone can establish those lines of communication and centers of exchange that will bring about the most effective coordination of all educational research agencies of the nation. This theme is a fascinating one but I must pass on to my final suggestion.

4. My last suggestion pertains to the education of those who are to assume positions of leadership in our profession. It goes without saying that there must be, first of all, a broad background of general information and culture, and likewise a most thorough schooling in the theory and practice of education. In a way, this is and has been increasingly our ideal, and yet it seems that something is lacking. We have not given due recognition to the unique character of the science of education. It will of course have its own technic, its own body of scientific

knowledge, but it is peculiarly dependent on other sciences. It is inconceivable that one can be competent as a school executive or as a professor of education unless he keeps in contact with the developments in many fields of human endeavor. As I have indicated, biology, sociology, economics, anthropology, have essential contributions to make to educational thought and practice and to this list should be added history and the fine arts. There is, of course, no place to stop, but these fields in particular must always buttress the science of education.

The worker in education, then, must know something of what is going on in these fields. He cannot expect to be a specialist in any of them. But ways must be devised by which he can be kept in contact with important discoveries that have a direct bearing on the science and practice of his profession. Have colleges of education given due weight to these important considerations in making their courses of study? In selecting the men and women who are to be prepared for administrative and supervisory responsibilities do the colleges of education give sufficient thought to the intellectual bents of these young people? Do they ask whether they really have tastes for scholarship outside a narrow vocational interest? Do they inquire into their general reading habits, or into their interests in the world of nature and man in which they live? Are they deeply concerned about the background in general information and culture of the aspirant to educational leadership.

In a very sketchy and I fear not a very well-organized way, I have endeavored to picture the lack of cooperation that exists today among the educational forces of our country, and the resultant waste and delay. I am not so unsophisticated as to believe that this condition is entirely bad, or that it can ever be completely remedied. It is one of the characteristics of democracy. As it is often said of the English, so do we Americans "muddle through" in some way. It is quite likely that the final test of democracy will be the test of its capacity to accept expert leadership and to direct, through integrated scientific study and investigation, its own evolution. The final test of educational leadership will undoubtedly be the test of our ability to work together cooperatively in the application of the findings of research to the solution of educational problems in every sector of the field.

It is evident that there is a woful lack of integration, and that the price we pay for this condition is dear. Surely no more vital problem confronts present-day educational leadership. It may well be that the great contribution of the next generation to the development of education in America will be in the direction of synthesis.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN A CITY SYSTEM

DAVID E. WEGLEIN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BALTIMORE, MD.

One of the most noteworthy features of the organization and administration of city school systems during the last fifteen years has been the development of the junior high school. With great rapidity this new type of school has been brought to the front influencing not only the work of the grades involved in this kind of school itself, but having a great effect upon the senior high school in the grades above and upon the elementary

school in the grades below. Within the time allotted to this paper, it is not possible to consider many of the features of the development of the junior high school, but our effort will be confined to discussing several of the main points with particular reference to the experience which we have had in the city of Baltimore.

Teaching staff—In the first place let us consider the teaching staff. So rapidly has the development of the junior high school taken place that existing teacher-training agencies have not been prepared or able to provide adequately trained candidates to meet the constantly increasing demand. Each system of schools has been forced to a greater or less extent to develop its own corps of junior high school teachers. This situation was not without its good effects, because it of necessity compelled cities to make use of experienced teachers rather than to depend upon applicants with scholastic and professional training but comparatively without experience. One of the earliest examples of a city system developing its own staff of junior high school teachers was Rochester, which in 1914 began to train candidates from the elementary school corps one year before the opening of its proposed junior high school.

The sources of supply of teachers for the junior high school have been mainly three: the elementary school staff, the high school corps, and specially trained candidates, usually without teaching experience. To practical school administrators there has never been any question but that the majority of the junior high school teaching staff should be drawn from the elementary school group. This insures a nucleus of teachers experienced in teaching pupils of age groups comparable to those in the junior high schools.

In Baltimore the first junior high schools were opened in February, 1919, the teaching staff being composed entirely of experienced elementary teachers, who, however, had no special preparation for work in the junior high school field. The Strayer survey was conducted in the scholastic year 1920-1921, and beginning in January, 1921, no one was appointed a junior high school teacher who did not meet the following requirements. First, graduation from a standard normal or training school or from a standard college; second, at least one year of successful teaching experience; third, an examination covering the following:

- a. General professional subjects—educational psychology, history of education, and theory of teaching.

- b. Subjectmatter in two departments to be selected by the candidate. Certificates for at least two college courses in subjectmatter for each of the two subjects are accepted in place of this part of the examination.

- c. General theory of the junior high school, and special methods in teaching the two selected subjects in the junior high school. Under certain conditions, certificates for college courses in these subjects are accepted in place of this part of the examination.

Up to 1921 there was no provision in Baltimore for candidates to secure the special training called for in the above mentioned requirements. Fortunately the Johns Hopkins University agreed to cooperate in every

possible manner by providing the necessary courses both in the winter and in the summer sessions, the former being held in the afternoons or Saturdays so as to be available for the teachers of the city. These courses have been offered regularly since that time and in this way Baltimore has been able to secure for the junior high schools teachers with the special training desired for the purpose.

Curricula and courses of study—The Strayer survey pointed out the necessity for the preparation of curricula and courses of study for the secondary schools of the city. Accordingly, early in 1921, the revision of curricula was undertaken by committees of principals of the schools concerned. At the same time committees of teachers were appointed to prepare courses of study in the several subjects. For each subject there was a junior high school committee, and a senior high school committee. These subject committees worked rapidly and prepared tentative courses of study which were mimeographed and put into effect in September, 1921. Curriculum experts from other parts of the country were asked to cooperate. They reviewed the courses of study which had been revised, and offered many suggestions looking toward improvements. They also held conferences with the committees. The courses were again revised in the light of the suggestions received and were prepared for printing. The first ones came from the press in 1924, and since that time there has been published a course of study in nearly every subject offered in the senior and junior high schools.

Supervision—The question of supervision in the junior high schools presents problems of organization. There is the possibility of providing city-wide subject supervisors for all the schools, or of appointing heads of departments in the separate schools. In Baltimore we have adopted the former plan, and there has been appointed for the usual academic subjects supervisors for all the junior high schools. The advantage of this procedure is the possibility of securing a considerable amount of standardization for all the schools, and this was particularly desirable in the local situation with which we were confronted. One of the features of supervisory work in the junior high schools has been provision for holding demonstration lessons followed by a discussion along professional lines. The lesson is given by a teacher who volunteers for the purpose, and plans are carefully made with the help of the subject supervisor. The lesson is given to a regular class under normal conditions during the last period of the school day. All of the teachers of this subject in all of the junior high schools of the city are present, and after the lesson is finished and the class dismissed, a critique follows under the leadership of the supervisor. The effect of these professional exercises in improving classroom instruction has been very great.

Articulation—One of the major problems in the administration of junior high schools is to secure close articulation with the elementary schools below and also with the senior high schools above.

In Baltimore for the past six years we have had regularly each month a conference of principals of the senior and junior high schools, together with the junior high school supervisors, under the leadership of the assistant superintendent in charge of secondary education. Each conference lasts for two hours, and usually about three-fourths of the time is occupied in a professional discussion of studies presented by the several principals and supervisors. Each topic considered is of a practical nature, and the members of the conference have uniformly declared that great benefit has been derived from the meetings.

Closer articulation between the junior and senior high schools is being secured by a follow-up of all junior high school pupils in the tenth grade of the senior high school at the end of the first quarter in English, French, Latin, bookkeeping, and typewriting. The same procedure was followed with these two groups of schools as was adopted in the case of the elementary and junior high schools. The results, showing city-wide distribution of failures by subjects as well as by junior high schools, were given to junior high school supervisors for study and inquiry.

A series of city-wide survey tests were given at the end of the term to the 9B, 9A, 10B, and 10A classes in junior and senior high schools in English, French, Latin, mathematics, bookkeeping, and typewriting. The results will be tabulated for city-wide study by grades and by subjects, for the individual school study, and for a departmental study within a school. Moreover, since 9B and 9A classes are to be found in both junior and senior high schools, a comparison of teaching results will be made possible. Remedial work and retesting will follow the study. On the other hand, it is expected that this study will lead to revision and recommendations dealing with the courses of study and textbooks.

Mention has already been made of the demonstration lessons and critiques in the junior high schools to which senior high school principals, heads of departments, and teachers are invited. Moreover, demonstration lessons are planned to be given in the senior high schools by senior high school teachers, and to these junior high school teachers will be invited.

INTEGRATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

H. B. WILSON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BERKELEY, CALIF.

All agree that the business of public education is to train for successful living. Despite this object the schools continue to teach in terms of subjects and without much regard to the relationships existing between those subjects. Reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, geography, history, science, and the like are organized so that each has its own interrelationships, but the teaching is not so planned that all of these subjects focus, each in its own way, in the solution of life problems. The above description characterizes 95 percent of the teaching that takes place today.

A newer way of organizing subjectmatter is gradually establishing itself. The newer approach concerns itself with solving problems growing out of life situations and life needs. In these situations the children undertake to do things which are to them just as important and meaningful as are the things that grownups do. In their efforts to do they find problems, questions, difficulties which they must master before they can make progress. They find also that these questions, problems, and difficulties do not arise in such way that some may be answered with arithmetic, others with geography, others with language, and the like. Rather the difficulties require a composite, unified, integrated knowledge from a number of subject fields.

It is generally agreed that what one learns is a little more certain to recur for use in a situation similar to that in which it was learned. Since it is the utility of what we learn that is important, large reason exists for basing learning upon situations in child life similar to those which are apt to arise in the world of practical affairs when these same children have become mature. Such an approach not only integrates that usable, functional elements in the various subjects, but it likewise integrates the pupils into a social working group. Large progress may be expected in the years immediately ahead in the organization of subjectmatter in more synthetic ways than now obtain. Corresponding progress may be expected also in the procedures in teaching. Improved organization of subjectmatter and improved ways of teaching must go hand in hand if the largest integrating results are to be achieved with certainty and economy.

PROGRESS IN SCHOOL HEALTH WORK

THOMAS D. WOOD, PROFESSOR OF HEALTH EDUCATION, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN, JOINT COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION AND THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

A brief statement is made at this time of the continuing work of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association. This joint committee has been in existence now for sixteen years, and during that time nine reports and a set of fifty-eight charts have been prepared, printed, and distributed widely over this country, and in a number of foreign countries.

During the history of the committee, over a million copies of various reports and over sixty thousand copies of the individual wall charts have been distributed. The following reports have been prepared and distributed: (1) Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools, (2) Health Essentials for Rural School Children, (3) Health Chart Report, (4) The Teacher's Part in Social Hygiene, (5) Health Improvement in Rural Schools, (6) Health Service in City Schools, (7) Health Educa-

tion, (8) Conserving the Sight of School Children, and (9) Ventilation of School Buildings. This committee, in the preparation and distribution of the health reports and health charts, has had at various times the exceedingly valuable and substantial cooperation of such organizations as the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund of Chicago; the National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness; the American Social Hygiene Association; and the United States Bureau of Education in Washington.

The most extensive report of the committee, entitled "Health Education—A Program for Public Schools and Teacher Training Institutions," is at the present time, according to the testimony of many prominent leaders in the health field, the most authoritative document in health education which has yet been published and distributed in this country, and perhaps in any country.

The joint committee now has in preparation several important reports—one on "Provisions for Deafened School Children"; another on "Conservation of Teeth of School Children"; and a third on "Periodic Health Examinations of Children in School."

A very significant forward movement in this field of school health study and work is the program of extensive study which has been undertaken by the American Child Health Association, under the leadership and constant encouragement of Herbert Hoover, the President of the Association.

The American Child Health Association has devoted much attention in the past to the advancement of constructive health work in the schools. The most constructive service which it can render at this time is believed to be in the conduct of a study of national scope in which the attempt will be made to measure the result of health activities in terms of the physical status, knowledge, and habits of pupils.

The plan of the study is to apply the principles of educational measurement to health work. It is through the correlation of health promoting processes with the health status and condition of the pupils that light is expected to be shed on the most successful elements in the school health program.

Guiding this plan are experts in the field of public health, nursing, dentistry, and education. Among the latter are those specializing in the fields of measurement, nutrition, physical education and health education. The field staff in this study will consist of groups of technicians, including in each case a physician, a nurse, a health educator, and a dental hygienist. It is expected that from one to two weeks will be spent in each city.

The cooperation of school administrators is essential if this work is to be carried to success. School superintendents wishing to participate in this study are urged to communicate directly with the American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. The selection of cities to be included in the investigation will be made during the spring months.

AN AMERICAN PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

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The most fundamental American ideal is that which proposes equality of opportunity. We propose as an American program of education the provision of opportunities through education which will enable each individual to achieve his highest development in order that he may serve most adequately the society of which he is a member.

How far short we fall of the realization of this ideal is indicated by the variation which exists in the educational opportunity provided within the several states and among the several units which compose the nation. There are communities in every state which have developed school systems providing a wealth of specialized opportunity for boys and girls, for the youth, and for adults. In practically every state will be found, in contrast to this wealth of opportunity, the meager chance provided for boys and girls who must attend a poorly equipped and poorly taught elementary school, and for whom there is little or no opportunity beyond that provided by the one-teacher school.

We still permit half-educated boys and girls to teach in our American schools. We still offer education by means of reciting from textbooks and without the opportunity in library, laboratory, or shop for contacts which will stimulate thinking and encourage investigation.

That we have failed to achieve our ideal is not due primarily to our lack of resources. The people of the United States are today able to provide opportunities for education suited to the needs of each individual, if only certain standards are accepted and certain principles of support and administration are written into the laws of the several states.

In the discussion which follows I shall try to indicate how the achievement of the American ideal can be brought about. In order to make the case, I shall propose concretely the type of standard to be accepted or provision to be enacted in order that the desired result may be attained.

In the first place, our American program of education is dependent upon the provision of teachers who are prepared for their work by a generous liberal education and by a sound professional training. We are coming to understand that teachers in all parts of our school system must have the background in education and in professional training which we have hitherto required of those who have taught in our upper schools. In our more enlightened communities we are today providing that the salary paid shall not be dependent upon the age of the children instructed, but rather upon the preparation of the teachers and the quality of the work done. We are beginning to accept as our standard of training a minimum of three years beyond graduation from a standard high school. It seems reasonable to propose that within the next generation we shall place preparation for teaching upon a basis comparable to that required for the other learned professions.

In order that competent men and women may enter the teaching profession, it is essential that after a probationary period, during which they demonstrate their acceptability for the service, teachers enjoy tenure during continued efficiency. It is equally important that those who work in this branch of the public service have provision made for their retirement on allowance based upon sound actuarial procedure, and involving contributions by teachers as well as by the public. Such pension systems must—if they are to be effective—be established on a statewide basis.

Professional teachers and their leaders in the field of supervision and administration have an obligation to develop curricula and courses of study adapted to the needs of individuals who differ in physical condition, in intellectual ability, in emotional stability, and in vocational interest and outlook. The traditional American school program from elementary school through high school, college, and university has been adapted to the needs of the upper twenty-five percent of the children enrolled in our schools. By providing this common curriculum we have proposed that we have equalized educational opportunity. Nothing could be farther from the truth. The variations which have been made by reducing the quantities of work to be done in reading, writing, and arithmetic, geography and history do not offer a satisfactory solution. Our courses of study and our curricula must be modified to take account of the variation existing among individuals, to profit by their experience in the fine and industrial arts as certainly as in the mastery of the tools of investigation and inquiry. It is strange to hear members of our profession speaking of the fundamentals in terms of the minimum requirement in the tool subjects. Surely variations in ability to appreciate music and poetry, paintings and sculpture, the problems of home-making and of industry are quite as important as are differences in the ease and speed with which one may learn to read, to cipher, or to master the facts of history and geography.

An American program of education will be realized when all who work in our schools—whether in the nursery school, kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, vocational school, continuation school, night school, opportunity school, college, university, or professional school—are so placed in groups or taught as individuals as to provide for their regular progress and for the achievement of results within their reach. We have sinned against hundreds of thousands of boys and girls by teaching them that they are failures. Education is for success. The only measure which may be reasonably applied to the work of any individual is that which asks that he do the best that he can. In an American school, failure and repetition should be considered abnormal. Success in achieving the best that he can do should always be rewarded by an opportunity to take the next step in the direction of one's highest attainment.

If our schools are to accomplish these desired results, we shall have to provide for much more adequate educational and vocational guidance than now is afforded to most of those enrolled in American schools. We

are fortunate in having developed during the past few years methods of diagnosing the difficulties of children in learning, methods of measuring their intelligence, and in some degree methods of forecasting the fields in which they can most certainly hope for success. An American school system is under the obligation of continuing to develop this scientific attack upon the most vital problem of organized education. With all of the knowledge that we can obtain concerning the abilities and possible vocational outlook of individual boys and girls, there will be emphasized the necessity for special classes and for special opportunities for the mentally weak, for the physically handicapped, and for the delinquent, along with special opportunities for those who are intellectually gifted.

Opportunities for general culture, for vocational training, for the cultivation of special talents and for the removal of recognized deficiencies must be provided for those others who are engaged in productive activities, and for adults. Psychologists have discovered that the period of learning is not limited to childhood. It is of the utmost importance that through part-time and continuation schools, by extension courses and night schools, opportunities be provided for anyone who seeks to enlarge his command of his social inheritance or to develop skill which shall contribute to his personal satisfaction and to community welfare. We may confidently look forward to the day when some sort of organized education will be provided for all boys and girls under eighteen years of age, and a wealth of opportunity will be made available for all adults.

The achievement of this ideal in education is dependent in large measure upon the administrative and supervisory control offered locally. We have denied to millions of our population any adequate development of their public school system by permitting the continuance of the inefficient, small local units of administration. We may not hope to develop school systems which provide an American standard of education except as the local unit is made large enough to justify the employment of men and women with special training in educational administration and in the supervision of instruction. Outside of the urban areas this unit must be larger than the school district or township. In a number of our states the county has proved a most satisfactory unit for the administration of schools.

The professional administration of education, involving as it does the adaptation of the school system to the needs of the community, requires that all administrative officers be chosen on the basis of their professional qualifications and their attainments. We may not hope to have this desired result so long as we choose by popular vote state and county superintendents of schools. We have the example of the city school system and the selection of the professionally competent administrator by the lay board of education. This practice must be extended to the county and to the state if the professional administration of schools is to be guaranteed.

It is important, as well, that we should disassociate the lay boards of education from political associations. State, county, and city boards of education should be elected on non-partisan ballots and chosen at large

from the area which the board is to serve. In order to provide for continuity in the development of our program of education, the members of these lay boards must serve for relatively long terms, and the term of office of members be so arranged as to make it impossible to select a majority of the board at any one election. Those communities throughout the United States who have followed this principle have, on the whole, been most successful in the development of an adequate school system. The distinction between lay control of public education and the professional administration of our schools must be acknowledged in law and in the rules of boards of education.

We may not hope to advance an adequate program of education so long as political or personal considerations enter into the selection of personnel or the determination of educational policy. Our program will be best advanced when the appointment of teachers and of all other employees of the school system is by law based upon nominations by the superintendent of schools.

It is vital to the development of the school system that courses of study and curricula, the adoption of textbooks and the provision for educational supplies be proposed by the superintendent of schools in cooperation with members of the supervisory and teaching staff. We would propose that the lay board of education pass in review the recommendations of the professional group, but that they be not permitted to initiate the program to be carried out.

In like manner, the annual budget for the financing of the schools should be prepared by the superintendent of schools and his associates, showing unit costs for each item of the educational program, and should be passed upon by the board of education in terms of their understanding of the desires of the community with respect to the continuation of each element of the program, rather than in terms of increasing or decreasing the tax rate. Recommendations for buildings and equipment, based upon an evaluation of the present plant, a forecast of future needs—particularly with reference to a developing program of education—should be presented to the board of education by the superintendent of schools after consultation with the members of the professional staff.

Administrative officers should be required to report on the achievements of the schools over which they preside, and their reports—based upon scientific inquiry—should be the only bases upon which they ask for further support for the program which they have proposed.

An equalization of educational opportunity is dependent upon a system of financing schools upon a state-wide basis. It is a prime duty of each state to guarantee to each individual within its borders a satisfactory minimum program of education. This can be done only when the state adopts a method of support which will involve the state as a whole in providing a large percentage of the funds necessary to maintain the school system. It is essential that the state equalize the burden of supporting the program among the several areas for taxation and for the administra-

tion of schools. We need to rid ourselves of the idea involved in the expression "state aid" and accept the more fundamental notion of state support.

If we are to be assured that an adequate program of education is provided for all of the people within a state, we shall have to recognize the obligation to provide for a state department of education, equipped to certify as to the adequacy of all local programs of education in meeting state standards. The popular cry against centralization of control is not a sufficient argument against the development of very much more adequately supported and staffed departments of education than now commonly exist throughout the Union. It is only as we have organized in the state department a group of professional workers who will, through research, through experimentation, and through personal leadership, provide for the further development of education throughout the state, that we may propose that we are seeking to equalize educational opportunities. Indeed, it is only as the state department encourages local communities to provide more adequate programs of education than the state can require that we may hope to have the state's minimum acceptable program advanced to meet the needs of the changing social and economic conditions.

An American program of education based upon the best that can be done locally under the supervision of the state department of education will be incomplete without the encouragement and assistance of the federal government. From our earliest history down to the present time, the federal government has accepted responsibility for the support of public education and for the conducting of inquiries and the dissemination of information concerning the public schools. By virtue of the development of the science of education during the past 25 years, the nation today has the possibility of enlarging the scope of its scientific inquiry with respect to education, and certainly we are able to increase the support afforded this undertaking. It has long been argued by the profession that this most important function of the national government is in line with the activities carried on by the other welfare departments of our national government. Certainly a nation that is organized to promote agriculture and commerce through departments of the national government may not safely neglect its responsibilities for promoting public education. The placing of a bureau of education in the department of the interior, under a secretary whose primary obligation is the development and conservation of our natural resources, and who may not consider education except as one of the many interests for which he must accept responsibility, is to deny to this most important function of government in a democracy its proper place or proper support by the national government.

We confidently believe that the federal government can best carry on the work of scientific inquiry and the dissemination of information accruing therefrom, that the significance of education in our national life can be best presented to those responsible for the development of our country through legislation by the establishment of a department of education with a secretary in the President's cabinet. We look forward confidently to the

day when the American ideal of an opportunity through education, which will enable each individual to achieve his highest development in order that he may serve most adequately the society of which he is a member, will be realized throughout the nation. To the accomplishment of this result our profession is pledged.

PROGRESS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
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The progress has been in the direction of a better adaptation of instruction to the needs of a 20th century civilization. It has developed chiefly through a modification of the materials and technic of the course of study involving new activities of a social character in the schools.

In the time allotted to me, I desire to point out how rapid and fundamental the change in the general character of the course of study has been and to call attention to the fact that this change has been chiefly in the direction of educating youth to live happily and successfully in the social world, to adjust themselves to an environment of people, and to develop the ability to make contributions to the improvement of that environment.

The statement of a few years ago, setting forth seven principles or objectives in education, has served a double purpose. It has enunciated the educational belief or creed of a democracy, but, more than that, it has indicated the direction in which education as a practice should proceed; and this direction is entirely away from the individualistic and selfish; it is wholly in the direction of education for a social world.

The progress in the last few years has been noticeably along two lines: First, there has been introduced a regimen for helping the individual child to realize his full self, not for himself, but for society; and secondly, there has been frankly undertaken the training of the group in social living while still in school and through school activities.

To illustrate the first of these points, that the schools have honestly undertaken to make it possible for every child to realize his completest self, it is only necessary to refer to the wide variety of remedial instruction designed to remove handicaps of physique and personality. I refer, of course, to the introduction of all such training as pertains to the correction of physical defects, the overcoming of malnutrition, the elimination of incipient disease, the correction of speech defects, also all that educational movement in the direction of relieving the intellectual handicap of the subnormal child. The argument for this remedial program may start, I grant you, with appeals in behalf of the individual who is handicapped; it always ends, however, with justification on the ground that the remedial efforts must be made in the interests of society, so that society may be relieved of so much dead weight and, if possible, enjoy instead helpful contributions from those who, without remedial or preventive training, would prove only burdens.

I said a moment ago that progress has been chiefly in the direction of educating the child to realize his full self for society's sake and that to that end a regimen has developed rapidly for the actual training of the group for social living while still in school. I, of course, refer here to the marked tendency in the modern school to place upon the young the responsibility for the orderly direction and control of their own school activities and life, to the disposition to take the young into the school partnership, as responsible along with teachers and principals for the success of the educational undertaking. This tendency, which is in fact no longer a tendency, but a realized state, is illustrated in selfgovernment, now very generally operative in the schools, and in the many enterprises entrusted to children to carry out in and for the schools.

The effort of the schools to adapt instruction to the needs of a social world has brought about these and other marked changes in the school activities and subjectmatter; quite as noticeable have been the changes in classroom procedure and technic, made necessary because of the new subjectmatter and new adaptations. The effort to do the best for every child, in order that no individual may be lost to the social group, is illustrated in a very general reclassification of children in a single school or room. Perhaps progress is nowhere more evident than in the new procedure by which children of the same general ability or intelligence are grouped together for instructional purposes, thereby making it possible for fewer children to fall by the way, and greatly facilitating the progress of those who can move on more rapidly.

The very general introduction of intelligence and standard educational tests, which more accurately measure the capabilities and accomplishments of children, have greatly facilitated this newer grouping, as has the use of the counselor service to aid the over-busy principal in determining upon a desirable classification in a given room and to follow up children who show especial difficulties, and to help in adjusting the home attitude so that it becomes cooperative, instead of indifferent or antagonistic.

To sum it all up, recent progress in elementary education has been in the direction of helping the child to realize himself as a social factor and of conducting the school activities and experience so that they shall become a daily practice in social living.

REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN ELEMENTARY TEACHER TRAINING WORK DURING THE PAST YEAR

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I. *The encouraging and commendable aspects*—There has been no lost ground in the work of elementary teacher training to be charged to the endeavor account of the fiscal year, 1926-1927. There is much evidence to show that the progress in staff development, in the faculties of the state normal schools and the state teachers colleges, under the strong and

determined inspiration and guidance of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, at present a real functioning department of the National Education Association of the United States, has been constant in its development from year to year. This complimentary result has come from the unifying of the interests of the different states so that they are rapidly conforming to certain superior ranks of education and training that have been adopted and commended by the committees reporting from year to year on all these important matters of common educational interest. In another way there has been gradually increasing the kind of reciprocity between state licensing authorities that well educated and well prepared graduates from these state training schools are welcomed in most other states, thus broadening the opportunity for elementary teachers to transfer from state to state without interference or delay.

The decision of the American Association of Teachers Colleges to assume the responsibility of accrediting and standardizing and classifying the several state normal schools and state teachers colleges of the several states instead of allowing some other voluntary accrediting organization of higher education to do this work, has given a recognition to teaching as a business and to teaching as a profession that is deserving of special mention as showing actual and permanent progress.

II. *The non-progressive and the retarding aspects*—*The certification of teachers*—One of the hindrances to true progress in public education is the very common statutory plan of licensing teachers by the examining system where laws are adopted that fix for all time characteristics of required scholarship as it permits a variety of grades of licenses from a minimum to a maximum with no intention of ever having such license expire or compel improvement. The number of teachers permanently licensed by this method of management is usually the majority of those authorized in a state, and since teachers of such minimums are obtainable at the least possible salaries, the less ambitious school districts employ them, leaving the better qualified and the better trained in the surplus of the unemployed. The examining system, which has the effect of furnishing an over supply of teachers who have the least preparation, and the employment system that is legally authorized, working together, gives the impression abroad that much attendance upon a school or college for preparation is unnecessary and uneconomical for persons intending to be instructors of children and youth.

The school district system—In most American communities the management of public schools is in the hands of a school board or school committee that is appointed at a popular election and that has a supreme authority as to all the chief problems of the public schools. This legal status can put a veto upon almost all the general laws of the state system, upon the value and the efficiency and the results of supervision, and as a consequence discourages superior teaching and true educational progress. All such results are dependent upon the standards common among the people, and while they can be superior and may be progressive, yet under favorable circumstances even they are much more likely to be so conservative and so lacking

in ambition for the best intellectual development that they uniformly contribute to inefficiency and incompetency.

The status of the occupation—Public school teaching has always been and must continue to be uncertain as a permanent business for an individual worker. There can be no permanent tenure in general and there ought not to be any life employment where there is a necessity for a continued adjustment of demands and of services. This does not give a desirable situation so far as the teachers themselves are concerned, as annual elections are always occurring and there is constant liability to be discharged without hearing or explanation. This causes a disposition to seek better salary and hoped for better security as well as better prominence and more authority by being candidates for service in another location. In this struggle for prestige and promotion and better conditions the less qualified teachers are subject to being released without opportunity to go elsewhere, and the loss of experience to the staff is a constantly discouraging factor. The recruiting of the profession of teaching is a wasteful system, as those in preparation must depend upon obtaining service by the process of elimination of those now in the public service.

Conclusion—All this discussion cannot lead to a remedial suggestion for either the people or the teachers. The American principles of government are the causes of these untoward situations, and yet, if the authority of the people was reduced, the interest of the people would be likely to decline. Even taxation has its benefits to keep up the *esprit de corps* of a community since when it is compelled to contribute money to the education of its children it is much more certain to insist that its schools should give value received in service and in investment.

• III. *Other undertakings in elementary teachers in service training*—The final act of the states and the teacher training institutions is that of organizing work under an extension system for the benefit and improvement of teachers in service. This is a substitute for the condition of training that should have been had before the teacher was a candidate for employment. It is in no sense an equivalent in either efficiency or substantialness, but it is very helpful in enabling a large number of teachers in service to be very decidedly improved and developed. This system has been created for the purpose of bettering the conditions that legally exist and is shown in short assemblies as teachers institutes, teacher associations, parent-teachers organizations and general and special study clubs. The plans of the several states differ in the manner of management and each has its strength and weakness, all depending upon the recognition given these teachers in such limited training. The most effective plan has developed in state teachers colleges where there can be combined standard courses of study, extension summer schools, correspondence instruction and multiplied types of work that give credit that is permanent and transferable. Such a system becomes much extended where there is a faculty of extension professors, superior in qualifications, who organize classes in cities and towns and even the country for stated work at hours not in-

cluded on the day's regular schedule of the teacher's time under contract, hold special conferences for certain special lines of work and give advice of an expert kind to all concerned.

There has come from this experience what is known as Saturday classes for entire counties and cities, and many phases of consultative service where experts visit, inspect, and study the schools in session and meet in conference the teachers for discussion of ways and means of improvement in all kinds of directions and methods of better instruction. The improvement of the army of elementary teachers in the United States, whose authority comes from laws and contracts under the supervision of independent units of management, is an undertaking that is worth a large investment of money, time and effort, as thereby both scholarship and efficiency can be gradually exacted and accomplished since school authorities also learn that it is exceedingly wiser to employ only the competent, trained teacher in the turnover of new members of the staff that must be made from year to year.

WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THE MODERN TEACHER

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Not many years ago the function of the school was easily expressed, well understood and generally accepted as being "to impart knowledge to all of its pupils." This knowledge was carefully divided according to the several grades, and a somewhat detailed syllabus was laid down giving the limits for the various years. The courses dealt almost entirely with what were termed the "fundamentals." All students were treated alike—with regard for their intellectual capacity—and a rigid and somewhat stereotyped written examination was the only means of separating the successes from the failures. The scholar was made to fit the school.

The school was regarded as a kind of "cloistered institution" through which all must pass before they could enter the outside world, with which the school had little connection.

The teacher's duty was very manifest. His was the task of seeing that all those committed to his charge "knew" the several subjects, the proof being revealed by the examination. He was supposed to maintain discipline and exact good behavior by exercising his superior authority, the underlying idea being largely that by virtue of the very evident consequences involved in any departure from such good behavior the pupil would grow up to be good, not for its own sake, but for fear of the penalties of being anything else. The teacher's work began and ended with the classroom. He had nothing in common with the adult members of the general community except that he had during certain hours the charge of their offspring.

What is the position today? The change is so startling that it may

well be considered revolutionary. For instance, Dewey says, "All that society has accomplished for itself is put, through the agency of the school, at the disposal of its future members. All its better thoughts of itself, its hopes to realize through the new possibilities thus opened to its future self." Here the school is expected to assume the function of being the "safeguard of the progress of society."

Again, your own National Education Association has, after a most thorough and searching investigation, resolved that the fundamental objectives of the school should be to bring about:

1. Sound health.
2. Worthy home membership.
3. Mastery of the tools and technics of learning.
4. Faithful citizenship.
5. Vocational effectiveness.
6. Wise use of leisure.
7. Ethical character.

These may well be taken as giving a very accurate summary of what is expected of our schools today. It should be noted that only in the mastery of the tools and technics of learning do we find common ground with the program of former days. It is also very evident that many of the previously accepted responsibilities of the home and of the church have nowhere transferred to the school. The introduction and development of organized industry has removed the opportunity for each observation and practice in the various vocations and this deficiency has now to be made good by the schools. Hence the school can no longer remain isolated from community life. It becomes, instead, the real, vital center of such life and definite connections must be made between school activities and those of the community. The teacher has an entirely new relationship. He must now accept tremendous responsibilities and must regard as his chief duty the development and the training of boys and girls, of future citizens, and must regard the mere importing of knowledge as of secondary importance. He must become a guide, philosopher and friend rather than a "superior person of authority." He must have vision. He must look beyond the immediate needs of his pupils, and must seek to give each one the fullest opportunity for realization of his or her best possibilities. He must realize that each of his scholars has a distinct personality which must not be destroyed. He must be allowed to develop under his guidance. He cannot fulfill his mission by "class" instruction, but must know the capacity and study the needs of every individual pupil.

To meet this new conception of the schools many radical changes have been made. Teaching has changed in character and has become much more scientific. The mental equipment of the pupils is now determined and they are graded with much greater accuracy than formerly. The intellectual achievement is also obtained by examinations of a much more reliable type than those of previous days. The old form disciplinary theory has been abandoned, and many of the mental gymnastics of the past have been relegated to the educational scrap heap.

The curriculum has been enlarged and enriched in content, and the various subjects have been vitalized and motivated. Much useless material has been deleted, and an attempt has been made to relate the various subjects to actual life and to the practices of the outside world. As was expressed recently in an editorial in the *Journal of Education*, "The old curriculum was made for adults—it was static and unchanging; it finished the child's education and called for a mastery of facts. The new curriculum is made for children; it continues to grow; it begins the child's education and calls for mastery of life."

New methods of teaching have followed. The "recitation," the "project," and such like developments have all answered from the necessity of facing new conditions, conditions brought about by the development of industry and commerce, and by our changing modes of life. The underlying aim has been to bring about the growth of the child from the inside by stimulating the inborn desire to question and to discover by actual experience. The pupils have been allowed to exercise their initiative and to experiment. The fundamental question is now not what they learn but how they learn. Discipline is not now of the militaristic type—superimposed and obeyed without question or understanding—but is rather a self-imposed regulation and restraint, an obedience founded on a much higher plane. Such discipline prepares pupils to make important choices and decisions for themselves, and consequently develops a high degree of self-confidence which is of inestimable advantage in later life.

Many schools have indeed selfgovernment by the pupils, a most useful and practical preparation for the duties of citizenship which will come in later years.

Our training of teachers has necessarily undergone many changes in harmony with the advances made in educational theory and practice. We have greater academic preparation, a higher degree of scholarship, and a longer and more thorough period of training. Teachers of experience whose courses in normal training schools were taken many years ago have taken advantage of the summer schools now attached to almost all institutions of higher learning and have kept themselves abreast of the times.

But there are some things of very great importance which, in my opinion, still remain to be done before we can be satisfied that we have made all the adjustments necessary to meet the changed conceptions and conditions which have come upon us. I would like to point out a few of these. The community has given over to the schools very great and important additional duties and responsibilities as we have seen, and is in consequence demanding a tremendously increased contribution from the teachers. What is the community doing itself to meet the new situations it has created? Is it voting enough extra money to pay for what it has ordered? Is it prepared to give sufficient remuneration to provide for the much higher type of teacher it now requires. Such objectives as worthy home membership, faithful citizenship, wise use of leisure, and ethical character, cannot be attained through young, poorly-trained, inexperienced teachers.

And yet, in many countries, we still send our youngest teachers, without any practical experience, into the rural communities, singlehandedly to teach these as well as the other subjects of the curriculum.

In another field the teacher's position needs classifying. As we have seen, modern education has resolved itself into a search for knowledge and truth largely by the pupils themselves under the guidance of the teacher. Now, truth is truth, and a scientific inquiry after it cannot be satisfied by any distortion designed to prevent the real facts from coming to light. Yet many of our propagandists would have our teaching so modified as not to conflict with what they would pretend to believe to be true, but know to be partly, if not wholly, false. The day must come when our pupils will be encouraged to gather all information from all sides concerning any topic under discussion, and by a careful weighing of the evidence, by acceptance of those which are proved and a rejection of those not based on fact will come to a well-considered and logical conclusion.

Perhaps, however, the most important issue coming out of our modern educational advancement lies in the field of organization. Under the old system organization was not difficult. Centralization was effective and efficient. Courses could be laid down in such great detail that the teachers' work became autocratic and machine-like. They simply taught according to regulations from a higher authority and little knowledge was required.

The task of the present is to develop such a type of organization as will allow opportunities for every teacher to use the professional resources which, by training and practice, he has at his command, and will make it possible for his successes to become a contribution to the general efficiency of the system by making his methods known to those not so skilful, while he in turn will be helped to overcome his difficulties by learning of those who have succeeded where he has failed.

Lastly, I believe that the teaching profession has made remarkable strides during the last few years and has now come to the point when it should establish itself alongside the other professions. It is easy to say and believe that teaching is the greatest of all professions, but at such times we are clearly only thinking of certain aspects of teaching more or less of a missionary character. There is not any reason why we cannot extend the application of the statement to the more practical and social aspects. This can be done, but, in my opinion, only in one way. That way is by the development of a professional consciousness right along the line. When we realize that all who are engaged in education of any character, whether it be in the university, normal schools, administrative systems, high schools, or common schools, are all serving under the same banner, and are engaged in a common crusade, and when we are prepared shoulder to shoulder to resist any attempts made to hinder the progress of the great work committed to our charge, then, and not till then, will education assume its rightful place in our lands.

A REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS DURING THE PAST YEAR

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It is impossible to record adequately the progress of secondary education during the past year. More energy is being expended and in a more highly organized fashion for the betterment of our high schools today than ever before. The phenomenal increase in enrolment of ten percent per year which has obtained for the last decade has apparently continued during the school year 1926-27. New buildings, many of them fine examples of modern architecture, arise to replace the antiquated, unsanitary, and inadequate structures which formerly served our needs. Improved equipment for instruction purposes is replacing the primitive type of former days. A veritable flood of new and better textbooks in all the high school subjects has come from the press during the past year. Standards have been raised in many states for the qualifications of high school teachers. And, although the mounting expenditures for schools have been attacked in various quarters and the attempts of legislatures to prescribe the curriculum have continued, we can report with confidence that the growth of the high school in America has continued unabated during the past year.

Probably the most significant educational document produced during the current school year was "The Foundations and Technique of Curriculum Construction" published by the National Society for the Study of Education as Part II of the Twenty Sixth Yearbook of that society and prepared by a committee under the direction of Professor Harold Rugg. The remaining members of the committee were Professors Bagley, Bobbitt, Bonser, Charters, Counts, Curtis, Horn, Judd, Kelley, Kilpatrick, and Works.

As indicated by the title, this committee endeavored to find a common basis upon which there could be erected a curriculum for the elementary, secondary, and higher schools of this country. This, of course, is the task of philosophy and the report contains not only those basic principles upon which the twelve members of the committee were able to agree but also personal statements from nine of them giving their own individual views of the direction in which education in a democracy should proceed. It is well known that there exists among our leading professional educators a wide divergence of opinion on some of the basic conceptions underlying our educational practice. The committee was fairly representative of these various viewpoints and a constant effort was made to find points of agreement rather than of difference. The resulting statement, while necessarily in the nature of a compromise, suggests a basis and a technic for taking the next step in curriculum building.

The chairman insists, however, that this is not an educational platform but rather a statement of problems for discussion. For more than two years the committee considered at length the issues involved. And, while each member of the committee expresses his approval of the report, one has

only to read the individual statements to appreciate how widely divergent are the educational philosophies there represented. How can we proceed to modify or rebuild our high school curriculum intelligently when we are so uncertain concerning its underlying principles? Surely the importance of this report lies first in its clear statement of the problems involved and secondarily in the tentative hypotheses for their solution.

Only the more outstanding issues raised by this important report can be mentioned in passing. These include the question of whether the curriculum shall be based primarily on the child's interests and aptitudes or upon adult activities. Shall we seek to adjust the child to society as it now is or shall we leave him free to make his own adjustments when the proper time comes—in other words the problem of indoctrination. One of the most difficult undertakings of the committee was to reach a common understanding as to the meaning of such terms as "project," "unit of subjectmatter," "true learning," etc. Much of the apparent difference of opinion in the committee and therefore in discussions at large was found to be due to the lack of a common vocabulary. Even after these understandings have been reached, however, there remains a number of fundamental differences concerning the nature of progress, democracy, civilization and similar underlying concepts. The surpassing value of this report lies in its clear statement of these basic educational problems.

Professor Kilpatrick in his "Statement of Position" in the Yearbook and also in his "Education for a Changing Civilization" presents the viewpoint of one who differs radically from present practice in education. He believes that it is impossible to build a curriculum in advance. This is true not only because of the nature of the learning process but also because we live in a rapidly changing society. We cannot educate children for adjustment to present conditions, for these conditions are changing constantly and will continue to shift more rapidly in the future. Therefore the curriculum must be made as we proceed; it cannot be made in advance. This is an extreme view. The positions of most educators lie somewhere between this radical position and the conservatism of present day practice.

How can we proceed with any certainty to rebuild or to modify in any way our high school curriculum until we know how this curriculum is to function in the lives of the pupils? Professor Bode, in his "Modern Educational Theories," has shown clearly the futility of attempting to build a curriculum by scientific methods until we have a sound underlying philosophy. He points out the weaknesses and deficiencies of various current proposals for curriculum reconstruction. Fallacies are revealed in the attempt to formulate the curriculum from specific activities, by job analysis, by sociological determination of objectives in education, and through the project method. The central theme of his book, however, is an argument for a sound educational theory by which we can evaluate the numerous proposals for determining the content of the curriculum and the corresponding methods of instruction.

Professor Bode's book and the committee report in the Twenty-Sixth Yearbook bring us back to elementary considerations. In what direction is education, or for that matter civilization, moving? How can we report progress until our course is charted? The present necessity is for an acceptable theory of education which can only grow out of the fierce conflict of intellectual controversy.

Professor Bobbitt and his students have contributed during the year a volume of "Curriculum Investigations." Reasserting his belief in the validity of building a curriculum on the basis of the activities of "those persons who come nearest to living life as it ought to be lived," he attempts to determine at least tentatively what are the fields of human action. This is done by an analysis of periodical literature, newspapers, the encyclopedia, Thorndike's *Teacher's Word Book*, and the Literary Digest. Other investigations reported in the volume give the results of analyzing various sources of material and the tabulation of topics tending to reveal the duties and traits of a good citizen, social problems of the labor group, quality of conduct, approved social behavior, shortcomings in the written English of adults, the mathematics used in popular science, play activities of persons of different ages, and the placement of poems in the grades. The material which Professor Bobbitt and his students have collected is of unmistakable value to the curriculum maker even though the theory of curriculum construction on which it is based may not be altogether valid.

Professor Briggs has been another contributor to high school curriculum construction during the year. In his volume entitled "Curriculum Problems" he too has stated a number of questions which must be answered, some by research and experiment, others by philosophy and educational theory, as we make progress in the remaking of our curricula. These problems include "What are the desired ends of education?," "What is the good life?," "To what extent is it desired that education shall modify the character and actions of future citizens?" as well as such questions as "What is the optimum length of the school day and year?," "Which units of instruction should be required and which elective?," "What degree of mastery is demanded?" and numerous others of similar type. No answers are suggested to these questions because the author believes that the solutions must be arrived at, not by individual opinion, no matter how authoritative, but by cooperative discussion and research. In addition to the statement and definition of problems, there is also a discussion of "Emotionalized Attitudes" and "Mores." The volume is a distinct contribution to educational theory.

From the practical side of curriculum making the two outstanding contributions are the Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence dealing with the junior high school curriculum and the Report of the Committee on Standards for Use in the Reorganization of Secondary School Curricula of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary schools. Both reports urge that the materials presented are tentative and discussion is invited.

It is clear that we have definitely passed the stage where any individual or any group of individuals can issue a "course of study" in any high school subject with any degree of finality or authority as was formerly done by various committees of ten, eight, fifteen, etc. Instead, the various committees reporting in these two volumes have gone back first of all to a search for valid objectives. The North Central Association report in particular is devoted to a statement of ultimate and immediate objectives—ultimate for the curriculum as a whole and immediate for each individual subject. The chief value of this report seems to lie in its method of approach to the problem of curriculum reconstruction and in the proposed technic for evaluating the materials of instruction.

The superintendent's yearbook is partly a historical survey of the development of the junior high school idea but is chiefly a review of recent research in this field. One hundred nineteen research studies are summarized in the book. It is an illustration of the Cooperative Plan of Curriculum Revision and the Yearbook is prepared partly by the Research Division of the National Education Association and partly by twelve national junior high school committees.

Physical education, the newest comer, is making headway as a recognized subject in the high school curriculum. President Coffman, reporting in the *American Physical Education Review* on selected papers read at the Middle West Convention last year, summarizes as follows:

Superstition, rural character of our social life, absence of subjectmatter, incompetent teachers, and tradition have prevented acceptance of physical education into the program of general education. These conditions have changed. Population is urbanized, faculty attitudes have modified, well trained and competent teachers are available, the general public is demanding more physical education to help meet the problems growing out of urbanization and increased leisure time.

A new era in physical education is at hand. Health and physical training are taking their place beside other established subjects in the curriculum. Instead of one play field, one gymnasium, and one swimming pool, there will be many. Instead of a few courses in games or gymnastics there will be many courses in the basic sciences intended to give the student a wholesome conception of the elemental factors underlying human health and happiness. Delay in the complete establishment of such a program reflects upon our ability to make one of the things essential to personal happiness, community welfare and material prosperity a reality.

The place of athletics, however, in the educational scheme is uncertain. The outlook is not encouraging. The commercialization of basketball and football in particular has advanced to a point where the school administration is no longer able to control the situation in the interest of educational purpose. The problem presented here is one of control and subordination rather than of elimination. Athletics, properly coordinated, is a legitimate and even an essential element in a general educational program.

The greatest growth in enrolment and in popularity, apparently, has come in the commercial group of studies. The commercial course is partly vocational and partly exploratory-vocational. Stenography is clearly vocational. It must be admitted that time spent in studying this subject by

those pupils who do not later hold stenographic positions is very largely wasted. The same is true to a somewhat less degree of the study of book-keeping, depending largely on the selected content of the course.

Last year the writer carried on an investigation in Wisconsin high schools, the results of which have been confirmed by other studies, to learn what percent of the graduates of commercial courses for a period of five years were holding positions requiring a knowledge of bookkeeping and of shorthand. The following conditions were revealed by the reports of 108 schools and 4918 graduates:

About one-fourth (23 percent) of all the graduates are reported as holding positions requiring a knowledge of bookkeeping. In the smaller schools the percentage is less (10 percent) and is the same for boys and girls. In the largest schools it is 30 percent for girls and 44 percent for boys.

About one-third (32 percent) of all the graduates hold positions requiring a knowledge of stenography. In the small schools (5 teachers or less) the percentage is much less (16 percent). Only one boy out of eight (13 percent) graduating from the commercial course holds a position where a knowledge of shorthand is necessary. In the largest schools over one-half (57 percent) of the girl graduates hold such positions.

Manual training and home economics are holding their own in the high school curriculum without noticeable gain. There has been considerable activity among those interested in these subjects in the reorganization of the course of study and particularly in the definition of objectives. Several studies have been reported in this field, notably the Commission on Unit Courses of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Agriculture as a subject in the high school appears to be losing ground.

The usual activity by teachers and administrators interested in English, mathematics, science, foreign languages, and the social studies is reported in the journals devoted to these subjects. The committee reports of two years ago on mathematics and Latin have been followed by a deluge of new textbooks in these subjects purporting to embody the recommendations of the committees. The forthcoming report on modern foreign languages should accomplish the same result in this field.

A quite extensive and significant research study in the secondary field has been carried on this year by W. J. Osburn of the Wisconsin state department of public instruction at the request of the Committee on Administrative Units of the Commonwealth Fund Organization and financed by that institution. The subject of this investigation is "Overlapping and Omissions in Our Courses of Study." The reasons for such a study are evident. It is well known that there is much duplication in high school of work covered in the grades. "Koos finds also that there is much overlapping between the college and the high school. He estimates that the first two years of collegiate instruction duplicate 36.4 percent of the work given in the high school. In these same years of the college 20.1 percent of the work in the social subjects duplicates that in the high school and 9.3 percent of the science duplicates that of the high school."

The cost of education in America has increased to a point where there is serious question as to its further extension. If the efficiency of our educational system can be increased by the elimination of duplication and overlapping, thus shortening the time required for the various stages without decreasing the achievement of the students, it should by all means be done.

Of almost equal importance to the problem of the curriculum is that of teaching method. The curriculum determines method, but method in turn modifies the curriculum. Professor Counts, in an article in the *May School Review*, suggests seven types of persons who should cooperate in the task of curriculum building. These are the psychologist, the sociologist, the philosopher, the specialist in the selection and organization of materials of instruction, the classroom teacher, the expert in the appraisal of the curriculum and the high school administrator. It is easy to see how each of these persons has a part to play in the reorganization of the high school curriculum.

In the past the classroom teacher has had little effect in modifying the curriculum as a whole. It is true that individual teachers here and there broke away from the textbook formulation of subjectmatter and outlined courses of study better suited to their needs or fancies. But as a rule the course of study had been accepted on authority and no attempt has been made or opportunity given to bring about modification. Under traditional methods of teaching conformity is necessary. The daily assignment of textbook material leaves no latitude for variation. If the classroom teacher is to contribute to curriculum reorganization, a modified teaching method must be adopted.

The plan proposed by Professor Morrison in "The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School" seems to offer a solution to this difficulty. By this plan the teacher builds the curriculum out of subjectmatter units. No matter how busy the teacher is, nor how inexperienced, she can look forward into the coming semester and plan the teaching of one unit in a single subject. In this way the teacher becomes a curriculum builder. If she is working at the same time in cooperation with the psychologist, the sociologist, the philosopher, and the other educational experts mentioned, there is promise that her work will endure.

Morrison's textbook for secondary school teachers has had a marked effect on teaching procedures during the year just closing. It attacks lesson-learning and the traditional recitation. Miller's "Directing Study" had called attention to the process of study as an educational objective rather than the product of study. Theoretically we had accepted that as a teaching aim, but in practice the recitation was a process of giving back to the teacher information, solutions. Generation after generation of geometry classes had committed solutions and recited them in the class period in spite of the fact that the teacher claimed that he was teaching the pupils how to reason. The forcible presentations of Morrison, Miller and others aroused teachers from their apathy and set them to studying anew the problem of procedures as related to teaching aims.

The longer assignment embracing a significant, comprehensive, and unified body of subjectmatter offers to the teacher an opportunity which the daily lesson assignment does not allow. It enables her to care for individual differences if the administration of the school will supply her with materials for the pupils to work upon. The new problem for the teacher is the best adaptation of classroom activities to teaching purposes. Motivation is by teacher-talk; testing is most efficiently done by the written examination, chiefly of the objective, short-answer type; study must be directed if pupils are to acquire effective methods; some oral expression by pupils is desirable, both topical and in discussion. But along with this flexibility of adaptation of procedures is the necessity on the part of the teacher to adjust also the subjectmatter of the assignment to the needs and interests of the pupil.

The new idea of supervision is based on the principle of respect for personality and implies not dictation or authority but the cooperative solving of teaching problems. Under this notion the supervisor becomes a helper rather than an inspector and his advice is sought by principal and teacher alike.

The typical principal has in the past done very little supervision of instruction. The reason for this was not lack of time, as claimed, but rather his feeling of incompetence. With a sound theory of supervision, acceptable to both teacher and principal, with responsibility definitely located, and with ample assistance available in written form and personal conference, the improvement of teachers in service has taken on new life and meaning even in small high schools with inadequately trained principals.

One of the important developments of the year is a movement not only for the better preparation and guidance of teachers in training but also for their better care and continued professional education during the first two years of their teaching experience. Professor Edmonson of the University of Michigan presented to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools the following resolutions, which were adopted as policies of the Association:

(a) The Commission on Secondary Schools recommends that a teacher with less than one year of teaching experience should not be assigned more than four classes per day and should not be assigned full responsibility for any extra-curricular activity or complete charge of a large study hall or session room. It is further urged that special care should be taken to assign classes to a beginning teacher in major or minor fields of academic preparation.

(b) The Commission on Secondary Schools further recommends that each approved secondary school should feel responsible for furnishing training in service for a limited number of beginning teachers in order that an adequate supply of well-trained secondary school teachers may be furnished to the profession. In determining the number of beginning teachers that a school should employ, careful account should be taken of the adequacy and efficiency of the supervisory staff. It is not assumed that a school furnishing beginning teachers a year of training in service is under any special obligation to retain such teachers as regular members of the instructional staff.

The argument in favor of these resolutions is that at present "beginning teachers are frequently assigned the 'left-over subjects,' which may or may not be within the teacher's field of specialization." Also, "beginning teachers are sometimes called upon to take care of more extra-curricular activities than teachers with experience."

There is in course of formation at the present time in Wisconsin an organization of all teacher-training and supervising agencies in the state designed for better guidance and placement of beginning teachers, better care and supervision of them during the first two years of their internship or apprenticeship in the profession. The first two years of teaching service should still be regarded as a part of the teacher's preparation under the guiding care of the state under whose tutelage the training was begun. Such an organization will bring into closer cooperation the various institutions training high school teachers in Wisconsin and will unify the teacher-training program—a result that has been sought in other states by various methods more or less successful.

The testing movement, which has had its greatest previous development in the elementary field, has made notable progress in high school subjects during the past year. For the first time a textbook of respectable size has been published, devoted entirely to tests and measurements in high school education. Professor Ruch, whose former book on the "Improvement of the Written Examination" is well known, in collaboration with Professor Stoddard has issued a treatise on high school tests, both of intelligence and of achievement. The title of this book is *Tests and Measurements in High School Instruction*. As I write, the notice comes to me of a second textbook in the same field entitled *Measurement in Secondary Education*, by Percival M. Symonds. The advent of these new books is an indication that the measurement movement which has been so slow to enter the high school has at last reached a stage where the accumulation of authentic material is sufficient to warrant author and publisher in launching a treatise on this subject.

The short answer, objective type of test question is rapidly replacing the essay type in the classroom examinations of the teacher as well as in standardized tests of pupil achievement. The advantages of the new types of question are so obvious that only the most conservative teachers refuse to see them.

The true-false form of test question, in spite of serious objections, continues to be the most popular and the most widely used by teachers and test makers. The two most serious criticisms urged against the true-false test statement are, first, the tendency on the part of the pupil to guess the answer with the resulting difficulty of accurately scoring the examination, and, second, the undesirability of placing before pupils false statements.

McClusky and Curtis, writing in the April number of *School Science and Mathematics*, propose a modified form of the true-false statement which obviates the "guessing factor." About twice as many false statements are included as true ones. Pupils are directed to place a T before

the true statements, but to correct the false ones by changing not more than two words in the original statement so as to make it true. On experimental use of the new form in five classes the authors offer the following conclusions:

1. The modified form takes more time to administer than the true-false.
2. The modified form possesses a greater usefulness in homogeneous grouping for drill upon certain units of work than does the true-false.
3. The modified form is a better power test than the true-false.
4. The modified form is more reliable than the true-false. The ratio is .93 to .82.
5. The modified form is more difficult for the pupils than the true-false.
6. The modified form tends to eliminate whatever elements of guessing may be functioning in the true-false. ".....the 'guessing factor' can be entirely eliminated by making all the statements false and by so informing the pupils at the beginning of the test."

While this modified form of the true-false type of question reduces the guessing factor, it increases the number of false statements used in the test. Although technically this is not objectionable, on account of the widespread prejudice against this practice it would seem desirable if the number of false statements could also be reduced. The writer has proposed in the April number of the *School Review* a modified form of the multiple-choice test in which all of the statements are true but one, and in about a fourth of the test questions all the statements are true. The form of the test question is as follows:

Lead is (1) an element; (2) a metal; (3) it is malleable; (4) it is a good conductor of heat; (5) it has a greater density than iron. Which of these statements is false? If none, write O for the answer. This modified form of the multiple-choice question retains all of the latter's advantages and eliminates the objection of using many false statements. The clause "If none, write O for the answer" increases by one the opportunities for guessing and therefore decreases correspondingly the probability of guessing correctly. The modified form is no more difficult to construct, is fully objective, and has the added advantage of presenting to the pupil material which bears directly and positively on the subject of the test.

Professor Downing during the year has published in *School Science and Mathematics* norms for a group test of scientific ability and achievement in high school. The test, called the group four test, because it contains four types of test questions, has been standardized for each year of the high school on the basis of 3201 students in Chicago and Toledo high schools. In a later issue of the same journal he furnishes data to show that the five word test alone, which is one of the four tests used in the group four test and takes only ten minutes to give, correlates quite highly with the entire test as a measure of "the relative efficiency of the science work in various schools or systems of schools."

Giles, Schmidt and Thomas published last fall Series B of their General Science Examination, making with Series A a list of 2300 short answer type questions on twelve topics in general science. This examination has not been standardized and the purpose is not primarily to measure the effi-

ciency of teaching. It is rather designed as an aid to the teacher and may be used both for assignment as study guide questions and also for measuring pupil achievement.

The Columbia Research Bureau Tests which appeared within the year under the authorship of Dr. Ben Wood and his co-workers form a valuable addition to the available testing material in high school subjects. These include tests in Physics, Geometry, French, Spanish, German and English. The chief value of these tests is for survey purposes "to discover the talent most likely to succeed in higher education and, conversely, talent more likely to succeed in other fields." The validity and reliability of the tests are exceptionally high.

The junior high school as a modifying feature of secondary school organization continues its popularity. This is especially the case in cities, where the construction of junior high school buildings relieves the housing problem both for the high school and for the elementary grades. It is in the larger centers also that the curriculum for the ninth grade is being modified in accordance with the accepted theory of the junior high school. In rural districts and villages six-year high schools are being organized in large numbers. They are usually high schools in name only, however, because the curriculum is very slightly modified if at all, the only change being in unified administration and the departmentalization of the seventh and eighth grades.

The flow of publications relating to the junior high school shows no sign of abating. There is noticeable, however, a change in viewpoint. Propaganda and defense argument are disappearing and constructive studies are the rule. Touton and Struthers, *Junior High School Procedures*, the most comprehensive volume in this field during the year, assumes the junior high school as a permanent feature of our educational system and summarizes the best practice to be found in these schools today. Bennett has issued a revision of an older treatise, *The Junior High School*, omitting much that was argumentative. The battle for freedom of development of the junior high school organization was practically won during the past year by the action of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in adopting a resolution recommending that college entrance be based on eleven or twelve units of high school credit. The Southern Association, which has had a committee studying this question for several years, will doubtless take similar action in the near future. This attitude on the part of the most influential group of universities and colleges in the country admitting students by certificate assures the right of high school administrators to modify the curriculum of the ninth grade in accordance with the best findings of the day.

A considerable list of important administrative problems, the solution of which has been furthered during the year, can only be listed. Pupil guidance, educational and vocational, is one of these. Reavis, *Pupil Adjustment in Junior and Senior High Schools*, describes remedial treatment for maladjustment by the case method of individual counselling. Brewer

and others also published *Case Studies in Educational and Vocational Guidance*. Several texts have appeared on the subject of extra-curricular activities in high schools and junior high schools. This subject is receiving increased attention, since it is from this field that the curriculum itself is being recruited. The effect of class size on teaching efficiency was studied through a controlled experiment in the University of Minnesota last year. The report, which confirms previous studies with high school classes, says: "It appears that the size of the classes in the courses thus far investigated has little or no effect upon the results measured in terms of student achievement." The College Entrance Examination Board, which exerts such a controlling influence on high school standards and development in New England, has issued a historical account of its work during the past twenty-five years and has outlined its progress in the improvement of its examinations during recent years.

Moral education remains the most baffling as well as the most important problem of high school administration and instruction. Little constructive work has been done in this field during the past year. The most promising activity is reported by the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., International Council of Religious Education, and similar religious and social organizations. Interest in the subject is widespread and insistent, indicating dissatisfaction with present conditions and calling for concentrated study of the problems by competent agencies.

In conclusion: The title of this sketch is "A Review of Progress." We have been passing in procession the various movements that affect most intimately the high schools of this country. There is much activity, but how can we be sure that it represents progress? The answer to that question depends first of all on our definition of progress. If by that term we mean advance toward a definitely located goal, the answer is negative. We have no clearcut, universally accepted, ultimate aim for our educational endeavor. In a rapidly changing civilization such as ours a fixed goal is clearly impossible. We do not know the kind of life the boys and girls of today should lead when they become adults.

We do have, however, a set of tentative ideals which we accept as our objectives. If progress may be defined as advancement in the direction of these ideals, then the various activities which I have reported to you are in the line of progress, for they carry us nearer, slowly and haltingly to be sure, but measurably nearer, to our common educational ideals.

A few years ago a national committee formulated a group of these ideals into the seven cardinal principles of secondary education. The publication of that document had a tremendous influence on the development of the high school in recent years. That report still represents, better than any other statement that has been made, the direction in which the high school is moving. We have been analyzing and extending these principles and will doubtless reformulate them from time to time, but the most important work done this year in curriculum revision has been based on these cardinal principles.

Our problems are more clearcut than ever before and the technic of their solution is better understood. The field of research widens as we advance, but the function of philosophy also becomes plainer. The various related sciences of psychology, sociology, statistics, et cetera, make increasing contribution from year to year. Not all is gain; there is much lost motion. Practice still lags discouragingly behind accepted theory. There is a vast amount of poor and mediocre teaching in high school classrooms and all too little that is excellent. But evidence is at hand that instruction is improving under the guidance of better preparation of teachers, improved supervision, and an enlightened theory of education. With our energies directed in cooperative endeavor for the solution of our common problems, with a growing faith in secondary education as evidenced by the increasing enrolment of our high schools, with the new science and the new philosophy as our instruments of attack, we confidently assert that the year now closing has been one of decided progress for the American high school.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Dallas Meeting

President—HENRY LESTER SMITH, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana

Vicepresident—FLORENCE HALE, State Supervisor of Rural Schools, Augusta, Maine.

Secretary—ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.

First Session, Monday afternoon, February 28, 1927—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:00 P. M., in the Munger Room of the Y. W. C. A. The president introduced speakers who presented topics as follows:

FALLACY OF TREATING SCHOOL SUBJECTS AS TOOL SUBJECTS

Charles H. Judd, Director, School of Education, University of Chicago.

CHAOS OR INTEGRATION IN EDUCATIONAL THOUGHT AND EFFORT

Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado.

INTEGRATION IN WORLD-WIDE EDUCATION

Augustus O. Thomas, President, World Federation of Education Associations, State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Maine.

The president distributed tabulations of replies of members suggesting subjects of investigation by the National Council of Education, but no definite conclusions were reached as to those to be selected for study.

Second Session, Tuesday afternoon, March 1, 1927—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:00 P. M., in the Munger Room of the Y. W. C. A.

The speakers and topics presented were as follows:

TECHNIC OF COOPERATION

S. A. Courtis, Professor of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN A CITY SYSTEM

David E. Weglein, Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland.

INTEGRATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California.

Some spirited discussion followed as a result of the papers presented by the last two speakers and there was an evident desire to secure further detailed information on the organization of the junior high school.

At the request of the secretary a committee was named to dispose of correspondence making requests for endorsement by the Council of certain current movements, or provision for a place on the program in the interest of a particular cause.

At the close of the session this committee, consisting of John W. Abercrombie, chairman, H. L. Smith, Ethel Perrin, and R. O. Stoops, met and decided unanimously to leave the disposition of such matters to the discretion of the secretary.

Third Session, Wednesday afternoon, March 2, 1927—The meeting was called to order at 2:00 P. M. by the president, in the Munger Room of the Y. W. C. A.

The program for this session was under the direction of two committees. One of these committees was a standing committee in the National Council of Education, which had been working for several years jointly with a committee from the American Medical Association on "Problems of Health Education." Dr. Thomas D. Wood, chairman of this joint committee presented a report, consisting of a résumé of the work and previous reports of the committee.

The second committee was a recently organized committee in the National Council of Education, for the purpose of dealing with "Behavior Problems of Children." This committee is working jointly with a committee from the National Conference of Social Work.

Miss Olive M. Jones, Chairman of these cooperating committees, gave a brief statement of the origin and objectives of the work of the committees and introduced speakers as follows:

1. Frank J. O'Brien (substituting for Ralph P. Truitt, Director Division for the Prevention of Delinquency, National Committee of Mental Hygiene, New York City, unable to be present).

2. Millard C. Lefler, Superintendent of Schools, Lincoln, Nebraska.

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

These speakers presented "Behavior Problems of Children" from the points of view respectively of (1) Mental Hygiene, (2) The Teacher and School Administration, and (3) The Training School for Teachers.

Much interest was manifested in the proposed work of this committee and a number of those present participated in the discussion, particularly as it related to the selection and method for training teachers to deal with behavior problems of children. The discussion indicated that several institutions either have in operation or are consciously working toward the organization of such teacher training courses for pre-employment purposes or to aid teachers in service.

Adjourned.

Seattle Meeting

First Session, Tuesday Afternoon, July 5, 1927—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:00 p. m. in the Men's Parlor of the Plymouth Congregational Church.

After a brief statement of some matters of business to be taken up latter by members of the council, the president introduced the speaker of the afternoon, George D. Strayer, Professor of Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. The subject of Dr. Strayer's address was "Our American Program in Education." Opportunity was given for general discussion, but no questions were raised on the points brought out in the address.

Second Session, Wednesday Afternoon, July 6, 1927—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:00 p. m. in the Men's Parlor of the Plymouth Congregational Church.

The president then introduced Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California, who spoke on "Progress in the Elementary Schools."

The second speaker scheduled for the afternoon was Homer H. Seerley, Presi-

dent, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa, who was to present a "Review of Educational Progress in Elementary Teacher Training Work During the Past Year." Dr. Seerley was unable to be present, but the report was deemed to be of such importance that it was read by N. D. Showalter, Cheney, Washington.

Third Session, Thursday Afternoon, July 7, 1927—The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:00 p. m. in the Men's Parlor of the Plymouth Congregational Church.

At the opening of the meeting, the Committee on Membership made recommendations which were unanimously approved by the Council for supplying vacancies in the offices and membership of the Council. The new officers and members elected are as follows:

Vicepresident—Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California, with term expiring in 1930.

Member of the Executive Committee—Miss Anna Laura Force, Denver, Colorado, to succeed herself, with term expiring in 1930.

Committee on Membership—Carroll G. Pearce, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, and Robert H. Wright, Greenville, North Carolina, to succeed themselves, with terms expiring in 1930.

Membership—Alfred Cook, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Baltimore, Maryland, to succeed Frederick Archer, Greensburg, North Carolina, with term expiring in 1931. Augustus O. Thomas, State Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Maine, to succeed Joseph Swain (deceased), with term expiring in 1929. Miss Flora Drake, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana, to succeed Miss Georgia Alexander, term expiring 1933. Henry Suzzallo, Seattle, Washington, to succeed C. P. Cary, Madison, Wisconsin, with term expiring in 1932.

Elected to succeed themselves with terms expiring in 1933:

Annie Webb Blanton, State Department of Public Instruction, Austin, Texas.

Grace Abbott, Chief, U. S. Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

I. L. Cammack, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Missouri.

David B. Corson, Superintendent of Schools, Newark, New Jersey.

W. A. Lewis, President, State Normal School, Hays, Kansas.

A. L. Threlkeld, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado.

May Trumper, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana.

J. H. Wagner, U. S. Bureau of Education, Seattle, Washington.

D. B. Waldo, President, State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

The president then introduced speakers with topics as follows:

BREADTH AND SPECIALIZATION IN EDUCATIONAL THEORY.

Henry Suzzallo, Seattle, Washington.

WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THE MODERN TEACHER.

Harry Charlesworth, Secretary, British Columbia Teachers' Federation, and Vicepresident, World Federation of Education Associations, Vancouver, B. C.

REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS DURING THE PAST YEAR.

J. T. Giles, State High School Supervisor, Madison, Wisconsin.

At the close of the program, the members of the council met in Executive Session and unanimously voted to take up for special investigation during the coming year the following educational problems:

1. Study of Failures in the High Schools of the Country and of the Methods in Use Connected with these Failures.

2. Fundamental Basis of the Relation of the Business and the Professional Aspects of Educational Administration.

It was further unanimously voted that the president of the Council appoint a committee to determine ways and means for taking up the investigation of these problems.

Adjourned.

The Department of Adult Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION was established by vote of the Representative Assembly, July 8, 1921, as the Department of Immigrant Education. The first meeting was held in 1922 in Boston. See *Proceedings*, 1922:905. In 1924 the name of the Department was changed to the Department of Adult Education. See *Proceedings*, 1924:566.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, A. W. Castle, Director of Extension Education, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.; *Vicepresident*, Ethel Richardson, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1130 Sun Finance Building, Los Angeles, Calif.; *Secretary*, C. S. Marsh, Dean of the Evening Session, University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.; *Treasurer*, Wil Lou Gray, State Supervisor of Adult Schools, Columbia, S. C. This Department meets once a year in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:460

1923:669-703

1924:565-582

1925:337-353

1926:327-371

1922:905-968

THE DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION, ITS STATUS AND FUTURE

ROBERT C. DEMING, PRESIDENT, DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION,
CONNECTICUT DIRECTOR OF ADULT EDUCATION, HARTFORD, CONN.

MY ADDRESS today, outlining the past, present, and future of this department must take nothing for granted. There may be many here who have not my conception at all of the duties and responsibilities of state and local officials in this field of adult education, and who may not grasp that this annual meeting will probably mark the expansion of the department to include all public school education for adults—following the excellent catch-phrase of the day “the equalization of educational opportunity.”

In this Pacific Northwest, you here may not believe that every educational opportunity should be offered the illiterate or non-English speaking adult and every effort made to interest him or her in such instruction before the slightest criticism is made of their failure to participate in our democracy. You may not believe that this type of instruction requires trained leadership to recruit and supervise classes, that trained and adequately paid teachers are essential, that a special technic and special courses of study are required. Above all you may not believe that after flag-raising and political oratory and “reduce illiteracy by 1930” campaigns that state and local laws and appropriations are essential if anything is to be actually done.

How can the uneducated contribute to America without the opportunity for education? They cannot.

With these things as a basis of understanding we can take up again the position of the old Interstate Council in 1921 and understand why it assailed the portals of the National Education Association with a request for recognition—and why it was granted. For the next three years the department gave itself over to introspection, the improvement of programs and methods, and publicity. In 1924, to include the native illiteracy problem in the south, its name was changed to its present title.

Following 1924 we strove for and obtained the appointment of a specialist in the Federal Bureau of Education at Washington, and have tried by every means, through our Bulletin and conferences, to better our knowledge and interest individuals and states in our problems.

Our expansion in the states has been slow. Even though some thirty states have permissive legislation of various types, only about fifteen states are actually doing anything with laws, responsible educational officials, appropriations and programs. All the rest are still throwing up their hands in horror.

Lastly while on this phase of elementary adult education, may I modestly admit for the department that it or the Federal Bureau can supply anyone here from the many unorganized states with a complete model state or local set-up for carrying on such work. Those states with state pro-

grams for the past six or seven years feel that this form of education is now a recognized part of the school curriculum with technic, methods and problems all its own. They have settled down to the long hard grind of obtaining literate, English speaking communities for good citizenship by an educational program. They are intensely eager to have other states do more than declare their intentions.

At present the department feels that it has the greatest opportunity in the field of education. It represents not only the pioneers in a great new world of education but it has confidence that it represents the great interests of all those adults who because of labor saving devices, shorter hours of labor, and a world of machinery, have not only leisure time but an overwhelming desire to express their personality and to give themselves the opportunity to obtain success and always happiness through special study. If ultimately the department can include in a coordinated field of adult education all those educators who instruct adults from beginning English classes to evening high school and general evening classes in special subjects, all under public auspices, it will have obtained its fullest mission.

In the field of adult elementary education we find ourselves involved in national problems at present. First—What policy should industry (holding the psychological key to our non-English speaking problem in education) adopt towards its foreign-born workers? There is the real solution of the unassimilated. Again—What efficient naturalization standards and procedure, everywhere uniform, must we set up? A committee is to report on this. And again—We are very much concerned with our immigration policy, with the proper registration of aliens. Lastly—We at present feel that if we can include in the 1930 Census a test for the ability of adults to read a sentence in English with understanding, we will have obtained for the nation's educators and for democracy more of educational value than ever dreamed of. A practical and efficient test has been carefully worked out by this department, and Mr. Hoover has written, welcoming the specific recommendation of the National Education Association in this matter.

These projects all have the zest of the pursuit of living things, of existing human problems—the field is fascinating in the extreme—sociology and psychology are much involved. We know that every man and every woman must have the opportunity to develop genius, that the state and nation must reward initiative and perseverance in a democracy. Professor Thorndike in his May 19th address at Cleveland set forward the cause of public adult education ten years when he announced the results of his studies of the adult's ability to learn as compared to the child in school. "The chief reason," he says, "why adults so seldom learn a new language or trade is not lack of ability, for up to 50 and after they learn faster than children, but the lack of opportunity or desire. They have too many things that must be done." Is it not our job to offer that opportunity and to arouse that desire? Is not that one definition of educational leadership both among the educated and the uneducated? We have before us a clear wide path of duty for adult education. Forward.

IMMIGRANT EDUCATION IN CALIFORNIA

ETHEL RICHARDSON, ASSISTANT STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, IN CHARGE OF ADULT EDUCATION, LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

Immigrant education in California is as varied and picturesque as the history and geography of this romantic state. With the exception of the most remote mountain districts, there is almost no territory in which the immigrant has not penetrated. There are dramatic stories such as one finds in one community on the edge of Los Angeles in which the Mexicans began buying a few years ago and putting up whatever they could afford to live in. This hastily occupied region gave the appearance of a refugee camp for several years, but suddenly order began to take place, permanent homes with charming gardens replaced the forlorn shanties. Two large public schools were built in the midst of the community and a new American population was established.

There are thirty-six cities in California with regularly organized school systems under a city superintendent. All but three of these have programs of immigrant education. Since the three are small residential cities with practically no foreign adults, this means that the immigrant in California cities has a fairly good chance of obtaining an education. There are 241 high school districts outside city systems. In 115 of these there is education for the foreign adult. There are sixteen more where there is need for it, and no classes as yet have been offered.

There is as wide a variety in the types of program as in the character of the soil or the geographic location. In Orange County, about Fullerton, summer vacation begins in the late fall when it is time to pick the walnuts, and the laborers go to school all summer. Here the schools have received the assistance of the big cooperative agricultural corporations, such as the Walnut Growers and the Citrus Association. In most cases the teacher lives in the camps or on the ranches, in houses provided by the company, in close proximity to her adult pupils.

At Ontario, the teacher has a traveling schoolroom in a school bus and goes from camp to camp, taking the school nurse with her and working deliberately to lower the infant mortality rate, which is so high among the children of the migratory workers.

In Los Angeles, where the home teacher was started in 1915, the system of cottage classes for mothers has been well developed. Whenever in their extensive building program the board of education obtains a lot with a small house on it, this house is moved into a foreign neighborhood for the use of the home teacher. The mothers help with the decorating and make it their own, and it becomes their clubhouse, their school and often their health center.

In the San Joaquin Valley, where schools have been built over night to take care of the children of the cotton pickers, a part of the equipment is the kerosene lamp which sends its light out over the flat fields of the cotton ranches and invites the fathers and mothers for an evening of education.

In Ventura, there is the small town eight miles from the high school center where a gang of boys has been mutilating the schoolhouse at night and stirring up trouble for the quiet residents. Here the Americanization teacher drives out each night and has organized a club for the girls working in the cannery and a dramatic society for the hoodlum boys. After trying everything light and gay to interest them, it was Shakespeare to which they really responded.

This year Oakland has set itself to the development of as scientific a program of immigrant education as could be worked out. Each home teacher has made a house-to-house survey of her entire neighborhood, and a pin map on the wall in her office shows her and the principal of the school how completely the foreign homes are being covered by the adult classes. Portable cottages are being turned over to the home teachers to be located at centers where the best and most regular attendance can be obtained. In both the day and evening classes, a most accurate system of grading and placing has been established. Lesson material is sent out very regularly to meet the requirements of each grade of students. Teachers' meetings, school conferences and a cooperative exchange of material are making a unified program of great efficiency.

In the far northeast, a company lumber town has reached out for the services of the Americanization teacher, and a slum community in the midst of a gorgeous redwood forest has begun to catch some vision of social and sanitary order and the foreign population, under clever leadership, is organizing its own programs of health, housing, sanitation and recreation.

California recognizes a few principles as fundamental. The first, outweighing all the others, is that immigrant education cannot succeed unless each community where it is attempted has the full-time direction of an experienced, mature teacher with initiative, tremendous energy, and a gift for understanding people. Whatever other facilities are present, the work will fail without this teacher. Second, there must be continuous training for the teachers while they are working. It is not sufficient to have taken a course in preparation for adult teaching; it is equally essential that practical assistance be given after the teacher has had contact with her classes.

California has been fortunate in having such training offered by the extension division of the state university under the direction of Miss Ethel Swain in every part of the state throughout the winter months.

Third, there must be support for the education of foreign adults from the state equivalent to that given for any other type of education. The local community cannot carry the expense without assistance. The money received on attendance in classes in California from the state and county is almost sufficient, in all but two or three of the larger cities, to meet the expense.

Fourth, everything must be done in this special field to build up an *esprit de corps*. Teachers must not begin to feel isolated, over-worked and

out of the stream of important activities. The various associations of Americanization teachers in each locality in the state and the voluntary editing and distribution of a quarterly journal, the *Community Exchange Bulletin*, has done much to meet this difficulty.

Fifth, immigrant education must feel itself a part of the whole adult education program. Teachers in this field must be made to see a big future for them; they can continue their own education and look for important advancement, and the adult foreigner in the English class should be encouraged to look forward to the time when he can join a class of native-born Americans in subjectmatter interestingly presented and mature in content.

SOME OUTSTANDING CONTRIBUTIONS TO ADULT EDUCATION AS SEEN IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE UNITED STATES

L. R. ALDERMAN, SPECIALIST IN ADULT EDUCATION, U. S. BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The purpose of this address is to tell of a few of the outstanding examples in public adult education that have become known to the speaker. It is not possible for one person to know of all the work that is being done in all parts of the country in this growing field of education. I shall speak for the most part about public elementary education of adults, because this is a most important problem in the country today.

So far as I know there has been no thorough examination of the exact amount of school education possessed by the American people. The census returns show that six percent of the whole population of the United States could not write in 1920. A test given by the Army in 1917 to determine for what military duty men of the draft were best fitted revealed that 25 percent of those examined could not read with understanding. Just how true a picture this is, we do not know. However, we do know that the census returns do not pretend to give the number of those who are able to read with understanding. It gives the number of those who admit that they cannot write. In planning our educational programs it would be a great advantage if we knew the exact number of adults who lack elementary education, but we do not need to wait until we get such information, because we find that large numbers of foreign and native-born adults come into our evening schools for elementary subjects when they are given an opportunity to do so. There are probably from 20,000,000 to 30,000,000 of our people who would profit by elementary education.

In the education of the foreign-born there has developed a point of view that is worthy of our notice. It is perhaps giving to many teachers the attitude that was held by only the most exceptional teachers 10 or 15 years ago. The fundamental principle in this point of view is that it is the first business of the teacher of the foreign-born student to help him

orient himself in this country. Obviously the first need of the newcomer is conversational English. The teacher is there to help. There is no propaganda. There is no hint that the newcomer should become a citizen. Citizenship is too sacred to be forced or even urged upon anyone.

The trained teacher of the foreign-born comes to the classroom with a keen appreciation of the moral and intellectual worth of the members of her class as individuals, and also with a knowledge of the contribution that the nationalities represented in her class have made to the world's civilization and to the progress of the country. As a result of this attitude, goodwill and comradeship develop in the schoolroom between teacher and students and among the students themselves. This fellowship makes each member of the class feel that he is a valuable member of the neighborhood. Citizenship, then, is the natural step for those who already are a part of the community in which they live. It was this attitude of school teachers that caused Mary Antin to write *The Promised Land*.

The states which are making satisfactory progress with the education of the foreign-born are those which have state aid for this work. By state aid we mean that the state pays about 50 percent of the expenses of conducting the classes. This assures trained teachers and provides supervision that brings about an effective program.

The instruction the non-English-speaking mother calls for a special kind of school, as many of these women cannot attend regular classes because of the care of children, and, too, the women of some nationalities will not attend public gatherings. These women, unless given the proper instruction, are apt to stay strangers in this new country for a long period and, as their husbands and children learn English and American ways, they are very apt to be strangers in their own homes. Classes for non-English-speaking mothers are held usually in the afternoons in their own or neighbor's homes. This service is much appreciated and makes for unified home control, for better health, and less crime.

The best state-wide work with our native-born illiterates that I have seen is in South Carolina. There we find a state appropriation, state leadership of the finest kind, cooperation between the schools and employers, and a growing belief on the part of the people that the most valuable resource of any community is its human resource.

The finest work I have seen in any one county is in Buncombe County, North Carolina. A survey of the county revealed that there were 6000 illiterate men and women in 1920. Four thousand of these have now been taught to read and write, and new recruits come to school each year. These persons do not stop with the mere ability to read a primer or write their names, but stay in school until they can read and write well and until they have acquired the habit of doing so. Some of these people have now reached the fifth-grade level of ability and plan to go on until they need the school no longer in order to read and understand the problems of the day.

With these examples of what has been done toward solving the problem of native illiteracy we ought not to wait longer for new methods, but duplicate in other states and counties the type of work found in the Carolinas. In 1920 there were in the United States 1,242,572 native white illiterates and 1,842,161 colored illiterates.

Perhaps the best evidence of what a state or city is doing for the education of her adult population is the effectiveness of its evening schools. The only time that those employed during the day can attend classes is in the evening. The hours from 7 to 9 o'clock in the evening are, for many people, the most meaningful hours of the day. If men and women spend these two hours for self-improvement, what a change for the better a few years bring about!

If the objective in our educational program is but to train children for citizenship, it is in line with sound, economic principles to give parents an opportunity to secure at least an elementary education, as parents have the care of their children fully ten times as long as the schools do. We are wisely spending millions of dollars for the training of our school teachers who have the care of children but one tenth of the time. The neglect of the elementary education of parents is most unwise.

If the objective is to promote good citizenship of all our people, then there should be a program of elementary adult education in each state of the union. To expect wise and discriminating voting by illiterate or near-illiterate voters in this complex civilization of ours is to expect the miraculous. That a democracy depends upon the intelligence of its citizens is a truism. Necessary as is education for leadership, we also need more emphasis upon the education of all citizens in the duties and privileges of citizens. There is a decided tendency in American education to make the schools less of a classifying agency and more educational in nature. Adult elementary education is an important part of such a program.

If the objective is to improve the health of our citizens, then adult education is very important. A very large percent of our drafted men were not fit for unrestricted military duty. Poor health is costing billions of dollars in money. It causes poverty and crime. The elementary education of adults is necessary for successful health campaigns and for the general observance of health rules that make health campaigns unnecessary.

If the objective is the prevention of accidents that take unnecessary lives, it is obviously essential that our adults know how to read understandingly.

If the objective is to lessen crime, one of the means to that end is to give all adults an opportunity to understand our laws and the reason for them. A man who knows that laws are self-imposed and are enacted for the safe-guarding of the liberties of all is not so apt to break them. Our penal institutions are filled very largely with unschooled boys and men.

If the objective is to bring general prosperity and happiness to the whole population, then the education of all our citizens, whether young or old, is essential.

Demonstrations in adult education show that where adults have been given the right kind of opportunity to get an elementary or secondary education they have taken advantage of the opportunity to do so.

The evening school indicates the time and the place of a supreme opportunity. An important question for every community to answer is how general and how effective are its evening schools. Has it the buildings, the equipment, the teachers, and the need for adult education?

Evening schools should have as much consideration as day schools. They should have a definite part of the budget. They should have trained teachers and adequate trained supervision. The education of adults is not only necessary, but will pay dividends. The greatest, surest, and richest resource this country has is its people. That resource can be developed only as the general intelligence of the whole people rises. The time for the education of the people is not only during youth but all through life.

Adults have more leisure than ever before and they see more clearly the necessity of understanding their growing and ever-changing environment. The deep current of public opinion is impelling men and women to seek for life's purposes. They search for a better understanding of their relationship to their fellows and are learning that schoolroom where others are learning is a very pleasant place in which to be.

Adult education has in it such possibilities for individual, national, and race betterment that evening schools which provide such education should command the interest of all who are concerned with human weal.

THE NECESSITY FOR LEADERSHIP AND FINANCIAL SUPPORT IN A STATE PROGRAM FOR ADULT EDUCATION

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Writers and speakers on the subject of adult education appear to have a habit in common, and to be surprisingly uniform about it, of glorying in the absence of regulations, standardizations, organizations, and systems, which has characterized the movement thus far.

They seem to feel that by reason of spontaneous and untrammelled growth adult education bids fair to become something that the regular brand of education isn't, and, by the same token, that that something is all to the good. There is a growing tendency on the part of students of this movement to challenge the established practices of American education and to charge them with at least partial futility. There are those who assert that, instead of the educational experiences of American youth serving as an introduction to and an initiation into a life of zestful educational pursuit, with ambition to bring learning to a high plane of excellence, it tends rather to produce an intellectual stalemate.

A major note is that, while adult education is a comparatively new thing, at least in American life, the movement has already gained almost

astounding momentum. There are said to be five times as many adults engaged in a more or less earnest pursuit of education outside of educational institutions in this country as are enrolled in all the colleges and universities combined. The college and university enrolment is estimated at a little over 600,000, while the membership of evening schools, correspondence schools, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. classes, K. C. schools, Young Men's Hebrew Association schools, library reading groups, co-operation schools, labor colleges, Americanization classes, etc., is well over 3,000,000. The amount paid annually to private correspondence schools alone is reported to be over \$70,000,000.

With a movement of such a character and such force it is difficult to see how the state can longer fail to concern itself, whether adult educationists like it or not. It is doubtful whether the state can afford to keep out.

A statement that the educational authorities of the states at any rate have for the most part failed to so concern themselves in any constructive or intelligent fashion would doubtless provoke indignant denial. To some extent, and especially in some instances, the protest would be justified. The statement is substantially true nevertheless.

For the purpose of ascertaining to what extent the departments of education in the various states were grappling with the problems of adult education, I wrote to every state superintendent and commissioner of education in the United States.

Thirty-five direct replies were received and in several instances persons outside the regular staff wrote of special phases of the question.

It seems fair to assume that the general tenor of these letters is a fair index of what is going on in this connection in and around the various state headquarters. Any shrewd guesser among you could probably have foretold what the letters indicate, which is, in the main, that either adult education is not receiving much attention on the part of educational leaders or that the educational leaders are not represented in the state departments.

There were a number of superintendents who say frankly and bluntly that their states are doing nothing. They show at least enough grasp of the proposition to know that they are not doing anything and are direct enough to say so.

By far the greater number of the letters reported upon some special activity such as Americanization, vocational training, stamping out illiteracy, home economics, etc. It is pertinent to point out that while vocational training, English for immigrants, or the teaching of illiterates may each be a worthy type of adult education, the promotion of one or more or even all of them does not constitute a state program.

It is enough perhaps to report that the responsible officials in more than a dozen states are laying hold of the problem in an intelligent and constructive spirit. They recognize its true meaning. They are beginning to speak the language and are spreading the gospel. The most common medium for state activity in the field of adult education is of course the evening school. Probably nobody knows how extensive evening school

work really is or how many people it is reaching. There are schools reported in practically all the larger centers of population in the country and many notable examples of like work in rural communities. I do not happen to know whether any attempt has been made to ascertain the extent of the total enrolment or to estimate the amount of public funds expended. The enrolment would certainly run into the hundreds of thousands and the investment well into millions.

Most states contribute to the support of these classes usually by way of an apportionment based on attendance. In our own state, for example, the state and county together contribute approximately ten cents per student for each evening's attendance.

The contact of the state departments of public instruction with these schools is usually through state directors of vocational education and a corps of field workers whose function is usually to carry out the provisions of the Smith-Hughes act in cooperation with the United States Government or through directors of Americanization charged with carrying out the state program of immigrant education.

Thus most states provide apparent leadership. But it is nearly always leadership with a special slant. It would hardly be fair to say that vocational education is over emphasized or that immigrant education receives too much attention, but special relations appear to obscure the significance of the whole situation. These things deserve the attention they are getting provided they do not get it all. Where is there an evening school that is meeting the full aspirations of the knowledge-hungry adults who crowd its classrooms? What city has a school whose faculty knows or even suspects the difference between giving primary instruction to ignorant unfortunates who missed it in their childhood, or giving a little trade training to an aspirant for a job and affording an aspiring student body of wide awake citizens an opportunity to fit itself for worthy membership in cultured and civilized society? True, there might be retort with some justification that most evening school students are not likely candidates for membership in such society or ready to receive a liberal education. In the first place this isn't true, and in the second place it would be simply a "non sequitor" if it were true. To a considerable extent intelligent students do not enrol in evening school or, if they do, they do not remain merely because evening schools are what they are. Most evening schools continue to be primary schools for ignorant adults plus job training. Isn't this just where and why leadership is needed?

Why should the states assume the responsibility for the education of adults? Do we not provide unparalleled facilities for every child? Are we not approaching a condition in this country where those who desire to learn can receive a fair education at public expense? Isn't the length of the school day and the school year being constantly increased? Has the like ever been attempted in the whole history of mankind?

What need, then, of a new leadership in a new field? Aren't we having

enough of a struggle merely to carry on? If we are able adequately to finance what we have already undertaken, shouldn't we be more than satisfied?

The present generation of children are being subjected to greater pressure along educational lines than any other generation in the world's history. From an average of 70 days, the school year is approaching 180, and there are educators who would push it up to 240 days by way of vocation schools, continuation schools, etc.; all this, besides the music lessons, the dancing lessons and the art lessons. This is all very well for the sturdy, healthy child, gifted with a fine nervous system and an academic mind who succeeds. But with standardized courses, and parental demand, and the pedagogical urge, and the fear of failure, and the public and family disgrace thereof, what of the non-academic, the neurotic, the puny, the anything but the special type? Must childhood be a hectic worried pilgrimage to a goal none sees and few attain?

Even if our superb American faith makes it possible to go on financing an indefinitely expanding program, even though because they have been taught to believe in education as they never believed even in God, an American public is willing to pay and pay and pay until it hurts. Is it necessary? Is it best? Does it pay to go on spending weeks of unhappy child labor learning what at the proper time, under proper circumstances, an adult can learn in twenty minutes? We might at any rate find use for a few leaders who would honestly and intelligently face that question.

Then there are the colleges and universities. Does anyone imagine that as things are, they are going to perform the functions of adult education satisfactorily or successfully?

Most of you have heard or read the address on "Again the Open Door in Education," before the Department of Superintendence last spring, by Frank D. Boynton, vicepresident of the Department. He bluntly charges that the colleges and universities are failing to provide the educational opportunities to which the youth of America is entitled. Be it remembered, he is not advocating the cause of adult education. He is simply arguing the failure of the university to meet legitimate expectations.

Curiously enough, after a keen and penetrating analysis of the failure of the colleges, Mr. Boynton's own answer to the question is more colleges, and junior colleges. To be sure he prescribes certain reforms. But why does he think colleges are the only answer? College presidents could doubtless enlighten him as to the growing difficulty of raising funds. They perhaps could well support their contention that circumstances are forcing upon them a policy based upon selection and exclusion. Is it conceivable that every youth of educable quality can have a college education? Equal educational opportunities for all is an appealing slogan as well as a sound democratic principle. I am aware that it is customary in educational circles to give short shrift to the complaints of the taxpayer and the troubles of the budgeteers. But as practical fact *can it be done?* Could many of the

most worthy avail themselves of this kind of opportunity even if it existed? Could even *most* of our worthy young people postpone entrance into productive occupation to devote sixteen years—four or five of which are the best years of their lives—to mere preparation merely because it is “now or never”? Is this the only way?

Setting aside the question as to whether a preparation for life almost wholly out of contact with that for which the preparation is being made really prepares, still the problem wants facing.

It has been estimated that the mortality in correspondence courses is 95 percent—three million people and seventy million dollars! Forty percent of evening school students drop out in the first ten weeks, presumably because they do not get what they want. Yet the numbers seeking knowledge and willing to spend time and money in the search is constantly growing.

Can the state ignore this situation? There are problems involved vitally affecting large numbers of citizens and thereby affecting the welfare of the state. The expedition is afoot. The state could at least finance the exploration.

IMMIGRATION, A PACIFIC PROBLEM

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Americans generally have hardly begun to think of immigration as a problem of the Pacific. The Atlantic has brought in its thronging millions from Europe, threatening our economic standards and establishing among us centers of alien life and culture. We have awakened rather suddenly to these dangers and have quickly decided that mass immigration must be prevented and selective immigration on some practical principle established. What should be the principle of selection we do not know except that roughly the numbers entering from the various nations of Europe should have relation to the numbers already here.

In the direction of the Pacific we have little to guide us as yet but vague fear and surmise. Few of us know how many people of Asiatic origin are here, nor how thoroughly they are being assimilated. We think vaguely that white people may be admitted hopefully to our citizenship and guess that Armenians are white, while Hindus are probably not and Chinese are certainly not. Meantime, we admit Mexicans freely, though statistics from hospital and court and prison show that it is much harder for them to adapt themselves to our social conditions than it is for the Chinese or Japanese who have come to us. Some of us are still thinking and talking of inferior and superior races, though there is little or no scientific basis for such divisions of mankind, and though history is rapidly destroying such value as the rough judgments of the past upon this point may have had.

In a field where so-called experts disagree, educators may well be

cautious. In what we teach to the future citizens of America concerning aliens who may seek admission to our country, we cannot afford to be dogmatic, but we may surely be helpfully suggestive. We may not map in detail the path of our nation's future, but we may point out general directions for fair and hopeful experiment. I wish to lay down three propositions as a basis for discussion of our future immigration policy:

1. Mass immigration into the United States from any quarter does not promise well for us or for the world.
2. To discriminate among immigrants on the basis of race or color is unscientific and dangerous.
3. Our present crude and tentative methods of selecting immigrants need to be refined, and probably to be supplemented with carefully devised personal tests.

First, to open the doors wide to mass immigration from crowded Europe or crowded Asia would be to invite disaster for us and for other nations. It is to the interest of the world that our experiment in large scale democracy should be continued under no more serious handicaps than it carries already. If the social and political experiment that was begun in 1776 is to have any chance of success, it needs at least as much community of language and social and political tradition as the United States now has. In this connection it should be remembered that the American people must for many years struggle not only with the results of recent mass immigration from Europe, but also with the results of an earlier forced immigration from Africa. This has had serious economic results and more serious social results. The political and social caste system which operates to limit freedom and opportunity for the negro bids fair to persist as a blight upon our national life for many generations. We could not risk the establishment of another caste of yellow men in our midst. It would be doubly dangerous, to them and to us.

Second, discrimination against some aliens on the basis of race or color seems to me equally dangerous, though we have made beginnings in this direction. On the one hand there is, I believe, no scientific basis for such discrimination. Observations I have been able to make in recent years and reports I have had from educators in our Pacific coast states, in Hawaii, and in Japan, indicate that the Asiatic is able quickly and completely to adopt our characteristic traits and points of view, and, unless one judges him by complexion and facial configuration, to become as good an American as the best of us. On the other hand, from the point of view of the Oriental, racial discrimination is becoming increasingly obnoxious and increasingly dangerous to world peace. Recent events in the Orient indicate pretty clearly that the phase of our present international relations to which Asiatics most vehemently object, is their apparent status of inferiority. Referring to our Asiatic exclusion law, a Japanese educator asked me two or three years ago at a meeting in Kobe, "What do you

Americans mean? Do you wish to unite the eleven hundred million colored people of the world against the five hundred million white people?"

Third, there is need for revising and extending our basis of selection. The quota system which we are now using is fairly based upon the assumption that we wish in the main to provide for continuous national character. We do not wish to throw over old traditions and set up new by any radical alteration of the dominant racial strains of our people. It is fair to assume that aliens entering the United States will be readily assimilated roughly in proportion to the number of our citizens of the same national origin and traditions. It is further fair to assume that we can assimilate larger numbers from those nations that are closer to our traditional character in language, culture and political experience. I have met no one at home or abroad who has questioned the justice or wisdom of these assumptions. Critics of our present immigration policy usually grant that we may hopefully admit more of north Europeans than of south Europeans, more Canadians than Mexicans, probably more Asiatics from the Near East than from the Far East. Questions are raised as to the basis upon which the proportions are to be determined; and, as I have already indicated, more serious questions are raised over our exclusion of some races altogether.

This exclusion, initiated in the fear of destructive economic competition, has been encouraged by popular belief that certain races are demonstrably "superior" and others demonstrably "inferior." One observes at the outset the disquieting fact that the demonstrator always begins by demonstrating that his own is a superior race. Thoughtful students are beginning to discard this classification of races as misleading and mischievous. We are coming to see that there is greater divergence within races than between them. We are coming to recognize as unintelligent a policy which excludes people of one race without discrimination and admits people of another race without discrimination. Every race has its own superior traits, every people has its own peculiar gifts to bring to this nation in the making. Why not put them all on the quota basis and then apply our intelligence to the selection of promising immigrants from those who apply? It seems probable that a hundred fifty Japanese per year would be less burdensome and might be vastly more profitable than a hundred fifty thousand Mexicans. We strain at a gnat and swallow a camel.

Inter-racial antipathies and international misunderstandings are not innate and inherent, they are the fruits of false education. They may be removed by true education. Our young people must be taught to judge people not by the color of their skin nor the slant of their eyes, but by their attitude in friendly cooperation and by their achievements in justice and beauty. It is my conviction that a generation so educated will turn its back upon racial discrimination as ignorant and offensive, and will devise personal tests of body and mind and character that will admit, in fair proportions from all races, men prepared to take a worthy part in this huge experiment in "government by the people" in these United States of America.

SOME ECONOMIC ASPECTS OF IMMIGRATION

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A very considerable part of history, as history is now coming to be understood, has to do with the movements of peoples. In no modern nation's development is the movement of peoples more significant than in that of America. In the course of its settlement the original group, which was fairly homogeneous from the point of view of culture and race, were joined by a horde of later arrivals among whom were representatives of every important cultural and racial group. For well-known historical and natural reasons the tide flowed stronger from some quarters than from others. However, the earlier English settlers determined the fundamental character of the new nation as to language and tradition, social and political institutions and ideals.

The assimilation, not as yet complete, of the heterogeneous mass of newcomers has been one of the most fascinating social phenomena of modern life. Despite the strain placed upon them by the variegated character of the more recent immigration, American institutions have remained characteristically those of the English-speaking peoples.

Problems of immigration policy and administrative procedure are still very much to the fore in the discussion of the subject, whether by legislator, immigration official, Americanization teacher, or the immigrant himself. Wide differences of opinion still occur regarding immigration policy and present methods of dealing with immigrants are far from standardized. These conditions lead the social scientist to the conclusion that considerable further study of the phenomenon itself is needed. Indeed, from a scientific point of view it is very doubtful whether a satisfactory basis in valid facts can be shown for any of the current immigration policies and methods. Statesman, educator, social reformer, and immigrant leader alike still frequently appeal to prejudices, passion, and pride rather than to demonstrable fact and sound reasoning when they discuss this subject. Controversy wages about every phase of the subject. Programs dealing with immigration problems are, therefore, frequently determined largely by the special interests of the promoters rather than by sound social considerations and by a knowledge of what it is possible to accomplish in view of the character of the social and economic forces at play.

Unfortunately, the social scientist can as yet contribute relatively little to the discussion. The problems are exceedingly complex and he has only recently turned his attention to them. However, certain major conditioning forces can be discerned of which educational and other social policies and programs must of necessity take account. These forces have produced the phenomenon we call immigration and they determine the extent and rate of assimilation of immigrants into American life. Arbitrary acts of will are powerless in the face of such forces. The "ordering-and-forbidding technic" to which so many have resorted is quite futile.

Though the complex of motives which underlie the movement of peoples almost defies analysis, it is not difficult to discern the prime importance of the economic motive. In an increasing proportion of cases the immigrant has acted upon the desire to secure a larger share of economic goods and thereby to attain a higher plane of living. This is perhaps the most wholesome and rational aspect of immigration into America. An almost negligible proportion of our immigrants are fugitives from justice, adventurers, ne'er-do-wells, or serious social misfits in their native lands. The vast majority come because they hope to find here a better market for their labor and opportunities to enjoy the great material prosperity of America, hence they work steadily, acquire property, and participate actively in our daily life. Such difficulties as we have with immigrants do not arise from inherent weaknesses of stock, or vicious habits, or ulterior motives, but rather are to be attributed for the most part to cultural differences which generally are relatively easy to adjust.

While it is easy to over-emphasize the economic motive, we cannot overstate the importance of three basic economic conditions: (1) America's vast natural resources in climate, soil, minerals, fuels, forests, etc.; (2) the constantly expanding market for labor and goods in America, and (3) the influence of the new communicative technology.

Many European countries are exporting enormous amounts of capital for enterprises located in far-distant colonies. These undertakings are manned by native labor under the immediate control of a few European executives sent out specifically for that purpose. Thus, it has resulted that white European capital is associated with native colored labor in enterprises which lie at vast distances from the owners and controllers. Such a situation offers infinite opportunities for the economic exploitation of backward peoples and does not encourage their cultural development at the hands of their master-employers.

In contrast with this situation, America, having her own resources and her own capital, has imported the labor necessary for economic exploitation. This has brought into her own midst millions of workers who represent the most divergent cultural backgrounds; a large part arrived as slaves, others as free laborers, but practically all were suffering at the time from economic and cultural handicaps which made their adjustment to American life a serious problem.

Both political idealism and practical common-sense, however, dictated the social policy that these workers should be permitted and encouraged—even required—to assimilate into the larger group and eventually assume the responsibility of citizenship. The great cost of their cultural assimilation is well repaid from the point of view of prudence, since experience has clearly shown that an educated, healthy, organized, efficient native-born population cannot retain these characteristics for long when in daily contact with an illiterate, diseased, disorganized, inefficient foreign-born element. The conditions of modern life render us all, native-born and

foreign-born, highly interdependent. Disease, vice, and crime do not respect racial and social barriers; caste and class mean little to them. It has not always been easy, nor have we succeeded entirely, in reconciling race, class, and national prejudices with this hard law of social life.

America has offered another basic economic condition which has had vast influence upon the process of assimilation: With the exception of short periods during and after wars the supply of labor in America has always been slightly (and only occasionally greatly) in excess of the demands of the labor market. That is, the workman in America through long periods of time has had to face the fact that there was a labor reserve force in the form of men seeking employment whose labor could and would be substituted for his in case his efficiency fell too low. While this condition makes possible the exploitation of less intelligent workers at the hands of unscrupulous employers, on the whole it has had a most salutary effect upon all laborers who were competing in the market.

Sharper individualized competition in the labor market and the absence of closed classes in America, together with the greatly increased efficiency of labor, have made possible a higher scale of living for the vast proportion of immigrants than they ever attained in their native land and have set for them a higher standard of living as an immediate economic goal. Education has been at once the means and the end in the struggle toward this goal. It has increased the productive capacity of the individual and at the same time has increased his consumption needs. The immigrant has accepted the social and economic values of America as his own and has thereby been swept into the rising tide of American life. This is one phase of that larger world-wide process of cultural interpenetration by which all peoples are being brought into one common economic and moral universe toward which modern life is so inevitably moving.

Recent technological developments have greatly accelerated this process of cultural and economic integration. Communication is rapidly becoming world-wide and instantaneous owing to the appearance of a long series of space and time annihilating mechanisms and new communication devices.

In view of such vast social forces we are driven to believe that assimilation is not merely possible, it is inevitable. For small groups and in restricted areas the process may be delayed, but not for long. We may ease the strain upon our institutions but not avoid it entirely. Nor need we fear that it will be too long delayed. Our present proposals and plans to hasten and control this process seem weak indeed alongside such tremendous forces which are making for assimilation.

On the other hand, many attempts to hasten the process seemingly overlook the fact that assimilation is a natural social process, and like many somewhat analogous natural biological processes, there is a step-by-step development requiring a certain lapse of time for its proper unfoldment. Many of the immigrant autobiographies and literary case histories recently

published throw light on this as yet little understood sequence. Whatever may be our special professional interest in the immigrant, a study of such human documents is highly important. They reveal the more important aspects of the process as it occurs in the experience of the individual immigrant.

Each immigrant arrives in America with a mental picture of the new land and frequently with well-defined expectations. Usually this picture is a mosaic of returned immigrant tales, newspaper accounts, and the literature of transportation companies, shot through with his own wishes and aspirations. Only too frequently these preconceptions are elaborated into an Eldorado myth little less rosy than the dreams of the old Spanish adventurers.

The language difficulty compels him to seek out his own people; hence he goes to live in the Ghetto or Little Italy, as the case may be. There life is much like that of the homeland and he can carry on much as before, were it not for the necessity of selling his labor.

Employment (except low paid sweat shop work) almost invariably throws the newcomer in contact with American ways. He must learn the language and dress the part, since his foreign tongue and outlandish dress are immediately noticed and he is dubbed "greenhorn." He thereby loses social status and also economic status, since he must accept unskilled labor, whatever his previous training may have been.

Then follows generally a most agonizing period during which he struggles with English idioms, learns a new set of conventions, new food habits, and learns to wear American dress. His roseate dreams of an easy life are badly shattered, for along with low wages, hard work, and the struggle to learn new ways goes the loss of social status and in a very real sense loss of personality. America has little appreciation of his traditional attitudes, his customary ways of doing things, and his Old World ideals.

At this stage many an immigrant seeks to free himself from the incubus of his social heritage. He speaks only English, associates only with the more fully Americanized and tries to pass as a native-born American at the earliest possible date. Yet when he seeks to slough off Old World attitudes, ideals, manners, speech, and behavior, he finds that they are literally a part of his flesh and blood. Therefore his behavior is hesitant and awkward, he makes himself ridiculous in the eyes of others and is continually embarrassed. Language, gestures, manners are deeply rooted in the vocal organs, in his muscles, and tendons while traditions, ideals, opinions are rooted in his memory. To master a new accent may well require years of conscious effort; to accept and act upon American values requires continued personal experiences and not mere rote-learning.

Only younger immigrants escape the full severity of this struggle. For the older immigrant it is doubtful whether complete assimilation ever occurs. The American experiences are necessarily engrafted on the European. Only among his own people can he find those who fully understand

him and accept him without reserves. His hyphenated state is unavoidable and cannot be changed by any amount of oath-taking, however sincere. Intimacy, warm personal relations, are exceedingly difficult to attain except among his own people and America may well remain in many ways a closed book to him, an abstraction. For well-established psychological reasons he seldom becomes American in the sense in which his American-born children do.

The process, of course, reaches its culmination when intermarriage brings about not only fusion of cultures, but racial amalgamation. This is necessarily a very much slower, but a much more effective method than immigrant education. However, pronounced differences in racial traits may be an almost insuperable barrier to racial amalgamation while it merely delays cultural fusion.

In the drama of the "melting pot" there are forces which keep its contents at the fusing point and internal resistances within the contents which retard fusing. These forces are great natural social and economic forces which are only in part under our immediate control. Our plans must, therefore, take fuller cognizance of them, if we are to check the economic and social wastage now associated with our programs and methods of immigrant assimilation.

A FEW OUTSTANDING EXAMPLES OF ADULT EDUCATION UNDER STATE AND LOCAL PUBLIC SCHOOL AUSPICES

MRS. AGNES M. BACON, STATE DIRECTOR OF AMERICANIZATION,
PROVIDENCE, R. I.

Modern civilization is making continually increasing demands upon the individual due to the remarkable changes taking place in the social, economic, and industrial organization. The time for preparation in youth is strictly limited, and changes have occurred in modern development which could not have been foreseen in the life of a normal individual.

It follows that there must be a continual readjustment to a constantly changing environment, and the readjustment involves the acquisition of fresh knowledge and new habits.

These are both the products of education, hence education must be a continued process, it must be continued beyond youth to meet the demands of the times. It follows that an educational program that stops with the education of children and youth is and must be incomplete. A reasonably complete educational program would include abundant opportunities for the education of adults.

The following examples of adult education programs conducted in several states are merely suggestive of large possibilities. Herewith, are presented a very few of the outstanding programs of various state departments of adult education.

State of Rhode Island Adult Education Program—For fifty years the state of Rhode Island has carried on a program of adult education with the thought that there should be liberal opportunity for classes in which there would be provided instruction for all groups of people—more particularly perhaps in those classes attended by working men and women. All schools in the state are open to adults. No person is excluded. Everything is free.

There is adequate state support for general evening schools which include elementary and high school classes. Under the provisions of the Americanization law which makes compulsory the attendance of persons 16 to 21 years of age who do not meet the requirements of the law, adequate provision is made for persons over 21 years of age who attend Americanization classes.

Massachusetts Adult Education Program—In addition to the outstanding program of adult alien education conducted in the state of Massachusetts for which the state paid \$170,000 as reimbursement to local school committees last year, and in a five year period more than 100,000 alien men and women have learned English in school, factory and home classes, is another outstanding accomplishment in adult education the university extension work conducted by the state department of education. Since its establishment in January, 1916, 255,512 have been enrolled in correspondence courses and in class courses. For the year 1925-1926, 569 different classes with 29,756 adult students enrolled were conducted in 66 cities and towns. The average age of students in correspondence courses is 28 years and in class courses is 33 years.

During the past year the city of Springfield, Massachusetts, had a total enrolment of 3016 students in class courses.

State of Connecticut—Recent legislation, Senate Bill 94, recreates the division of adult education, which in addition to the splendid program of adult alien classes will be under the direction of the state director of adult education.

Sections 1 and 2 are as follows:

SECTION 1: The state board of education shall establish a division of adult education and appoint a director thereof, who shall receive such salary as may be fixed by the board and his necessary traveling expenses.

SECTION 2: The school committee of any town designated by the state board of education may appoint, subject to the approval of said board, a director of adult education, whose compensation shall be fixed by the state board of education, and one half of such compensation shall be paid by said board, provided no such payment by said board shall exceed fifteen hundred dollars per annum.

State of New York—The courses offered in New York state for the training of teachers engaged in adult education, and the special course of study published by the *Interstate Bulletin* which was prepared by a committee of New York teachers are distinctive aids in the work of adult education.

Buffalo offers a fine type of city wide correlation with all forms of adult education; It has an adequate program that is complete and efficient. The

Carnegie Corporation selected Buffalo as its second city for study. The city of Cleveland, Ohio, being the first to be studied. The city of Rochester with its special plan of training and supervision in home, evening and factory classes makes a distinct contribution to the work of adult education.

The Neighborhood Teacher's Association of New York City assists materially the work of adult education in that it sponsors the teaching of mothers in homes and neighborhoods. Twenty full time workers reach more than 2500 women annually. There is a budget of \$40,000 annually appropriated for this most important work which is organized and supervised by a state specialist assigned to the committee.

Detroit's Program of Elementary Education—In Detroit, elementary classes and grades for the foreign-born are conducted in 33 schools and 12 other extension centers such as libraries, settlement houses, recreation buildings, etc. High school classes including cultural, scientific and vocational subjects are held in 12 schools. There is a standard course of study; definite units of achievement, high school and elementary standards maintained to parallel the day school requirements with the transfers and credits interchangeable. There is close cooperation with library service, health departments, recreation workers, women's clubs, social workers of many denominations, etc. Nurses from the city health department take special methods course in educational activities at Detroit teachers' college. There is continuous scientific research in the fields of methods and content material for foreign-born classes and grade classes both colored and white. Only trained teachers are employed and the minimum requirements are a state life certificate plus specialized training. Eleven completed studies have been made by the department of adult education.

In conclusion it would seem that the things most needed in any state where it is hoped to successfully carry on a complete program of adult education are the following:

1. Generous financial provision for adult education
2. Two types of legislation

a. Permissive legislation in states in which public functions are limited unless expressly authorized by statute.

b. A gradual trend toward a mild type of compulsory legislation to cover situations in which the individual falls short of attaining to high standards of public welfare.

3. A realization that the following principles must apply:

a. Working men and women must be provided with convenient school facilities.

b. The decision as to the course of study must be left to the adults themselves.

c. Teaching working men and women involves special problems which require that special training be provided for teachers of adults.

d. State and local school superintendents have the opportunity to educate the general public regarding the need of a well supported program for adult education, and that they should recognize their responsibility in this important matter on the basis of raising the standard of citizenship.

WHAT THE LIBRARY CAN DO IN ADULT EDUCATION

JUDSON T. JENNINGS, LIBRARIAN, PUBLIC LIBRARY, SEATTLE, WASH.

Seventy million dollars a year is being paid into the coffers of correspondence schools conducted for profit, by 1,500,000 persons who are seeking to extend their education.

In Milwaukee 42,000 grown persons are attending classes or belong to study groups. In New York City 1100 working men and women attended lectures on psychology for twenty consecutive weeks. In Chicago, in 1923, the public library announced a special advisory service for serious readers and have ever since been swamped by the demand. In Tennessee, Cora Wilson Stewart opened moonlight schools, or classes for illiterates in 50 country schools. They expected about 150 students, 1200 came.

These are a few evidences, taken at random, to show that thousands—yes, millions—of Americans are reaching out for further information and knowledge; for a better understanding of life and its problems.

Various attempts have been made to define this movement, which we call "adult education," but its boundary lines are vague and definition is difficult. To some it means the teaching of reading to illiterates; to a few it means the Americanization of the foreign born; to others, it signifies vocational training; but adult education goes far beyond all these. To quote further from the American Library Association report on "Libraries and Adult Education," the movement is based upon a recognition of the great truth that education is a life long process, and that the university graduate, as well as the man of little schooling, is in constant need of further training, inspiration and mental growth; that the training obtained in school and college is necessarily related to fundamentals and that the real development of the individual lies in the independent effort of later years.

Those of us who have been studying this problem of adult education have been making certain discoveries, or perhaps uncovering old truths. The first truth is that education is a life long process and is not limited to school days.

The second truth is that education is a drawing-out process, rather than a pouring-in process. Mark Hopkins says "We hear much said about selfeducated men, and a broad distinction is made between them and others, but the truth is that every man who is educated at all is—and must be—selfeducated."

The third truth is that 68 percent of our school children never get beyond the eighth grade; that during those few years in school, reading is the chief thing they have learned, and that if their education is to carry on it must be largely through reading.

The fourth truth is that books are fundamental tools in education. In books are preserved all the records of the race, all that the wisest men have thought and said and done. Books are becoming more widely used and

more essential every day, even in our schools, and one of the teacher's most important qualifications is to be a successful stimulator and guide in reading.

The fifth and last truth is that a fundamental change has taken place in libraries during the last generation. The librarian's function today is not to save books, but to serve books. Our best libraries are carefully selected collections, adapted to the needs of the people they serve and administered by people who know books and who know people, and whose greatest pleasure is to put the right book into the hands of the right person, at the right time.

I am sure that you will agree that these five points indicate the important service which libraries may render in this field of adult education. A study made for the American Library Association and published last fall by the Macmillan Company suggests three definite things that libraries can do:

First, they can establish, at the library, an information service regarding local opportunities for adult students—listing and indexing facts about local classes, courses and lectures, so that anyone seeking such information may find detailed and accurate data.

Second, libraries can make contacts with other organizations engaged in adult education, such as Y. M. C. A. classes and university extension courses, can study the book needs of their teachers and students, and endeavor to supply these needs. One of the chief weaknesses today in adult education is a lack of the necessary books.

The third service that libraries may render is to individual students who are unable to join classes or who prefer to study alone. Their number is legion. It is for such students that a readers' advisory service has been established in Chicago and in many other cities. The readers' advisor must be an approachable person, of broad sympathies and with a wide knowledge of books. Her equipment will include a large collection of reading courses, a carefully selected collection of books and the ability to call to her aid the help of experts in various fields. Her method will be to interview, very tactfully, the prospective students; she must secure information as to their occupation, ambitions, education and previous reading, after which she will prepare for each student a brief reading course, making full use of all the facilities available. The books listed in this course will be supplied to each student by the library without delay as he needs them.

In working with boys and girls who have recently left school, librarians find that these young people often regard their education as finished and that they are exulting in their release from the bondage of the classroom. This is a serious indictment of formal education, and some remedy must be sought. The foundation work for adult education is largely in the hands of teachers and children's librarians.

There are four things that librarians hope to see done in our schools. First, modern methods of teaching reading must be more widely used.

The silent method, for example, produces speed in reading and authorities claim that the rapid reader gets a firmer grasp of the author's meaning.

Second, literature should be so taught that the student finds a growing delight in the beauty of thought and beauty of language that mark fine literature.

Third, every school should have a well selected and growing library where students may browse freely and acquire voluntarily a taste for books and the habit of reading.

Fourth—and last—some means must be found of convincing the student that his education merely begins in the schoolroom—that while in school he is learning to use a set of tools with which he may later construct his own education edifice.

When the schools turn out students who know how to read, and who have acquired a love of reading, then the libraries can take over these young graduates and furnish the books through which they may educate themselves.

Such cooperation as I have outlined between schools and libraries, the two great public agencies for development and culture, will make possible their realization of the ideal of education—a life long process and an enduring happiness.

THE ADULT MIND AND MODERN DEVICES FOR TEACHING A LANGUAGE

ELAINE SWENSON, UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON, SEATTLE, WASH.

When Edward Bok took over the *Ladies Home Journal* he offered a series of prizes to his readers for the best articles on what they wanted in the *Ladies Home Journal* or what they thought was wrong with the journal. From the information he gained in this way he set about giving his readers not only what they wanted and what they thought it was possible to get, but something better. It is to this policy that Bok credited his success with the magazine. He always told his employees, "Give the people more than they ask for. That's what they want."

You, too, always want more than you ask for. That is, you would want it if you knew it were possible to get it, and you would be grateful when you got it, for gratefulness comes from getting more than you expect.

Now if, instead of being what you are, you were the students with whom you are dealing, you would still want more than you ask for, more than you think it is possible for you to get, or indeed for anyone else to obtain, and you would be grateful for receiving it.

Now you, as this adult student, would come to school expecting certain things. The more education you had had in your childhood the more definite would be your idea of that which the school could give you of those things which you felt you needed, and the more definite would be your demand for them.

If, however, in childhood you had had little schooling or none at all, or did not know the English language, the stimulus which would bring you to school would be a vocational one. You would come in order to learn to read and write because you needed these skills in your work. Yet, also, there would be some slight feelings of inferiority.

On this first night you would look around the class, would wonder vaguely if these other people were aware of the inferiority which brought you to the school. The idea might for a moment come that the other students were there for a similar purpose, but because you couldn't be sure, you would discredit this idea and therefore forget that the others might be as inferior as you or even more so, and your feeling of inferiority would then increase. It would be only when the teacher got you to fraternize with the others that you would become less selfconscious of your inferiority so far as the class was concerned, and you would willingly take part in individual recitations.

But were your teacher skilful and understood you, understood you better than you understand yourself, she would make you feel that you already knew a good deal, though you didn't know how to apply it. And rightly too, for life would have taught you many things which could be of great value if brought together and put to use.

When your teacher recalled these facts and ideas that you already knew, that you had picked up here and there in life, you would feel on familiar ground; you would get your bearings and become confident. When he went on to show you how these facts connected with each other and with the new organizing principles which he was trying to teach, you would have more pleasant feelings: you would feel that you were learning rapidly, that you were learning things which were valuable and that already you knew much that was worth knowing. And the result of this would be that you would find learning much easier and you would go at your work with a stronger will.

But suppose that your teacher did not do this. Suppose that he kept you going over something you already knew even though he were discussing it from a slightly different point of view. Then, unless it were brought up in relation to a wide truth which was new to you, you would be not merely bored, but probably a little disgusted as well.

When you, this adult student, were a child you were absorbed in your task for its own sake, just as the teacher always is, because she has continued to be a student. You did not count the cost of learning, you were not affected by the number of trials it took, provided that your interest was strong. You were thinking of your work, not of yourself. Now, as an adult student, you are different. You are very selfconscious. When there is something for you to learn, you count the cost of it. Your interest is in earning, not in learning. If the learning requires much practice, you find it terribly irksome and laborious. If you fail in a problem you feel terribly about it and you mark your stock down, away down. If your

teacher gives you a project which takes a long time to complete you grow tired of it. You want always success, always quick success.

When the teacher attacks a problem, she goes at once to the heart of it. But if you were given a school problem you would believe that you had to think it all through, every point of it, or, in other words, that you needed a complete new set of habits or Stimulus-Response bonds. But when you tried to make new Stimulus-Response bonds you would get into all kinds of trouble because you already had a stock of bonds relevant to the problem, and an old bond once established cannot be reestablished as a new one without first being broken and that is a most difficult and impractical thing to do.

You really would know how to work out most of the problem if you went at it quickly and could let the Stimulus-Response bonds you already had operate without thinking (i. e. below the level of consciousness). But you would think where you needn't think, and so you would blunder and then become selfconscious, and have painful feelings. And the more advanced you were as a student and so the more able to think, the greater would be the likelihood that you would think where you need not, and therefore blunder. And even if you were a college graduate trying to learn a new language you might for this very reason find yourself beaten by someone with less brains than you.

Let us consider now another phase of the problem.

You can cut down the time of learning a language not only by making a study of the adult and of the learning process, but also of the language itself.

I have found that the devices useful in teaching the intellectual aspects of the language, in teaching words, idioms, and ideas, are of no use at all in teaching the emotional expression of the language, that is, rhythm, inflection, stress, and structure.

The ideas given spoken expression in ordinary life are for the most part conveyed through the first five hundred words most commonly used, as found in the Thorndike count, and this should be the fundamental vocabulary in beginning language teaching.

In teaching this fundamental vocabulary and that part of the language which is intellectual, I very much disagree with what is called the direct method. Around the direct method have gathered a large number of devices which are not the direct method properly so called. These devices have contributed much more to the success of the method than the method itself, but the method has received the credit.

The direct method is essentially the learning of a language without translation. Its description can be boiled down to the procedure of presenting new vocabulary, idioms and the like, and the devices used to secure comprehension. The order of presentation of words is for the student to hear the word, say it, comprehend it, read it, write it, and use it at any time after comprehension. The devices for securing comprehension chiefly talked about are the drama and picture methods. Although the association of

ideas has played a great part in securing comprehension, the adherents of this school have not given it much consideration. Of the direct methods the two principal types are the Gouin and the Berlitz methods, of which the former is far the superior on psychological grounds.

Consider the physical equipment you have for learning a new word and you can easily see the fallacy of the direct method. While your ear is busy taking in the new word your eye is wandering about the room, bringing into your brain impressions having nothing to do with those brought in by the ear. And you are usually accustomed to paying more attention to eye than to ear sensations. Also, the ear is much less analytical than the eye. The impressions coming from it are much less accurate than those coming from the eye, and the sound stimulus is intermittent—it does not last.

But if the student first sees the word and copies it, he is forced to analyze it and perceive it accurately, over a continuous period of time. Then when he hears the word, he knows what to listen for, and his oral analysis is quickly and accurately made.

So far I have been considering a purely intellectual process. But a word is not only an intellectual concept, it is felt. It is used in any intellectual context and an emotional setting. That part of the language which is emotional calls for very different procedures and devices.

If it were possible to evolve a system of thoroughly teaching the emotional aspects of the language below the level of consciousness, a great saving over present practices would be effected.

Of these aspects let us first consider the teaching of rhythm, which is the regular recurrence of either stress or inflection which you can easily detect if you try to tap regularly while you are speaking or listening. This rhythm is like a measure in music. In my own teaching I direct my class like an orchestra, as they speak or read in concert, and in most of my own speaking employ some bodily movement stressing the spoken rhythmic units. As soon as my class requires a feeling for this rhythm I call their attention to it intellectually.

I proceed in teaching rhythm, intonation, stress, order, and the structural elements all in the same way—first by giving an emotional experience, and then by giving an intellectual exposition of it.

There is a natural order for the words and the ideas in an English sentence for which order, stress, rhythm, and intonation are determining factors. This natural order contains the most typical or frequent intonation, stress and rhythmic patterns. It is the existence of these patterns which enables us to guess the missing words in imperfectly heard speech, to read rapidly with comprehension, to catch atmospheres, as in poetry, and these patterns actually convey more meaning than the words themselves.

When I had discovered the value of having the students use such rules and of then understanding the rule I set about analyzing the process according to which I myself employed speech. Obviously, of course, I was not consciously following any rules whatever. I had never studied a gram-

mar book until after I had obtained my bachelor's degree. As a result in addition to these rules I discovered trick explanations for such difficulties as the foreigner has in knowing when to use "the" and when to use "a," or when to use "was" and not "has been."

In all teaching, whether the teaching of children or adults, you have to study the person you teach, the thing you are teaching, and the best way of teaching it to the kind of person you have to teach.

You will find much tradition has grown up about all three of these things, and this tradition will often stand in the way of your facing reality directly. All you who teach, if you will but look your problem squarely in the face and make your own analysis, can make discoveries which will be invaluable to your fellow educators and to yourself.

TESTS FOR PROGRESS IN ADULT ALIEN AND NATIVE-BORN CLASSES

ETHEL SWAIN, STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

Before we discuss tests for progress in adult alien classes, we must establish the relation of English classes for adult aliens to the whole adult education program and so know to what goals these classes are progressing.

The purpose of English classes for adult aliens is to give the student the command of a tool, as it were, so he may go to work at a trade or profession or art which depends upon the skilful use of this tool. Of course, the student is eager to become skilful in handling this tool—English—just as quickly, directly and effectively as possible. However, at the same time he is gaining this necessary command of his tool, may he not get ideas and ideals that he may accomplish with his tool? Any English class which gives only a command of English is truly narrowly vocational. It lacks the imaginative, exploring, inspiring qualities that make for real adult education.

Or we may designate English classes for adult aliens as classes offering an opportunity to make up a deficiency—an English deficiency. Many students have other deficiencies; as, a deficiency in arithmetic or in elementary science; but until they have made up the English deficiency, they are not ready to attack other deficiencies.

It is clear enough what are our purposes and what we would accomplish in beginning English classes. We are to give students an ability to meet in clear, direct spoken English his ordinary daily needs. The entire emphasis in this class is on spoken English. The student is ready to advance to the high beginners' class when he has simple-sentence command of a vocabulary of some 350 words, an ability to use the present and past tenses of commonly-used verbs (especially the verb *to be*), commonly-used prepositions and the use of the personal pronouns. Students should not remain too long in the low beginners' class, probably not longer than the time required to complete 25 lessons taught by the dramatic theme and

pictorial method with splendid structure drill to give free command of the vocabulary taught. Students who do not speak English are constantly being received into this class. Students are pushed on to the high beginners' class and allowed to remain there longer. This constant advancing of students will probably keep the low beginners' class small. This is most desirable as it will allow the teacher time for "First Nighters." The teacher of high beginners can handle more successfully larger groups, even two groups.

Intermediate students enlarge their vocabulary quickly and independently. Words are like magnets and attract more words. However, these students need much oral drill in the correct use of this rapidly enlarging vocabulary. In intermediate classes still the emphasis is on spoken English. Students have sufficient command of English to meet their daily needs. Now they want power to gain an understanding of their immediate environment so they may feel a part of it and can take that part in English. They are not yet interested in abstract government and the remote past, but in the new vibrating present about them. Keep in mind that foreign students are not going to have an opportunity to talk with and know Americans unless they are able to talk about those things the Americans are discussing.

The advance English class is not a reading class, but could well take its name from the title of Sheffield's book—"Joining in Public Discussion." It is a class in informal public speaking. Students want training in organizing their thinking in English, in outlining their talks, in standing on their feet and thinking and speaking in English, in challenging each other's thinking and in defending their own views. They want to know how to begin a talk, how to make talks for special occasions; as, nominating speeches, introductions of speakers, etc. A quiet, bookish class is not meeting the test. A class with some resemblance to the group found in the village grocery store may be more truly meeting the test. A class in which all contribute to the discussion, in which all take from the discussion, in which all are gaining the power to think clearly and straight in English and to express themselves accordingly, in which the teacher is a leader or chairman rather than a teacher, is meeting the test.

Some advanced class teachers follow the science series plan of a nightly series of lessons on a given topic; as, American history, American business ways, new inventions, modern verse, elements of social science, what-not. It is a short-unit, as it were, of probably some ten lessons to be followed by another series. Other teachers and classes prefer to follow what might be called the college-plan of following two or three series, each one evening a week.

If foreign students are to find themselves prepared for the other classes that our whole adult education program is offering, they must be able to express their thoughts clearly, directly and effectively in English—both oral and written. Do our advanced students meet this test?

A DIFFERENT TECHNIC FOR BEGINNERS' CLASSES—THE DETROIT METHOD

NINA J. BEGLINGER, DETROIT TEACHERS COLLEGE, DETROIT, MICH.

It is no news, to you who are leaders, that the chief criticism of teachers working under our direction is that they often do not know what we want them to do or if they do know, that they have no definite reason to believe that our details are especially valuable. Personally I have searched far and wide for validation and measurement of methods used and up to a very recent date found nothing whatever except applied theory pure and simple. Theory may be effective when it is applied or it may be disastrous. I believe that in education we have no more right to use unrestrained theory than in any other scientific field.

All this leads us to the fact that we should know what we want—in what degree we want it—and how to get it—in our beginners' classes.

Roberts method and Roberts material were in use, and Detroit had spent much money in books and special instructional material of this type. F. S. DeGalan was and still is the administrative chief of the department. His title is now Assistant Director in Charge of Summer and Evening Schools and before I proceed further, let me say that it is due to his policy of patient progress and his support of efficient advancement that the present condition of our evening schools has been made possible. Not until 1919 was there an instructional supervisor appointed permanently.

The equipment of our plant was as stated. Mr. DeGalan brought his experience of twelve years as an educator and administrator in evening schools. The instructional supervisor with ten years experience, five years in teaching adults and twenty-two months in charge of English of the 85th and 14th Division respectively of the U. S. army.

There has been a marked difference in the situation lying almost wholly within the instructional program. The administration has been of a consistently high quality throughout.

To the army experience was due a considerable research of value, covering studies of methods in various sections and a final adaptation for army schools of whatever definite could be found, from any reliable source or sources. Several methods were studied, all well known today as theme method, dramatization, picture, and object methods, direct methods, phonetic method and other methods too numerous to mention. Out of this chaos an attempt was made to achieve order for we believe that order is Heaven's first law and hence worthy of emulation.

The first step was to sort and classify the methods at hand. These were none of them in themselves a complete process. The problem presented itself somewhat as follows:

To analyze—a language acquisition demands a unit of reading, writing, and speaking ability. In order of their greatest importance to the individual they are probably first—speaking; second—reading; third—writing. In order of their im-

portance to civic life they present a different value. Personally I believe the ability to read on the part of a citizen is of far greater value civically than to be able to speak. In classes totaling 1003 students in training as teachers of adults this sequence as determined by class opinion manifested by vote has been—value as citizens—reading first 629; reading second 271; reading third 103. The value finally theoretically stated itself that talking came third, but that hearing and understanding would raise its importance if one could be sure that intelligence were developed as it should be through the ability to read. The above rank order rating has been further verified by workers who are devoting their time and energy to develop reading and writing ability in the English speaking illiterate groups.

Our civic problem then, is to teach adults to read, write, and speak in as nearly a balanced unit of ability as it is possible to achieve. Turning to our classes of methods we began to analyze each for its contribution toward the solution of the problem as stated, namely, to acquire the ability to read, write, and speak a language. It worked out somewhat as follows: each method proved to be incomplete as a method but extremely valuable in the entire problem as a device. Step by step we went forward through the chaos of methods classifying the various contributions according to their value in attacking the problem as a whole.

The major function of the teacher had heretofore been the teaching of new words by saying, hearing, or seeing and the comprehension of the new words and their application. Once the analysis of the language was accomplished the teacher was prepared to give the student such knowledge as would enable him to attack the problem of mechanical reading without assistance using general principles. This situation left the teacher free to concentrate upon comprehension and application.

I will close with a summarization of what we in Detroit consider students rights and teacher rights.

Students rights:

1. Definiteness
2. Skills to develop independent progress
3. A carefully chosen vocabulary
4. An immediate use of vocabulary to meet specific needs
5. A balanced unit of student activity to develop a balanced unit in language growth
6. A knowledge on part of teacher that learning a language is not a matter of reading, writing, or speaking, but all three
7. A specific coherence on progress from unit to unit
8. A definite check on achievement and progress
9. Some evidence of progress given to the pupil at his completion of a unit (certificate or passing slip)
10. A definite coherence between evening school advance and high school or vocational schools allowed in Detroit approximately 600 to graduate into high or vocational schools each year

Teacher rights:

1. An analysis of the problem
2. A theoretical application of solution
3. An observation of theory in practice
4. A definite classification of devices
5. A validated comparison of sequence in presentation of new material

6. A validated value of drills and their placement in problem
7. A validated value of devices each in its own province
8. A definite sequence in student achievement for each grade of advancement
9. Specific methods of checking their own effectiveness
10. A definite final goal to be reached
11. A means of determining when that goal has been reached

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON NATURALIZATION

MARGUERITE H. BURNETT, WILMINGTON, DEL., CHAIRMAN

During the past year, your Committee on Naturalization, consisting of Howard Bradstreet, Charles Finch, George Green, John W. Lewis, John J. Mahoney, Raymond F. Moley, Ethel Richardson, and Marguerite H. Burnett, continued its study of naturalization and standards and procedure in the United States. This study covered practices and procedure under the existing laws and those contained in bills under consideration of the committees on naturalization in the House of Representatives and Senate.

At a meeting held in New York City on December 5, 1926, the results of these studies were summarized and the following recommendations were made:

Twenty years have elapsed since the passage of the present naturalization laws. During that time, the United States has passed through a decade (1906 to 1916) of the largest immigration in the history of the country, the World War, and the adoption of a more or less arbitrary policy of restricted immigration.

Many new and difficult problems have arisen in the field of naturalization as a result of these experiences. The findings of the committee's study indicate that the present and proposed naturalization laws fail to meet adequately the problem resulting from these changed conditions. Before any further action is taken regarding laws pertaining to naturalization and immigration, it is the opinion of the committee that a commission should be appointed by the United States Government to study naturalization and immigration as they exist today, and to make recommendations that would serve as a basis for naturalization and immigration laws consistent with the policies and conditions of the present time.

It believes that the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association should authorize its Committee on Naturalization to bring to the attention of Congress and the President the need for the appointment of such a commission, and to employ such means as the committee may be able to command to secure the appointment of such a Commission.

Inasmuch as 80 percent of the members of the Department of Adult Education are workers in the field of immigrant education who are hampered by educational and social problems caused by deficiencies in the

present naturalization and immigration laws, the Committee feels that the request for the appointment of this Commission on Naturalization and Immigration is within the legitimate province of the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association.

The members present at the meeting at which these recommendations were made were Howard Bradstreet, Charles Finch, John W. Lewis, John J. Mahoney, Raymond F. Moley, and Marguerite H. Burnett.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON COORDINATION IN ADULT EDUCATION

The Commission on Coordination in Adult Education submits its report and recommendations herewith:

Section I

Origin and Purpose of the Commission

The Adult Education Department of the National Education Association at its annual sessions in Philadelphia, June 28th-July 6th, 1926, passed the following resolution:

"Whereas experience clearly shows that state aid is necessary for a successful program of adult education,

Be it resolved, That this Department recommend to our state legislators that they provide adequate funds and take necessary steps to promote the cause of adult education in their respective states."

This resolution was subsequently adopted by the general organization of the National Education Association, making it therefore a part of its official program and policy.

At the same session of the Department of Adult Education in which the above resolution was adopted, the chairman was authorized to appoint a commission to study the field of adult education in order to present a report on an articulated and coordinated program of adult education, appropriate for adoption by national, state, and local educational authorities. Subsequently this commission was appointed and has held several sessions, supplemented by personal conferences and correspondence with others whose suggestions have been helpful.

Section II

Definition of Terms

1. Adult Education with exceptions herein noted, refers to education under public auspices for persons of maturity who, being engaged for a major portion of their time in other occupations, are devoting some time to educational pursuits.

2. By "education under public auspices" is meant education, irrespective of administration or control, maintained wholly or in part by public funds, derived from public appropriations, grants, gifts or subsidies. It includes facilities for foreign-born and native-born of all degrees of educational attainment, in schools of elementary, secondary and higher grade, vocational and technical schools, normal schools, colleges, and universities at times and places most convenient for the attendance of persons of post-compulsory school age.

3. Education of any grade and character, under corporate or private auspices or for profit, is not included.

4. Such educational activities under public auspices resolve themselves into two classes:

- a. Those subject to direct public school administration.
- b. Those which lend themselves readily to coordinative and cooperative effort—such as normal schools, colleges and universities, libraries, art galleries, and museums.

Section III

General Principles

1. Any nation, whose life and destiny depends upon popular participation in government, cannot afford to tolerate less than a full functioning literacy. This in the United States means ability on the part of the electorate to read simple English understandingly as a minimum requirement, and requires adequate educational facilities.

2. It is as important for every community to provide educational opportunities for legally employed minors and for adults whose earlier educational opportunities have been restricted as for the more fortunate who are able to take advantage of public day educational facilities.

3. In view of considerations of social policy and national welfare the United States, having encouraged and permitted people of foreign-birth to come and remain as prospective citizens, owes to itself and to them educational facilities appropriate to and commensurate with their personal and civic needs.

4. Not age, but "the equalization of educational opportunity," is the determining factor in prescribing educational service to be offered under public auspices.

5. Adults undertake and pursue education volitionally when they consider it worth their time and effort. Public educational policies and programs should be adopted and educational opportunities provided on the basis of discovered adult human needs and desires. Public educational administrators should seek to discover what adults wish to learn.

6. Political needs in the United States require a system of continuous education throughout adult life to insure the preservation and development of our democratic institutions.

7. Rapidly changing social and economic conditions require the development of a system of continuous education which will enable adults to adjust themselves to their changing environment.

8. Increased wealth and leisure resulting from increased productivity of the modern industrial system demand greater opportunities for the expression of personality, the appreciation of spiritual values in living and the attainment of higher cultural interests.

Section IV

Local Policy and Practice

A. *Program and curriculum*—1. Schools and classes for adults should be based on a socialized and humanized curriculum with social objectives and instruction. They should be motivated by social, industrial, and political ideals and by student participation in organization and activities.

2. Efforts should be made definitely to help individual men and women attain greater vocational skill; to employ leisure time wholesomely; to form helpful associations; and to find larger opportunities for personal growth and for expression of broad cultural and civic interests.

3. Any community program of adult education under public school auspices requires the adjustment of program to discovered conditions and needs.

4. It should give recognition to the following types of educational service as needed:

- a. Elementary schooling—for illiterates, non-English speaking, and educationally handicapped adults
- b. Secondary schooling
- c. Education of university or collegiate grade

When needed it should also include in addition to formal types of education: neighborhood, home and factory classes; community centers, lecture centers and forums, clubs and other appropriate activities.

B. *Administration*—1. In order to insure a coordinated and well-articulated program and to secure its effective direction and supervision under the local board of education, responsibility for its direction should be vested in one official who shall devote full or part time to such service and who should be selected and paid upon a basis comparable to that of specialists in other forms of public education.

2. In the selection and assignment of directors and supervisors of adult education the following qualifications should be considered:

- a. Professional training within the field of education and the social sciences
- b. Satisfactory experience in general educational administration, especially among adults
- c. Personality, special interest, attitude and special equipment for such service

C. *Finance*—To provide adequate educational opportunities for resident adults and legally employed minors the local school budget should include funds sufficient to insure a program which in opportunity reasonably compares with that afforded in the regular day schools.

D. *Teachers*—1. For such specialized and technical service among adults adequate training and appropriate certification should be required.

2. To assure a continuous supply of competent teachers, salaries should be on a basis equivalent to that paid for regular day teaching, with appropriate compensation for loss of time incident to shorter sessions, distance and like considerations.

E. *Plant and facilities*—1. Public school buildings belong to the community and they should be built for and used with equal freedom by children and adults.

2. Lighting, equipment, and materials should be provided appropriate for adults; and laboratories, shops, libraries, study-rooms, cafeterias and gymnasiums should be available to them.

3. In communities where public school facilities are inadequate to meet the complete needs of adults, but where supplementary facilities may be had in settlement houses, community centers, club rooms, Y. M. C. A.'s, libraries, et cetera, such facilities should be used on a cooperative plan. It should be noted, however, that special supervision and often special equipment are necessary for such educational work to be conducted satisfactorily.

Section V

State Policy and Practice

A. *Legislation*—1. All legislation affecting elementary or secondary education for adults should be framed with the intent of incorporating such educational activities as an integral part of the public school program of the state in order to avoid the ambiguities, inconsistencies, confusion and duplication which commonly result from special legislation.

2. Full legal provision authorizing local policy and practice as outlined in Section IV should be made.

The essentials of such legislation are suggested at least in part in the form of a "model bill" submitted as an appendix to this report.

3. Appropriate items for legislation should, among other things, include:

- a. Appropriate state aid for instruction and supervision comparable to that for regular day schools
- b. Provision of adequate administrative and supervisory personnel to carry out suitable state-wide program of adult education
- c. State certification and training of teachers
- d. A state-wide minimum salary schedule for teachers among adults comparable to that of regular day school teachers
- e. A literary test law for new voters such as that of the state of New York
- f. Enumeration in connection with regular day school enumeration of all residents 10 years of age and older who are functionally illiterate (i. e. unable to read a sentence in simple English with understanding).

B. *Administration*—1. In order to insure a coordinated and well-articulated state program, and to secure its effective direction and supervision, responsibility for its direction should be vested in one official devoting full time to such service with professional qualifications equal or superior to those of local directors and supervisors. (Section IV B, 2.)

2. The responsibilities of the state director of adult education should include the preparation of courses of study particularly adapted to the needs of adults; direction of appropriate teacher training; determination of qualifications of teachers for certification; supervision and administration of state minimum standards; coordination of related agencies within the scope of adult education heretofore indicated (see Section II); preparation of state bulletins and like service falling within the purview of such office.

3. Compensation of such service should be on a par with that of other positions of comparable responsibility.

4. Office facilities, equipment and personnel adequate for a full-functioning state program should be provided.

Section VI

Coordinated Organization for Adult Education

A. Within the Public Education System

1. *Local*—a. In keeping with administrative policy, as indicated in Sec. IV, B, 1—various activities should be coordinated and integrated for largest possible efficiency.

b. Types of activity falling within these limits may include elementary and secondary evening schools; advanced schools and classes; day schools and classes for adults; public lectures and forums; etc.

c. For adults who desire to pursue continued studies with possible completion of elementary, secondary, and higher schools appropriate methods and devices for certification and promotion should be adopted in grade and standard at least equal to that for regular day school pupils.

d. All departments and divisions concerned with plant, equipment, supplies, should be made to function equally for education among children and adults.

e. Various educational activities carried on for and among adults, as to facilities, opportunities, and program should be coordinative not competitive.

f. Organizing, supervisory, and teaching service should be paid for, not on a competitive, unorganized, incidental basis of exigency or expediency but upon one of special and professional qualifications and service within the field of adult education as a whole.

g. No greater distinctions should be made between various forms of adult education, as to character, grade or importance and service than are to be found ordinarily within the general school system.

2. *State*—In keeping with provisions of Section V, B, 1 and 2, with reference to state administration, and in furtherance of principles, policies and methods suggested in immediately foregoing recommendations relating to local coordination and integration, the following is both requisite to and logically results from well coordinated local effort:

a. The coordinated organization, for administrative, supervisory and promotion purposes, of various bureaus, divisions, and departments, within state departments to the end that they may be complementary and articulated; not isolated, competitive and non-cooperative agencies.

b. The active, sympathetic and intelligent cooperation of various state agencies such as universities, normal schools, central and circulating libraries, demonstration units, museums, agricultural experiment stations, state departments, visual education bureaus, et cetera, in any and all educational efforts among adults where state facilities, leadership, appropriations and other forms of state aid are available.

B. Within the Community

Depending upon size and character, local communities usually possess several agencies and organizations engaged in various forms of educational service among adults. Moreover, numerous state and national organizations and agencies offer many different kinds of educational opportunities and facilities.

Some of these organizations and agencies, public, corporate and private, have mutual and overlapping activities; others with similar and parallel activities are not related or coordinated; others differ to the extent that large unfilled needs exist.

Such agencies include:

- Public evening and extension schools and classes
- Public and other libraries
- Museums of art, science and industry
- Lecture courses
- Home and correspondence courses
- University, college and normal school extension service
- Public forums
- Cooperative schools
- Institutes and lyceums

Duplication of effort and waste effort should be prevented through well articulated programs of local and state educational service. Cooperation for better and increased service should be developed. Definite forms of association and cooperation may be provided as follows:

Suggested Steps Toward Coordination

1. *Conference*—Organization and development, under public educational leadership, if possible, of local, state or sectional conferences or councils representing all reputable and recognized organizations and agencies engaged in educational service among adults as suggested within this report. These conferences, councils or representative assemblies will serve to bring together individuals and organizations of like interests for mutual acquaintance, understanding and cooperation.

2. *Survey*—Cooperative surveys in both urban and rural communities, when desirable, for information and guidance, to save both time and money.

3. *Centralized information*—Interchange of information and help among various organizations and agencies whenever possible and needed. In large communities the maintenance of a central clearinghouse or bureau.

4. *Public responsibility*—Recognition of this principle, to wit: That education for adults is a desirable form of education extension under public auspices, and that the chief responsibility for the education of adults as well as children is public. To supplement the service of public educational agencies, private and quasi-public initiative, enterprise and effort are needed. But in the extension of all three forms of educational service among adults common ideas and ideals; cooperative, coordinated effort; and clearly defined notions of interdependence and inter-responsibility are desirable.

Miscellaneous Observations and Recommendations

1. The Commission welcomes the organization and establishment of the new American Association for Adult Education, which with allied local, state or sectional associations or councils may materially advance the possibilities of mutual effort and cooperation.

2. The Commission likewise recognizes the tardy development in the United States of coordinated efforts similar to those in various countries. It endorses the efforts of the World Association for Adult Education to bring all participating agencies in adult education throughout the world into closer association and fellowship.

3. The Commission believes that the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association and the Association itself are appropriate agencies for the encouragement, under public auspices, of suitable kinds of education for adults. It recommends that, not only in departmental but in general meetings of the National Education Association, appropriate attention be devoted to the interests and problems of education for adults.

4. The Commission welcomes as co-laborer in this field of service the early appointment of a committee representing the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association and extends to it all possible cooperation.

Commission on Coordination

L. R. Alderman, Washington, D. C.

A. W. Castle, Pennsylvania

Robert C. Deming, Connecticut

Robert T. Hill, Chairman, New York City

Willie Lawson, Arkansas

C. S. Marsh, Buffalo, N. Y.

Ethel Richardson, California

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

The Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association held three afternoon meetings in Moose Temple on July 5, 6, and 7. Robert C. Deming, President, was in the chair.

The average attendance was about one hundred fifty.

In the business session the following four Committees were continued for the next year: Coordination in the Field of Adult Education; Naturalization Procedure; Literacy Test in the 1930 census; Posters.

The Committee on Coordination made an elaborate report which appears in the *Proceedings*, and the other three committees reported progress.

The nominating committee presented the following slate of officers for the coming year:

President—A. W. Castle, Director of Extension Education, Pennsylvania State Board of Education, Harrisburg, Pa.

Vicepresident—Ethel Richardson, Assistant State Superintendent of Education in charge of Adult Education, Los Angeles, Calif.

Secretary—C. S. Marsh, Dean of the Evening Session of the University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.

Treasurer—Wil Lou Gray, Director of Adult Education, State Department of Education, Columbia, S. C.

The secretary pro tem, C. S. Marsh, was instructed to cast a ballot for them and they were declared elected.

The following Amendments to the Constitution were adopted:

Under "Objects"—Art. 1 Sec. 2—Adding "to promote all forms and grades of supplemental, extension, post-compulsory, school-age education under public auspices only, including facilities for illiterates, foreign-born and native, and evening schools of secondary or higher grade."

Under "Members"—Art. 2 Sec. 1.—Active members of the National Education Association who are engaged in full-time or part-time in the work of teaching, supervising or administering adult education above compulsory school age, and all persons who are engaged in preparing persons to do this work, are entitled to become active members of the Department of Adult Education upon the payment of the annual fee of one dollar. Every one who is interested in the education of the native or foreign-born adult will be welcome to all meetings of the Department, but only active members of the Department may participate in the business of the Department.

Under "Officers"—Art. 3 Sec. 1.—The officers of the Department of Adult Education shall consist of a president, vicepresident, a secretary, and a treasurer. At least two of these officers shall represent the problem of adult education. They shall be elected annually at the last formal session of the Department to serve for one year, or until their successors are duly 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.

Under "Election of Officers"—Art. 4 Sec. 2.—The Committee on Nominations shall consist of seven members of the Department, two of whom shall represent both the native and foreign-born problem. At least three members shall reside east and three west of the Mississippi River and no two shall reside in the same state.

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

1. This nation whose destiny depends upon popular participation in government, cannot afford to tolerate less than a full-functioning literacy.

Be It Therefore Resolved—That the Secretary of Commerce be requested to secure in the 1930 census more usable information as to the extent of ability to read English with understanding in the United States.

2. *Be It Further Resolved*—That every community should provide evening schools for adults whose earlier educational opportunities have been inaccessible as well as for the more fortunate who are able to take advantage of public day facilities.

3. *Be It Further Resolved*—That every community make accessible to its whole population a maximum of educational opportunity since the individual who ceases the educational process ceases to be educated.

4. *Be it Resolved*—That this Department extend a vote of gratitude to the people and local organizations in Seattle, who by their interest and support have done so much to making our meeting a success.

5. *Be It Resolved*—That special thanks be extended to Miss Elaine Swenson, of the University of Washington, for her most generous assistance at all times and in every manner to the Department collectively and to the members individually.

6. *Be It Resolved*—That we rejoice in the award of the Harmon prize of \$1000 to Miss Ethel Richardson, in charge of adult education for the state department of education of California, who, in the opinion of the jury "made the most distinctive contribution of the year 1926 to social or industrial welfare in the United States."

We commend the judgment of the jury of awards in selecting for this honor, this most worthy leader in the field of adult education, which means so much for mankind and is so essential for the strengthening of democratic government.

7. In view of the fact that twenty years have elapsed since the passage of the present naturalization laws, during which time the United States has passed through a decade (1906-1916) of the largest immigration in the history of the country, and since during these twenty years many new and difficult problems have arisen in the field of naturalization which the present and proposed naturalization laws fail to meet adequately.

Be It Resolved—That the Department of Adult Education, of the National Education Association shall authorize its Committee on Naturalization to bring to the attention of Congress and the President, before any further action is taken regarding laws pertaining to naturalization and immigration, the need for the appointment by the United States Government of a Commission on Naturalization and Immigration as they exist today, and to make recommendations, that will serve as a basis for naturalization and immigration laws consistent with the policies and conditions of the present time.

8. *Be It Resolved*—That the Department of Adult Education recommend to all its members the *Interstate Bulletin*, the official organ of the Department; and that in compliment to W. C. Smith of the New York state department of education for his success in making this Bulletin of indispensable value to all workers in the field of adult education.

The Department of Business Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS EDUCATION was created in response to a petition read at the meeting at Saratoga Springs, N. Y., July 12, 1892, from the Business Educators' Association, requesting admission as a department of the National Education Association. See *Proceedings*, 1892:31. The Business Educators' Association was organized in New York City in 1878. Its constitution was revised for acceptance by the Department of Business Education and may be found on page 958 of the *Proceedings* of 1894.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Laurence N. Pease, Viceprincipal and Head of Commercial Department, Stockton High School, Stockton, Calif.; *Vicepresident*, C. E. White, Head of Commercial Department, Garfield High School, Seattle, Wash.; *Secretary*, Francis M. Butts, Director of Placements, Business High School, Washington, D. C. This Department meets once each year in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1893:787-807	1900:542-582	1908:871-907	1915:883-941	1922:575-591
1894:957-990	1901:721-758	1909:701-719	1916:361-397	1923:553-568
1895:862-891	1902:644-702	1910:833-873	1917:315-345	1924:429-439
1896:791-836	1903:719-753	1911:827-869	1918:235-249	1925:354-365
1897:792-285	1904:709-737	1912:1031-1095	1919:259-271	1926:371-391
1898:856-893	1905:669-707	1913:619-637	1920:263-271	
1899:998-1031	1907:877-905	1914:649-663	1921:369-377	

SOME TENDENCIES IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION— ABSTRACT

JOHN J. TIGERT, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

VOCATIONAL efficiency is an important factor in social happiness. Commercial teachers are responsible for the appropriate preparation of future industrial leaders and workers. On this preparation will depend, to a large extent, the degree of efficiency of our commercial and industrial life.

The present tendencies and future program of so important a phase of education deserve most careful consideration. Commercial education and all other integral phases of education rest upon the same basic sciences and principles. Each must carry a dual responsibility. During the school life of each child there must be those integrating forces necessary for the unity of life. These forces are the basic elements of the phases of education necessary for good citizenship. A full appreciation of the potential contribution of the field of commercial education in an age characterized by its economic aspects has never been fully cultivated. Responsibility for objective studies of the economic and business factors necessary or desirable for better citizenship rests with the social sciences. The other phase of the contribution to good citizenship pertains to efficient production.

The outstanding tendencies of commercial education center around scientific curriculum revision. The operation of the laws of economics are bringing about a closer adjustment of commercial education to the needs of business. There is an effort to clarify and harmonize the immediate and remote vocational objectives to meet these needs. The various occupational and personnel studies, together with job analyses, tend to place an emphasis on the primary vocational objective. Refinements of these studies have led to a tendency toward standardization of office work, particularly in the large industries, and have developed in the classrooms the concept of occupational levels. The tendency toward research in the various school subjects is one of the most promising developments for immediate adjustment to classroom practice. Commercial teacher training is receiving increased attention, and the standards for certification are being raised.

Attention is directed to an experiment of supplementing the commercial curricula by correspondence handled cooperatively with the extension division of the state universities or other agencies. If the experiments, which are being conducted in a number of states, prove successful, such cooperative plans may liberate vocationally many of our secondary pupils. In all schools the number of commercial subjects and the amount of advanced work in each subject are limited by many factors. This plan, however, provides for a wider range of commercial subjects and sequences of advanced work than is at present possible. Heretofore, it has been necessary to organize classes to meet the outstanding needs, but this medium may enable us to make a closer adjustment to the individual needs.

Commercial teachers must keep in close touch with the needs of business men. The teachers need their cooperation throughout the entire cycle—vocational information, guidance, vocational training, placement and follow-up. The business men need the teachers' cooperation in placement and extension education.

QUALIFICATIONS EXPECTED OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS FOR ADMISSION TO BUSINESS—ABSTRACT

J. H. MCCLURE, ASSISTANT CASHIER, SEATTLE NATIONAL BANK,
SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

Every business man employing qualified students about to enter business requires the individual to be absolutely honest, courteous, and loyal. He must demonstrate these characteristics to his employer and to those with whom he comes in contact in the performance of his daily duties.

The young man or woman who would accomplish most must be ambitious and energetic, with an ambition to grow in ability by becoming thoroughly acquainted with the details of their duties, and be eager for work and eager to do it right.

Throughout their business course it should be the purpose of the student to cultivate and develop a strong personality by means of attention to dress, neat personal appearance, and desirable personal habits.

It is undoubtedly true that all subjects given students in high schools materially assist in training the individual to think and concentrate. This is particularly important in after life, as the ability to focus attention upon the subject or problem at hand without becoming easily distracted is invaluable. Young people should be taught to learn the value of concentration and stick-to-it-iveness, since the student with these desirable qualities developed has an excellent foundation on which to build his business training.

Initiative is an essential characteristic to success, and the individual with it does not require constant supervision, but may be depended upon to conscientiously apply his time to various duties.

Punctuality is absolutely necessary in every line of business; if one employee is not on time he may be inconveniencing several others.

The student must be willing to accept instructions and follow them promptly and properly, and develop an incentive to do a little more than his share of the work.

If the student could determine what line of work he desires to follow it would enable him to concentrate on that particular line of endeavor.

Students should receive thorough instruction in grammar, business English, and mathematics in order that they will retain and be able to use the knowledge after leaving school.

They should also be impressed with the necessity of living within their means no matter what their income, and be encouraged in thrift.

THE RELATION OF ACADEMIC EDUCATION TO BUSINESS TRAINING IN ESTABLISHING SUCH QUALIFICATIONS

J. A. BEXEL, DEAN, SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, OREGON AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, CORVALLIS, ORE.

I am justified in emphasizing (1) that certain special personal qualifications are necessary to insure success in business; (2) that it is of utmost importance to discover such qualifications in the prospective business man or woman; (3) that such discovery is of even greater importance to the public than it is to the individual. It is interesting to note that one of the earliest discussions of the so-called scientific management occurs in connection with education. Thirty years ago, J. M. Rice started a real movement toward measurements in education for the purpose of discovering exact results and vocational aptitude.

All public education, in the first place, must be a development of higher citizenship, and, in the second place, a training for individual business success. Hence, the emphasis placed of late, even in the high schools, on the social sciences, including civics, history, law, and economics. Admittedly, they have a powerful influence in molding leadership. Usually something like a third of the entire course is devoted to such cultural subjects as English, mathematics, science, and so forth.

The most important qualifications for business leadership are: Unquestioned character, lofty ambition, pleasing personality, clean habits, exemplary living and conduct, efficiency in one or two technical lines of work, a good general education, ability so to conduct his personal business as to maintain a prospective high standard of living, and to manage his business successfully. All these with industry, dependability, adaptability, tact, cheerfulness, good memory, neatness, vision, and courage.

In all our discussion about education in general, and commercial education in particular, there are only a few things which we know with absolute certainty. One thing is that we live in a world of change. Paradoxical as it seems, there is nothing more permanent than change. The successful business man of today must ever be alert to the changes of the times, and must not hesitate to change methods and practices whenever the occasion demands it. Failure to do so will leave him hopelessly behind, and the result will be disaster, not only to the individual, but to society as a whole.

A second fact has come to be generally recognized. Most of our business as well as social ills are traced to ignorance. One of the important functions of the school is to discover truth and to correct errors of the past. Unless the student has the qualifications and the training for the solution of fundamental economic and sociological problems, there is little excuse for spending public money on his education, especially beyond the high school. The social sciences must receive increasing emphasis if our business training shall be sound. It is the function of the school to discover

such talents in the prospective young business man and woman, and when discovered to develop them and direct them into useful channels.

There is a third fact that no one will dispute. I will call it the law of adaptability. This has been recognized from the earliest dawn of history. The parable of the talents puts the law in its simplest form.

The principal function of the school is not vocational guidance, nor technical training, nor yet training for citizenship, but the development of hidden talents, drawing out latent possibilities which exist in every individual, waiting for the stimulating spark which should be kindled in the school. The opposite, unfortunately, sometimes happens; the spark of the genius is extinguished, initiative, enthusiasm, and creative ability are sometimes lost in educational routine and non-essentials.

What has been said may be summed up in a few sentences: (1) It is a function of the school to cooperate with the parents and employers in discovering the talents and traits which lie hidden in every child. (2) This analysis of traits and qualifications should begin at the earliest age possible. (3) It is the duty of the school, not only to discover the surface qualifications essential to business leadership, but to develop and strengthen the weaker traits or bring to the surface hidden qualities. (4) This process of analysis may often be aided materially by the pupil himself, by judicious self-examination and guidance. (5) Once discovered, it is the duty of the school to develop and train the child to a higher degree of efficiency and more useful citizenship, by sympathetic encouragement, wise counsel, and proper course of study.

PROGNOSTIC TESTS AS A DETRIMENT IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION GUIDANCE—ABSTRACT

WILLIAM O. PROCTOR, STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIF.

The topic assigned to me for discussion relates to the possibility of developing tests that will foretell the aptitude of certain persons for the various business vocations. The purpose being to encourage those who have such aptitudes to take the necessary business training, and to direct those who do not seem to have such aptitudes into other lines of work. If such tests could be developed it would mean a great saving of time and effort upon the part of those who spend months and years in preparatory training only to find at the last that they are not adapted to the type of work for which they have been specially trained. For those having the desired aptitudes time and energy would be conserved because they would be enabled to discover early in their training course the particular type of business or clerical work for which they were best fitted and could concentrate on the type of business education which would most quickly fit them for their vocation.

It will be noticed that I have said "if such tests could be developed." That form of statement was used advisedly, for while much experimenta-

tion has been carried on for the past 25 years, and particularly in the past 10 years, the results are not yet positive enough to warrant the statement that we have arrived.

At the outset we should distinguish between "trade tests" and "vocational aptitude" or "prognostic tests." The trade tests are tests designed to measure actual achievement or proficiency in a given vocation. They amount to standardized samples of the work done in the trade or vocation, and are designed to measure the skill and knowledge already acquired by the person who takes the test.

Trade tests, or proficiency tests, have been standardized for such business vocations as stenographer, typist and general office clerks. The results of the use of such tests, where carefully standardized, have been generally satisfactory. Where a business concern employs large numbers of office and clerical workers it has been found that such tests are very serviceable in making selection between applicants. Particularly is this true when proficiency tests are used in connection with general intelligence tests. For be it known to the academic teachers, who assume that only pupils of below average ability should be advised to take the business courses, that success in such business vocations as stenography, secretarial work, and accountancy demands a type of general mental ability on a par with many of the professional vocations. In the Army intelligence tests the middle fifty percent of stenographers and accountants were just about on an equal footing with the middle fifty percent of civil engineers and medical officers.

When we turn, however, to aptitude or prognostic tests the outlook is not quite so promising. Yet it is this type of test in which we, as teachers of business subjects or as vocational counsellors, are most interested. As Kornhauser says:

While tests of acquired proficiencies are important, they are far from being the only tests an employer needs to use. A large part of the work done in offices, stores and factories is not of the standardized skilled-trade type at all. There is often no opportunity to acquire the precise knowledge and skill necessary to do certain kinds of work except within the business establishment itself, either in a vestibule school, by means of some apprenticeship system, or by working under the eye of a fellow-employee or foreman until the work is learned. In such cases, instead of proficiency tests, what is needed are aptitude tests—tests which will pick out those applicants who have the physical, sensory, motor or intellectual aptitudes which will enable them to master the essential operations with a minimum of time and a maximum of efficiency.

Perhaps a word or two should be said in regard to the lines which must be followed if prognostic tests of genuine value are finally to be evolved. Before there can be accurate prognosis there must be accurate diagnosis. The first condition of successful test construction is scientific occupational analysis. Such analysis must proceed to a much greater degree of perfection than that at present attained before tests can be very greatly improved. As a matter of fact, the failure of many of the tests already attempted may be traced to inaccurate or superficial analysis of the elements, both physical

and mental, essential to success in a given vocation. Kitson, Viteles, Charters, Thursdose, Strong, and other vocational psychologists are leading the way in such scientific vocational analysis. The next step in prognostic test construction involves the selection of those elements—mental, physical, social, and emotional, which have been discovered as essential to success in the vocation, and the devising of test elements to give the candidate a chance to show his possession of the same in the quantity necessary. The final step is that of careful standardization under varying conditions and with different types of people.

EMPLOYMENT TESTS FOR BUSINESS SERVICES— ABSTRACT

F. N. WEYANT, CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINER, SEATTLE, WASH.

Employment tests may be classified in a general way under three heads: Performance tests, knowledge tests, and intelligence tests. The performance or trade test is one in which the individual is given an opportunity to demonstrate his skill and ability by actually turning out a sample of his workmanship; such as requiring a carpenter to lay out and fit a mitered joint; a blacksmith to sharpen and temper a drill or to weld two pieces of steel, or a stenographer to write an exercise in shorthand and type the same. This kind of test can be used for occupations which involve manual or mechanical operations. Wherever it can be used it is probably the most satisfactory kind of test.

The knowledge test is one in which definite questions are given in order to determine the applicant's knowledge of the subject under consideration. It is the one most commonly used, the only one in many cases, but often used in connection with the trade test.

The intelligence test is the one most difficult of all to prepare and use. There is always the danger in preparing such a test that it will develop into a purely knowledge test. We must distinguish clearly between the two, for knowledge and intelligence are not the same. Intelligence may be well defined as the innate ability or aptitude to learn. Of course, there is a close affinity or relationship between intelligence and knowledge, and we may generally assume that the possession of knowledge is an indication of intelligence. Many of the so-called intelligence tests have been criticised on the ground that they were merely knowledge tests. It is more likely that such criticism should have been directed toward the improper use of the test selected. In using as an intelligence test one that is mainly a knowledge test we overlook the fact that the knowledge one may have is dependent on his past opportunities and on his own natural aptitude or kind of intelligence. We would not assume that if we selected from a hundred high school graduates the ten with the highest scholastic records that all of them could become good lawyers, or good physicians, or good civil engineers. In a general intelligence test they would all make approxi-

mately the same score. In order to select a candidate for civil engineer a test should be devised in which the highest score would be made by the one best adapted to respond to the work of a civil engineer. It is evident that no intelligence test can be used indiscriminately. During the past ten or twelve years much literature on employment psychology has been published. Many actual tests have been prepared and offered for use. All undoubtedly have a value and a place, but great care must be exercised in the selection and use of them.

RESPONSIBILITY OF BUSINESS FOR PROMOTIONAL OPPORTUNITIES AND ADVANCEMENTS—ABSTRACT

HARRY G. WINSOR, PERSONNEL OFFICER OF PUGET SOUND POWER AND LIGHT COMPANY, SEATTLE, WASH.

In the building of an industrial organization, selection, placement, employment, and advancement are matters which require serious consideration by all executives.

First, we should be very careful to eliminate all employees who are not fitted for the work in which they are engaged. It is manifestly unjust both to the employee and to the employer to retain the services of one who is clearly a "misfit" and thereby prevent him from seeking other employment which might offer better opportunity for advancement, and to weaken the organization in a hope that the future will solve the problem.

Second, the characteristics, history, and progress of each employee should be studied by executives and supervisors, and a careful estimate made of his capabilities. The question of who shall receive advancement in an organization when opportunity occurs is ever present in the minds of good executives.

Third, what the employee wants—To the question, "Why did you leave your last job?" the interviewer finds that the usual answer summed up in a few words is "no advancement." If one could know the day-dreams of the average employee, and could discover the idea back of them, he would find three causes: That the employee has imagined the comforts and pleasures he could buy with a greater income, that he has pictured for himself a boss job, or that he has coveted the position of a trusted employee. In short, he longs for greater personal comfort, the bearing of responsibility, and the exercise of authority. These three elemental desires are so fundamental in each individual's character that his success in life depends upon their gratification.

Promotion is necessary. To find a satisfactory means of answering these longings of the individual and at the same time meet the needs of a growing organization are real problems in any well defined promotional plans. On every hand one may observe organizations distributing material profits, promoting sociability, paying liberal salaries, conducting educa-

tional classes, having liberal insurance and pension plans, etc., only to find that even these things are not thoroughgoing enough, because somehow or other these elemental desires of employees are not efficiently met. Promotion for several thousand employees cannot be achieved on the principle of generosity alone. Scientific promotional plans are just as much needed in business today as scientific production plans.

JUNIOR COMMERCIAL CURRICULUM—ABSTRACT

A. E. BULLOCK, SUPERVISOR OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, PUBLIC
SCHOOLS, LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

To be satisfactory, the junior high school commerce curriculum must contribute as fully as possible to the broad, general objectives of the junior high school. These objects are now quite generally conceived to be: Exploratory, selfdiscovery, guidance, cultural, high school preparatory, and, for some pupils, prevocational.

The present tendency seems to be to stress entirely too much the last of these objectives, and seems to have for its objective the preparation for minor messenger and clerical positions, the duties of which will concern those who fill them for a short time only. A course of this kind can hardly be said to be broadly exploratory, nor to furnish guidance for a life position in the complicated field of business. Neither can it be said to build a foundation for the more technical courses of the senior high school. Typewriting is being taught in most junior high schools, and since the typewriter is being more and more widely used, ability to operate it is a good, general accomplishment. In the case of typewriting, however, it would be better for those pupils who intend to take up stenography in the senior high school to delay it until then, because it is a skill subject and should be taken nearer to the time it is going to be used.

Three types of courses seem necessary to round out the junior commerce curriculum: (1) A general and exploratory course, the content of which would be valuable for all eighth-grade pupils. It is difficult to formulate such a course on account of the fact that business is such a broad field and has so many ramifications. (2) In schools where a considerable number of pupils drop out to go to work, a prevocational course might be given, but the services of the continuation, evening, and corporation schools should also be utilized for these pupils, and training which could better be given on the job should not be attempted in school. (3) A foundation course upon which could be built the more technical courses of the senior high school should be formulated.

*WHAT SHOULD BE THE POLICY OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN RELATION TO GENERAL EDUCATION—
ABSTRACT*

J. F. ELTON, PRINCIPAL OF HIGH SCHOOL OF COMMERCE, PORTLAND, ORE.

Our view of commercial education must be higher and broader than that of mere fitting for a job. We cannot ignore the strictly vocational aspect. We must recognize the necessity of specific training for office duties, for we all know that the day of apprenticeship in business, as in most other lines, has gone. Yet if we do not build up in the prospective business employee something which enables him to grow on the job and advance to higher levels, what we have given him is not worthy of the name education. The danger of this narrow point of view was recognized years ago. As early as 1899, when commercial education was still in its cradle, a report on commercial education published by the National Herbart Society as a supplement of its fifth yearbook, contained the warning:

Education for commerce will disappoint if it be planned on narrow technical lines. If schools of commerce, as a branch of public education, are to win and hold the favor of educational experts on the one hand, and of the business community on the other, they must be more than "clerk factories." Training for business to be of real value should be accompanied by breadth of view.

The purpose, then, of commercial education is twofold. It must train the pupil for the work to be performed when he leaves school—it must provide subjects of direct utility—and at the same time there must be established in him such attitudes and such understanding of the basic principles of economics and of business as will enable him to grow on the job, grasp opportunities of advancement, and eventually take a worthwhile place in the community.

And this second and larger purpose can be accomplished not by ignoring or excluding other forms of education, but by making use of them in the plan of commercial education.

Specifically, even from the narrow vocational point of view the dependence of commercial education upon branches of general education is manifest. The stenographer can function only through his use of English, and the broader and more thorough his schooling in English is, the greater his chance for satisfying success—thoroughness for precision and exactness in the mechanics, and breadth for the development, both immediate and future, that can flow from an acquaintance with and an appreciation of literature and a recognition of the value of the whole field of books and of the habit of reading. I have known stenographers to be employed without any check whatever as to shorthand or typewriting ability, and solely on the strength of their taste in reading. And I have known excellent stenographers, from the technical point of view, to be summarily discharged because of a lack of proper attitude toward their work.

CURRICULUM BUILDING FOR COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS— ABSTRACT

E. F. KILLAM, SUPERVISOR OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, ST. LOUIS, MO.

I believe that under the administration of Superintendent Maddox, St. Louis has made a real contribution to the work of curriculum building.

In building the commercial curriculum, the teachers have had a large part. A chairman, working with a group of fellow teachers as advisors, has formulated the course. The supervisors were called upon by the chairmen of the committees for advice and suggestions.

The first step necessary in the building of a curriculum for commercial subjects is to determine the needs of the community. To find out what the pupils will be expected to know and what they will be required to do. Having made this survey and determined what subjects shall be included, it is then necessary to decide what the objectives in the subjects shall be. In other words, what shall be the goal.

If a curriculum is to be effective it should go further and furnish suggestions and aids which may be used by the teacher in meeting the objectives. These suggestions should be broad and should merely point out the way.

The commercial curriculum should be subject to constant revision. The business is constantly changing and unless the schools keep pace with these changes their products will not be able to meet the demands made upon them. The commercial curriculum must be original. It cannot be copied, because it must meet the demands of the particular community which it is to serve.

METHODS AND VALUES OF TEACHING RETAIL TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

ANNE M. DRUMMOND, STADIUM HIGH SCHOOL, TACOMA, WASH.

The business man of the future must have added to his already rather complete routine training, courses in which he will obtain a broader vision and a deeper appreciation of the world in which he is to operate. The vocational guidance departments of the public schools lay a good foundation for such an outlook.

For retail selling I have substituted the name, training for retail store service, because this course, in addition to giving instruction in selling, offers a curriculum of wide enough scope to give the student an intelligent and human insight into a vast business field for his future use and choice.

In general, throughout the United States the retail training course includes the study of the scientific sale, merchandise and merchandising

methods, textiles, color and design, economics of retailing, advertising, store management, store arithmetic, and business English. In order to obtain the best results, the course should require that each student work in a retail establishment while he is taking the training. From this contact with the business world, some of the most beneficial lessons are emphasized—the lesson of putting knowledge to a practical test, the lesson of taking and carrying out orders, the lesson of cooperating in a business-like way with fellow workers, the lesson of serving the public in a pleasing and effective manner, the lesson of rendering a real contribution to society.

In a comparatively short time after graduation, students of high school retail training classes have been promoted to positions of assistant buyer, advertising manager, interior decorators, designers of clothing, personal service directors, city and state salesmen, store correspondents, beauty shop operators and owners, training manager for chain stores, head of stock, divisional merchandise manager, window trimmer. Promotions such as these are matters of individual ability and application. Although many of those taking the course get no further than a selling position, yet the training has given them a means of earning a living. Even for those who may not follow retail work, the broad and practical knowledge which can be derived from this course is of great value in helping them to appreciate, understand, and deal with many of the everyday problems of everyday life.

Teaching of retail training in the public schools is doubtless here to stay, because it is filling a community need which intelligent store managers appreciate. Because of keen competition and an educated public the serious problem confronting the retail merchant is distribution, and this he recognizes can be solved to a large degree by employing workers trained for store service.

However, there are many problems confronting both retail training teachers and store executives. The method of presentation varies with each locality. The curriculum must be elastic enough to meet the economic conditions of each city. The general classifications seem to be high school cooperative classes, part-time school, continuation classes, and evening classes for adults.

Retail training has been in the public school curricula not more than fifteen years. Rapid progress has been made, and each year substantial gains are being shown in the number of cities where courses are given. The federal board records that trained teachers are conducting classes in 73 cities and 26 states. There are yet many localities to enter. Schools and stores working closely together have produced the best results. The amount and kind of cooperation given by store executives has and will continue to determine to a large extent the future of retail training in the public schools.

RECENT TRENDS IN TYPEWRITING—ABSTRACT

FRANCIS M. BUTTS, PLACEMENT DIRECTOR, BUSINESS HIGH SCHOOL,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

The present period of transition from the old empirical trial and error methods of instruction to higher planes of ideational and directed skill learning in typewriting is marked by three pronounced tendencies: The trend to accord more recognition to typewriting, the trend to broaden objectives and relate typewriting to the great economic unity running through all of life's activities, and the trend to research and refinement of methods and subjectmatter. A wider field of usefulness, a new psychology of typewriting, and a sound body of technic are resulting from the trend to research and refinement of methods and subjectmatter and from the tendency to broaden objectives and emphasize relationships evidenced in typewriting since 1920.

The recent trend in typewriting to a definite and general recognition of this subject as a required and accredited constant for high school graduation and college entrance is full of promise. There is a growing feeling that a secondary school fails in its duty if it does not provide each graduate with a fair mastery of at least one subject by means of which some degree of economic independence may be attained. It is widely conceded that there is no subject of instruction in our schools today which offers as great a promise of economic return for the time and energy expended as that of typewriting. Although there is still a tendency in some cases not to recognize typewriting, its acceptance by so many institutions of secondary and higher learning indicates that there will be in the future a further adjustment of this combined skill and ideational subject to the increasing demands of a complex civilization.

The new psychology of typewriting works from accepted educational principles, ideals, mental images, and facts. Its ways are economical of time, energy, and materials as well as direct and objective. This newer kinaesthetic method substitutes for the inadequate vocabulary building aim, the comprehensive reach, touch, and return objective of an equal and maximum finger facility with reference to every typewriter key. In this connection there is a tendency to use the same set of habits for each of the four rows of keys, and to throw the emphasis of practice on the weaker third and fourth fingers and on the more difficult keyboard reaches in order to reduce the variation of intervals in rhythmic writing which is responsible so largely for the retardation of speed. This and many other tendencies to refinement are evidenced on all sides—in paper control, in classroom procedure, in the increasing use of objective methods of instruction and testing, and in the arrangement and organization of subjectmatter in recent textbooks to provide for a wide range of abilities and for group and individual instruction with individual remedial measures as well as for the attainment of vocational and enrichment objectives.

It is an encouraging fact that typewriting classrooms are fast becoming laboratories of research. The quest for truth goes steadily on. From Paris comes a renewed confidence in the rhythmic method of writing by count and by music so generally followed in this country and in Germany. Philadelphia is interested in the association of English and typewriting. In Washington we have recently conducted an experiment in the closer correlation of first year shorthand and typewriting. In this experiment from the very first lesson the correct shorthand outlines were associated with every exercise practised during the typewriting periods. All other conditions between the experimental and measuring groups were kept as constant as possible. The results in facility of reading and transcribing as well as many side products of this experiment seem to indicate that it may be possible by a further development of associative teaching to raise standards of accomplishment and at the same time reduce the length of the shorthand course.

IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN BOOKKEEPING— ABSTRACT

MERRITT DAVIS, HEAD OF COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT, SALEM SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, SALEM, ORE.

Business has been revolutionized in recent years. Organization of capital, cooperative marketing, and merchandising are fast displacing the small dealer. Keen competition in business has necessitated greater efficiency, a closer check on business operations and finance, and more complete systematic accounting methods.

To meet the demands of the new era in business, it is necessary that education keep pace with this movement. To do so requires modern methods in presenting and instructing in the basic subjects of business, of which bookkeeping and accounting is the most essential. For only through an efficient system of accounting can a business be systematized, managed, and directed in a profitable manner.

The instructions in bookkeeping and accounting in the high school as well as the entire course in commerce must have a two-fold purpose: First, to prepare the students for real business life, which cares for the larger percentage that do not continue their education beyond high school, and second, to give a thorough preparation for the advance work in commerce in the college or university.

The successful teaching of bookkeeping primarily involves four things: A thorough knowledge of the subject itself; an inspiring magnetic personality; and actual business experience as well as professional training.

IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN SHORTHAND— ABSTRACT

HERBERT W. WHITE, HEAD OF COMMERCIAL DEPARTMENT, FRANKLIN
HIGH SCHOOL, PORTLAND, ORE.

Often commercial work has lagged, savored of the shop after its newness has worn off; progress seemed at a standstill.

Scientific analysis, investigation and scientific remedies are now applied, and this work is receiving the stimulus with other educational subjects.

Shorthand is the last to receive the light of scientific research and direction.

Among others, four things have been discovered that caused so large a percent of all who study shorthand to fail to acquire a sufficient proficiency for commercial use.

1. A large number were permitted to study it who are physically unfitted to receive this kind of training.
2. An ignorance of the real processes and how best they can be learned, no real measurement of the material taught, and improper standards.
3. Lack of knowledge of the uses in business or its place in commercial work.
4. Lack of mental stimuli due to faulty pedagogy.

Real improvement in shorthand teaching comes when these things are gone into: First by prognostic tests to all who apply for the study, thus eliminating the incompetent; second by laboratory analysis of the processes required, improper routine eliminated and different measurements of accomplishment established as in typewriting or motion studies in industrial plants; third by a careful local occupational and commercial survey and particular analysis of the various uses made of shorthand; and fourth by an improved method of presentation.

Replies from leading business men and office managers to the question, what is wrong with the school prepared stenographer, and the remedy have elicited the facts that the school standard and office standard differ. The school's requirement is words per minute; the office, the knowledge to produce proper meaning,—the dictation apart—initiative, composition, appearance of the letter.

Another aid to improved instruction is grouping as to ability.

Improvement of instruction in shorthand will be realized when:

1. We eliminate the unfit before its study is begun.
2. We know more of the content and the learning process to acquire it.
3. We know the commercial uses and head our efforts towards the particular objective.
4. Have better trained teachers and the application of the psychology of learning.

*SECRETARY'S MINUTES***First Session, Tuesday, 12:15 P. M., July 5, 1927**

The annual luncheon conference of the Department of Business Education held this year with the Seattle Chamber of Commerce on Tuesday, July 5, 1927 marked the opening session of the Department at Seattle. J. W. Spangler, president of the Seattle Chamber of Commerce presided.

The annual conference where business men and teachers of business education may come together was inaugurated at the Oakland-San Francisco meeting in 1923 and has proved more successful at each meeting of the Department.

The general theme "New Aspects of Commercial Education" brought forth several interesting papers stressing scientific curriculum revision. The following program was presented:

*New Aspects of Commercial Education***SOME TENDENCIES IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION**

John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

QUALIFICATIONS EXPECTED OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PUPILS FOR ADMISSION TO BUSINESS

J. H. McClure, Assistant Cashier, Seattle National Bank, Seattle, Washington.

THE RELATION OF ACADEMIC EDUCATION TO BUSINESS TRAINING IN ESTABLISHING SUCH QUALIFICATIONS

J. A. Bexell, Dean, School of Commerce, Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oregon.

THE PLACE OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN A CITY EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

Willis A. Sutton, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Ga.

Second Session, Tuesday, 2 P. M., July 5, 1927

The second session of the Department was held in the Auditorium of the Seattle Chamber of Commerce on Tuesday afternoon, July 5, 1927. John G. Kirk, president of the Department presided. The following program was presented.

*New Aspects of Commercial Education***A STUDY OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES IN BUSINESS**

Karl Lieb, School of Business Administration, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

PROGNOSTIC TESTS AS A DETERMINANT IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION GUIDANCE

William O. Proctor, Stanford University, California.

EMPLOYMENT TESTS FOR BUSINESS SERVICES

F. N. Weyant, Civil Service Examiner, Seattle, Washington.

RESPONSIBILITY OF BUSINESS FOR PROMOTIONAL OPPORTUNITIES AND ADVANCEMENTS

Harry G. Winsor, Personal Officer of Puget Sound Power and Light Company, Seattle, Washington.

JUNIOR COMMERCIAL CURRICULUM

A. E. Bullock, Supervisor of Commercial Education, Public Schools, Los Angeles, California.

DISCUSSION

C. E. White, Garfield High School, Seattle, Washington.

Third Session, Thursday, 2 P. M., July 7, 1927

The third session of the Department was held in the Auditorium of the Seattle Chamber of Commerce on Thursday afternoon, July 7, 1927. C. E. White, Head of the Commercial Department, Garfield High School, Seattle, Washington presided. The following program was presented.

New Aspects of Commercial Education

WHAT SHOULD BE THE POLICY OF COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN RELATION TO GENERAL EDUCATION

J. F. Elton, Principal, High School of Commerce, Portland, Oregon.

CURRICULUM BUILDING FOR COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS

E. F. Killam, Supervisor of Commercial Education, St. Louis, Mo.

METHODS AND VALUES OF TEACHING RETAIL TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

Anne M. Drummond, Stadium High School, Tacoma, Washington.

RECENT TRENDS IN TYPEWRITING

Frances M. Butts, Director of Placement, Business High School, Washington, D. C.

IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN BOOKKEEPING

Merritt Davis, Head of Commercial Department, Salem Senior High School, Salem, Oregon.

IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN SHORTHAND

Herbert W. White, Head of Commercial Department, Franklin High School, Portland, Oregon.

METHODS AND STANDARDS IN TRANSCRIPTION

Laurence N. Pease, Vice Principal, Stockton High School, Stockton, California.

DISCUSSION

Stephen Dwan, Head of Commercial Department, Broadway High School, Seattle, Washington.

Business Meeting and Reports of Committees

Immediately at the close of the third session, the department was called to order by John G. Kirk, president of the department. The following officers were elected:

President—LAURENCE N. PEASE, Vice Principal, Stockton High School, Stockton, California.

Vicepresident—C. E. WHITE, Head of Commercial Department, Garfield High School, Seattle, Washington.

Secretary—FRANCES M. BUTTS, Director of Placement, Business High School, Washington, D. C.

Resolutions were unanimously passed thanking the president of the Department for his untiring efforts in arranging for the most excellent program, and extending the appreciation of the Department to the local committee, chairmen of the meetings, the speakers and those who led the discussion for their excellent contributions to the success of the meetings.

The Department of Classroom Teachers

THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS held its first session at the St. Paul meeting, July 8, 1914. It was organized in response to petitions representing classroom teachers in all parts of the country. See *Proceedings*, 1914:909. The Department was reorganized under a Constitution at the Boston meeting in July, 1922. For the Constitution and bylaws of this Department see *Proceedings*, 1924:568-70. The Department of Classroom Teachers cooperates with the National League of Teachers' Associations.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Jean L. Soules, Women's Athletic Club, Spokane, Wash.; *Vicepresident*, R. Ross Smith, Chicago Normal College, Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary*, Charles E. Scott, Jefferson High School, Portland, Ore.; *Executive Committee*: Western Section, Miriam D. Eisner, 3117 California St., San Francisco, Calif. (Term expires 1930); Middle Section, Eula F. Hunter, 1324 E. Morphy St., Fort Worth, Texas (Term expires 1929); Eastern Section, Mrs. Edith B. Joynes, 410 W. 14th St., Norfolk Va. (Term expires 1928). This Department meets at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1914: 909-916	1917:615-622	1920:343-355	1923:569-620	1925:365-402
1915:1161-1177	1918:381-389	1921:399-406	1924:460-499	1926:391-423
1916: 637-652	1919:375-392	1922:683-691		

THE SOCIAL ASPECT OF THE TEACHER

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION,
AUGUSTA, MAINE

Strange as it may seem very little has been written concerning the social aspect of the teacher. After examining a large number of books and periodicals and searching the Readers' Guide for some information as to how important this subject is and finding nothing, one comes to the conclusion that "The Social Phase of the Teacher" is of small importance. Perhaps it is because the profession is deemed so very "pedagogical" that society is not within its realm.

It is a safe guess that while you have read nothing which I may say, you must have thought some of the thoughts. Teaching has become so dreadfully "teachey." It is all about the child, the lesson, behavior, punishment, parents, discipline, motivation, methods, tests, measurements, attitudes and a long list of technical terms which make up our professional vernacular, and there is no room for life outside the school.

Why is there not a community into which the teacher may fit? Why should a teacher enter a cloister and wear a social cowl, obscure and obliterate herself because she is a teacher? There is an advantage in associating with the young. It tends to keep one young which is quite all right for a while and as far as it goes, but after all we cannot forever live in the land of "never-grow-up," we must mature our lives. We can do more for the children if we really grow up and become of the real species. We must associate at times with men and women.

The teacher must fit into life with its complex relations. She must be a teacher but not first. She must be a woman and live with her fellow beings in a most wholesome way. The teacher has three full relationships which every normal individual must accept, and the teacher of all people must be "normal." Economics, or how to make a living, has long been one of the deep concerns of the teacher. Society, or how to live a wholesome life with our fellows, has been too much a part of omission; and government, or how to govern ourselves. After all, this is education, it is also life. My story has to do with the middle section, the neglected section, the life section.

The several groups with which a teacher must come in contact in a social way are: Her fellow teachers; the parents; the general public; the professional group; and her pupils. Let me take up these several relations somewhat in the order named. I shall not attempt to say all that may be thought on the subject. Rather would I leave some things for you to think out for yourselves.

Her fellow teachers—That the teacher should avoid cliques among her co-workers is a safe admonition. It must not be misunderstood that the teacher may be drawn closer to one personality than another. Because of the privilege of selection it would be entirely irrational, even unfair, to

forbid a teacher choosing her intimates. It is quite natural that teachers should form close friendships among themselves. But teachers should not allow themselves to get into the dependent habit of one or two friends. Democracy is quite essential and a reasonable friendliness with the staff of co-workers is necessary to *esprit de corps*, the cooperative mind is essential to a good player of the game.

In these social contacts no teacher should allow jealousy to manifest itself. The teacher who can qualify as my ideal teacher must be a good sport, she must delight in the success of her fellows, she must be willing to cheer when she sees good work, not with her hands alone but with and from her heart. She must see and appreciate the fine qualities and good work of others. Teachers, if you ever feel the "green" coming on, go and hide until it disappears. If you have the feeling of jealousy in your nature, go and do penance until you rid yourself of it.

A teacher teaches as much by what she is as by what she does. Genuineness and generosity are qualities of a good teacher. I once called my teachers together, thirty of them. We sat down together for a conference. I did not know much about education or teaching but I told those teachers we were hired by the community to build a school for the children, the best school we could build. Therefore we were a sort of family, a corps. We had for the time given up our individuality for a group personality, the community would judge us by our solidarity. If any teacher did an unusual piece of work it should be known to all the rest and they would have a chance to see it, they should all praise it. If one did a good piece of work in reading we would congratulate her, another music or arithmetic or what not, we would sometimes discuss these achievements in our meetings on Friday evenings, or if I was especially enthusiastic I would issue a special call. It worked well. We found many good words and we succeeded in bringing those teachers close together.

Sometimes we would have a little afternoon tea while these get together were on. We succeeded in arranging some quite purely social functions among ourselves occasionally. It pays well to know those with whom you work and to have a bond of sympathy and fellowship with them.

The parents—There are several phases of social contact with parents: (1) individual while discussing the progress or problems of the children; (2) visits in their homes; (3) in parent-teacher associations and (4) in connection with the general public. These are all important and the impression the teacher makes in such instances determines often the parent's judgment of the teacher in the schoolroom. In my own experience I have found the parent conference very helpful and many pleasant friendships have thus been formed. I have known very successful teachers who made it a point to call upon the parents of all their children and to establish direct contacts with them. I believe it good to do. A teacher will often accomplish more with the children if she knows the policies by which they

are being brought up. Most teachers are worth knowing and parents offer better cooperation if they know the teacher and believe in her.

The parent-teacher association offers a fine opportunity to post the parents as to programs of improvement, progressive methods, new processes and the like. Very often parents complain of what is being done because they do not understand the aims and objectives. A misinformed or half informed public is usually against us while a well informed public is likely to be for and with us.

The teacher and the community—To become a social leader in a community would seem to be out of the question for a teacher. She lacks the means and the time as well as the general faculties for this. She probably should not attempt it unless in a small community and under the stress of need for the community. But there is no legitimate reason which occurs to me why a teacher should not be popular in her own way, admitted to the best society and able to be useful as a member of the community for the social side. The community should know her, respect her and recognize her for what her personality and achievements are worth.

If you will allow personal privilege I will relate an incident of my own experience. As superintendent of a small city in the middle west I told my teachers they should get acquainted with the people and become a part of them. I gave them orders not to send regrets if invited to a Thursday afternoon tea, reception or other function within their realm but to accept and attend. They were, however, after accepting to notify me so I could send a substitute for their work. The pay of this substitute was not to be deducted from the monthly pay check. The following instructions were a part of the order. The teacher who attended was not to talk of herself or her own work. If others brought up the topic she was to change the subject to her co-workers and their work. She was to tell the parents of the other teachers, of what a privilege it was to have their children under the care of such fine women and of what splendid work the teachers were doing. Her good words would be returned to her in due season and in full measure by others.

The plan worked. People became interested, they found less fault, the schools were a prominent interest of the city. The spirit grew not alone among the people but among the children, discipline was easier, we had less unpleasant experiences. Other superintendents heard of our schools and came and took some of our good teachers at higher wages. At the end of the year, although the city was hard pressed financially, the board of education gave the most substantial increases in wages the city had known.

The superintendent did not know much scientifically about schools and teaching. He was very nearly illiterate on these things but he did know how to give the teachers a chance. Sometimes I have thought there is too much supervision, a sort of "sin of supervision." While reasonable limitations should be set up, teachers should have time for their own initiative,

what they need most is a reasonable professional freedom, not ball and chain, they need latitude, not grooves.

There came under my observation many years ago two teachers who came into town the same autumn. Both were well prepared and both good teachers but one of them was able to do much more than the other. Their attitude, their philosophy was entirely different. One said she did not have time to do anything outside of her school, she spent much time on her work, prepared carefully and took good care of herself.

The other teacher had some social qualities and a desire to mingle. It was not so much a philosophy with her as a more natural inclination. She attended church and young people's meeting, taught a class in Sunday school, led Y. P. S., when parties were given she was on hand, took places on the committees, in short she carved out a real place in that community. For two years these young ladies worked in their schools side by side and left at the same time. The one quietly made her way out of town after a few farewells to her close associates, the other was escorted to the train by a concourse of people who showered her with gifts and with praise. She was worth it.

Social qualities—All persons do not have social qualities but they may be cultivated, culture and social graces may be increased. Dress, manners, good conversation, and courtesy are all variables and may be cultivated. The best way to win people is to make them feel you are interested in them. The average individual is more interested in himself than in others. A teacher above all others should have social graces that the children whom she leads may be given good standards.

The teacher should be choice of her dress, should know styles and should conform. She should, however, not allow herself to get into extremes. A teacher who dresses well, properly, and always within her means and station will have a greater influence on her pupils than one who disregards the conventions.

The question has often been asked, how much if any of her time should a teacher give to her church? Well, the best answer I can give to this is that the teacher should budget her time and her physical bank account and live rather carefully within the figures set up. Every teacher should give some of her talent and some of her physical ability to her faith. There is a definite connection between the school and the teacher's spiritual life. Thus the teacher needs the peace and poise a religious experience and well established faith will produce. This to many teachers is a great strength. But this is the more personal and selfish side of religion. Religion is not selfish, it is generous.

It was a chill autumn day I was coming in from West Baldwin when I reached one of those little schools in the very heart of the country. I never allow myself to pass one of them without stopping if I can do so. On this occasion school was just closing and the twenty-five young Americans were getting their wraps and other belongings for the home journey.

There was a fine order about it all. There was the teacher as she stood among her pupils, her face mitted in white which softened the lines of the years until she looked young and fair. There was a fine smile on her face as the children came to her for a good night or a touch of affection as she drew the cloak a little closer around Mary's neck, pinned the wraps a little more securely for Jane, admonished John to bundle up as it was cold. Then a "Good night, children, see you tomorrow," and these people of the school scattered to the four winds, all with pleasant memories and a hope for the morning. Surely this teacher found delight in their youthful society and daily renewed her youth.

After all, a teacher's life well balanced in time and interest between these various relationships has much to commend it to the best mental, moral, and social personalities of our days.

OUTSTANDING BENEFITS CONFERRED UPON TEACHERS BY BOARDS OF EDUCATION

MAUDE COMPTON, MATHEMATICS, SOUTH HIGH SCHOOL, OMAHA, NEBR.

For the past ten years, Omaha has gradually built up a progressive school system in which to train its young people to take their places as its future citizens.

We have many beautiful grade school buildings with well-kept grounds equipped with playground apparatus, and our five high schools compare favorably with the best high schools of the country. These schools are in the hands of a splendid administrative staff and corps of teachers. The public school system of Omaha holds an enviable place among the cities of its size and it has been a source of pride to her people. The teachers are given a non-cumulative sick leave, and an adequate retirement and tenure by our board of education.

Last year a deficit in the general school fund was brought to light. This deficit had been accumulating for some time, some years increasing and others decreasing. There came a demand from several sources that the board of education keep their expenditures within their income and wipe out the deficit in one year. The board adopted a policy of retrenchment which caused a feeling of unrest among the teachers as a large sum of money was to be cut from the instructional budget.

I believe the outstanding benefit conferred upon teachers by our board of education was that in the face of this huge deficit and a demand that it be wiped out in one year they decided it would be penny wise and pound foolish to lower the teachers' salaries. They have stood as one maintaining that a high standard of education can be maintained only with high standard teachers and high standard teachers can be maintained only with reasonable compensation.

The morale of the teaching force of our city has been made better by the

teachers knowing they have a sympathetic board of education that will protect them in a time of crisis.

Viola Kelly, San Francisco, California—In discussing boards of education, it is necessary to remember the diversity of such bodies, not only in the method of their selection, but also in regard to the powers conferred upon them by state legislatures, city charters, and established custom.

The San Francisco Board of Education has existed in its present form for only about five years. The seven members of the board are appointed by the mayor and the appointments are referred to the voters for confirmation at a regular election. The city superintendent, executive head of the board, is elected by the members of the board of education.

Our superintendent is given very broad administrative powers, especially in regard to affairs directly concerning the rights and privileges of the teaching force. Our present superintendent, Dr. Gwinn, is genuinely interested in the welfare of the teachers and this power vested in him has been of great benefit to us.

There can be credited to our board several tremendously important improvements. One of the most vital is the reorganization of the system for selecting teachers, so that appointments are made and confirmed upon the basis of efficiency on the part of the applicant, not upon political or social influence.

Another benefit has been the granting of a sick leave of five days on full pay and ten days on half pay. This leave is not cumulative. The teachers have requested that it be made cumulative up to twenty-five days on full pay and fifty days on half pay, and we feel that there is a very fair chance of our request being granted within the next year.

The building program is another factor that has vitally affected the teachers. Our many new buildings are beautiful and most convenient. In planning them, the board has asked for suggestions in regard to arrangement and equipment, not only from the teachers as a body, but also from the individual teachers most concerned. There has also been a marked increase in the variety and amount of supplies furnished.

The question of promotions is always a vital one. Our board, confirming the appointments of the superintendent, has promoted to principalships, vice-principalships and other supervisory positions many classroom teachers. These appointments have been made quite largely from those who have taken an active interest in organization work. The liberality of the board in granting leaves on pay to our officers while attending conventions or engaged in legislative work, as well as numerous lesser courtesies, is added proof of their fair attitude.

During the past two years San Francisco has adopted a very fine system of municipal pensions for teachers and just two years ago we secured salary increases of approximately three hundred seventy-five dollars per year for every teacher. While these were due more largely to effort on

the part of the teachers than to the board of education, the board rendered valuable service in securing them.

Perhaps it is as well that we find our local boards a bit obdurate in granting our requests. It is through continuous effort that we keep in training for the protection and advancement of the "Republic's First and Last Line of Defense."

Mamie B. Stoecker, President, Seattle Grade Teachers' Club, Seattle, Washington—Seattle is very fortunate in having a school board representative of the highest type of citizen as you will agree when you learn that it is composed of E. B. Holmes, lumberman; O. B. Thorgrimson, attorney; Dr. C. W. Sharples, physician; E. L. Smith, clergyman; and E. Shorrock, banker. These men are elected for a term of three years and serve without pay. I am very glad of the opportunity of telling you how much a board, that keeps ever in the foreground the best interests of the children of the community, can do for the benefit of the teachers at the same time. I shall mention three outstanding benefits; namely, the sabbatical leave, the demonstration school, and the plan relating to school libraries.

The sabbatical leave has been in operation in Seattle for two years. It is granted for purposes of study and travel and may be for a period of one semester or for the whole year as the applicant desires. Partial compensation is allowed for this period. When the plan was first put into operation, the maximum number of teachers who might be given this privilege was twenty. That number has since been increased to thirty. The full quota has been arranged for both the first and second semesters of the year 1927-1928, which shows that the plan is popular with the teachers. Those who take advantage of the sabbatical leave come back to their position with increased vitality, physical fitness, knowledge, experience, and enthusiasm and this in turn reacts to the benefit of the entire system.

The demonstration school was established here only this past year. Perhaps nothing has been done which has been of greater benefit to the teachers than this. Through the demonstration school, curriculum revision is carried on in a more scientific manner, namely by testing the value of a given course before placing it in the schools in general, and teachers receive much valuable aid in adopting new methods by having an opportunity to see the plans and devices actually in process and concretely presented. Over three hundred of our own teachers and principals visited this school the past year and fifty visitors from outside the city have registered. The summary from a questionnaire sent to those who visited shows without question that the demonstration school has been a great source of constructive help.

The third outstanding benefit which has been conferred upon the teachers is the library plan which is to become effective September 1, 1927. Modern methods of teaching require more adequate school libraries that can serve every department and activity of the school rather than those now

in operation in the schools. Both the public schools and the public library are actively interested in promoting the development of reading habits and discriminating tastes among young people and there is a growing tendency to increase the cooperation between these two institutions. The following plan is proposed:

The school board to continue to provide:

Library room and equipment

Heat, light, janitor service

Reference books and professional books for teachers

Book delivery between public library and school libraries

Teachers to administer these libraries

Student assistants for charging, mending, shelving books, etc.

General supplies—ink, paper, pencils, etc.

The library board to provide:

Books to circulate (for recreational and cultural reading)

Special library supplies

Catalog

Mending, recasing, rebinding

Assistance in the supervision of organization and administration of libraries

Instruction to pupils in use of libraries

Book talks and story telling in schools where this work is desired

Personnel—Whenever possible the reading or literature teacher is chosen as the person to take charge of the school libraries. The public library is provided on its staff with a supervisor of school libraries who will devote her entire time to visiting and aiding the libraries in the elementary schools.

Arrangements are to be made for a course of lectures on Saturday mornings for the benefit of those teachers who have charge of the libraries in the elementary schools, attendance at these lectures is to be voluntary and the course is to be arranged under the joint auspices of the school board, the public library, and the university of Washington library school.

Platoon schools and schools that are not within reasonable walking distance of the central or a branch library are to be given first consideration in developing unit libraries similar to the fourteen already in operation. Schools which are located near the central or a branch library are to use these libraries until such time as the library board and the school board are able to provide unit libraries for all elementary schools.

In planning new elementary school buildings, consideration is to be given to the need for rooms equipped for library service.

Nell E. Lain, Seventh Grade Teacher, Kansas City, Missouri—The evolution in the training and development of those actively engaged in teaching children has been paralleled by a corresponding change in boards of education. Unfortunately in both groups are found those who have not kept pace with the general course of such evolution; but as the present discussion deals directly with boards of education, it is unquestioned that

the advancement in this department has been retarded by members who have not attained their positions because of being especially fitted for that work. The idea that boards of education and teachers must be natural enemies in order to further the education of children is no longer believed to be essential; but to a marked degree, the two groups are joining forces to work more harmoniously toward the growth of the child. As a direct outcome of this changed attitude, those things that are conducive to the general welfare of teachers are being regarded as not only desirable but also necessary. Thus many provisions for the betterment of teachers which would formerly have been acclaimed as great privileges are so customary throughout the country that they would not be considered outstanding at the present time.

After due deliberation, the bonuses for additional professional training and the arrangements made for those who are absent from school because of sickness were selected as being especially favorable measures relative to the well-being of the teachers under the supervision of the Kansas City school board.

Any teacher of the Kansas City public school system who presents a transcript showing at least four semester hours of college work earned in summer school in a standard teachers college or university shall for the year immediately following receive \$100 in addition to the regular salary to which she is entitled. This \$100 takes care of a large part of the expense incurred in attaining this higher professional training—an opportunity which may be used each year although it is not compulsory annually. All teachers who have a degree are expected to secure four college credits within six years and those who do not have a degree must meet this requirement every four years. Due to this economic assistance many teachers have been able to prepare themselves for more effective work in the classroom and have reached a higher professional standing than would have been possible without such a provision.

Absence from school because of temporary illness is a source of great anxiety to one so afflicted, but the adjustments made by the Kansas City school board tends to relieve this strain. During the year, a teacher is permitted twenty days absence on account of personal sickness without loss or reduction of salary. Very often a few days devoted to improving a weakened physical condition will avoid an extended illness—an ounce of prevention which may be taken as the board's generous arrangement overcomes a hesitancy to be absent because of financial loss.

The majority of Kansas City teachers are highly appreciative of these two outstanding considerations for their physical and professional welfare and seek to use them wisely and well so that the Kansas City school board will be encouraged to adopt other such provisions as have been presented here this afternoon.

Lucy Brickhouse, Norfolk, Va.—Education is recognized as a necessity, educators are recognized as a means to an end; teachers are regarded as a necessary evil. At what point may a teacher become an educator?

"Line of defense" implies conflict. We wage a continual conflict with ignorance, and we fight for better things. But frequently the conflict becomes one with our boards of education. How often have benefits been conferred only after a long and hard struggle?

In Norfolk at present, we are fighting for sabbatical leave. So far, our efforts have not met with dazzling success, but next year we expect to take arms again against a sea of troubles.

A bill for tenure is now before the Virginia Legislature and by this time next year, we hope no teacher will fear a change of administration.

In Norfolk a raise in salaries is out of the question. The present scale was won only after a severe battle. The case had to be taken to the city council and the necessary appropriation was granted *if* the school board would ask for it. The Board finally capitulated. Our present scale gives men from \$200 to \$500 more than women because men are men—and the board consists of one woman and four men.

Cumulative sick leave is on the agenda for next year. The outcome is doubtful.

A tentative bill for revised pension is in the hands of state pension committee composed of the president of the state education association, one superintendent, one principal, one senior high school teacher, one junior high school teacher, and one elementary teacher. This bill will be presented at the next state legislature, and is not in the hands of school boards.

I wonder if the school board would be able to recognize the benefits that have been conferred.

Probably some day the board will see that we are fighting for and not against them.

Probably the solution lies in our hands. We are training the future boards.

I understand from your president that these reports were to be given for the purpose of comparison. After all, probably it is just as well that the boards have to be won. "The harder the conflict, the more glorious the victory, and that which men gain too easily they esteem too lightly."

Leona Coulter, Lewis and Clark High School, Spokane, Washington—Salaries and salary schedules are of vital importance, but an impartial, smooth-running system is almost unattainable, for, as every school board knows, pitfalls for the unwary are indeed many, when judgment in terms of dollars, is passed on teachers.

Spokane decided this question of salary in 1920, when, as one of the first cities in the United States to take such a stand, it adopted what is known as the single salary schedule. The plan takes into consideration two factors:

First, education or teaching preparation, and, second, teaching experience. It is based on the theory that all teaching is of equal value, that service rendered to the child of six is as valuable as that to the boy or girl of sixteen, and should be recognized in salary equivalent. Under this present system, all salaries of classroom teachers through the elementary, junior, and senior high schools, are computed on the same plan. A certain fixed sum is taken as a basis. To this is added one hundred fifty dollars for each year of preparation—normal or college—beyond graduation from a four year high school. The number of years for which salary credit may be obtained is limited to five. A summer session is counted as a fractional part of a year and paid for proportionally. In addition to the above sums, fifty dollars is allowed for each year of teaching experience up to a maximum of eleven years.

The plan is flexible. The basic amount and the sums given for education and experience are purely arbitrary, and may be changed at any time. Hence the plan can be adapted to any system and remain intrinsically the same.

In practice it achieves definite results. It serves as an incentive toward further education and provides an opportunity for it in increased salary. Hundreds of ambitious teachers avail themselves of this opportunity. It gives the teacher who prefers to work with small children the privilege of doing so without the sacrifice of salary which often accompanies such a choice. The round peg does not remain in the square hole.

It establishes more amicable relations among the teachers themselves. No one harbors a feeling of injustice or jealousy for there are no artificial barriers toward advancement. The maximum salary is the same for all and its attainment rests with the teacher herself. The resulting feeling of harmony and cooperation which permeates the teaching corps insensibly raises its morale and establishes a firm foundation for a solidarity and a professional unity greatly to be desired.

Gladys Evelyn Moorhead, Los Angeles, California—The superintendent's advisory committee of Los Angeles may not be technically the gift of our board of education, but that it actually owes its origin to them will appear. Six years ago upon the election of a board of education moderately progressive in its make-up and so acceptable to the teachers that many of them had cooperated in its election, a committee of fifteen duly elected high school and elementary teachers was formed. These spent some months in a study of possible changes in administrative procedure which might be effected by an informed and progressive board. The elimination of so-called star chamber sessions, the centralization of authority in the position of the superintendent and the use of teacher advisory councils were studied and duly suggested to the board.

The former two subjects were never even formally considered. The matter of advisory councils interested the board to the point of allowing

a group from our committee to interview them and be interviewed by them, and interested the local conservative newspaper to the point of repeated articles denouncing an attempt at communistic administrative procedure in the schools. As an outcome, the board reported the matter favorably to the superintendent of schools, and she in turn invited the formation of a superintendent's advisory committee, which has functioned for five years.

It is made up of thirty members elected for two-year terms, and each representing a definite constituency, as the teachers of a certain grade, the supervisors of subjects or certain groupings of special departments. Meetings are held monthly. The committee is designed to be the medium of communication between the superintendent and the teaching body, that either may approach the other through this committee in regard to problems meriting solution in the interests of all parties. The imperfections in the plan appear due to the fact that the representatives are not sufficiently in touch with their constituencies, do not indeed report back to them readily for their participation. This principle needs to be firmly established and its practice developed. The benefits have been certain effective accomplishments, such as the formulation of a report card, a very extensive program of work undertaken by a committee of fifteen on: International Cooperation to Promote World Peace and certain adjustments of practical administrative details affecting teachers and their every day work.

We do not feel that the advisory committee has become what we wished, but we do appreciate the existence of this machinery which will be able to serve us when our skill and initiative shall be turned to perfecting in action this committee. When the intelligence and knowledge of teachers can be directed through such advisory channels to the activity of educational administration, we shall have for the child a great new constructive force in education.

Annie Kate Taylor, President, Dallas Grade Teachers Council, Dallas, Texas—I bring greetings to you from the grade teachers council of Dallas, Texas, and wish to say on their behalf that we are still enjoying your delightful visit with us in February.

The subject of "Outstanding Benefits Conferred upon Teachers by Boards of Education," is a comparatively new idea to me, as I have thought for a long time in terms of the teachers conferring benefits on the board of education, through the service rendered in his particular field of endeavor. But times have changed and are changing rapidly in the educational world, as well as otherwise, and we welcome the idea of benefits being conferred from the other direction.

First, there have been in many sections of the country teacherages erected for the comfort and convenience of the teacher. Whatever touches the home conditions of the teacher, adds or subtracts from the sum total of his capacity for usefulness.

Second, in many sections of our great country, group insurance or sick

benefit organizations have been perfected, with the board of education contributing more or less to the financial upkeep. Also many wise far sighted boards of education are not only permitting teachers to have tenure and sabbatical leave, but have introduced the idea. Boards of education are seeing the wisdom of sending delegates to our great teachers' conventions in order that those delegates may catch a new vision and inspire others who are not privileged to attend.

There are many benefits now being conferred upon teachers of this rapidly progressing, forward marching age, but it occurs to me the greatest benefit conferred upon the teacher, as well as the nation at large, is that of giving him a contract to fill a position in the great army of educational soldiers; giving the teacher an opportunity to serve his country by training the youth of the land; giving him an opportunity to plant the seeds of Americanism, and the love and respect for other peoples of the world; giving him the privilege of implanting in the minds and hearts of the youth of our land those great American ideals for which our forefathers fought and won; teaching our boys and girls to "Love thy neighbor as thyself," and "Do unto others as we should be done by."

These, my friends, are the greatest benefits conferred upon teachers by our boards of education.

ECONOMIC WELFARE OF THE TEACHER

CARL E. CROSON, FORMER PRESIDENT OF THE SEATTLE SCHOOL BOARD,
SEATTLE, WASH.

We have long ago learned to think of teaching as a profession. A profession is that line of activity which is primarily interested in the results to be obtained, not for the one doing the work but for the one for whom the work is performed. A true professional teacher is, therefore, primarily interested in what she does for the development and life of her pupils. This being true, other interests are quite naturally given little consideration.

What has been said is just as applicable to other highly professional activities and we often hear it said that the professional man is not a good business man. It may readily be admitted that most professional people are not skilled in the ways and manner of business and give little thought to economic life.

In the teaching profession there are many who enter it with the avowed purpose of a life's work. They think it, feel it, and act it. These, as a rule, think little of their economic welfare. There are many others who drift into the profession or who come in by choice but with no intention that it shall be other than a temporary occupation. These latter classes are usually free and easy spenders. The net result is that all groups usually give little thought to their economic welfare and in many sections find that no one else has considered it for them.

On the one hand, we have a highly developed intellectual power which is in the habit of leading and directing. On the other is an ignorance of economic matters and ways and means of making gain. The two make a bad combination for pride, a false pride in fact, keeps the leading and directing mind from seeking help and following counsel and advice, thus making the teacher the easy victim of many ill-advised enterprises and the easy prey for unscrupulous stock salesmen and those who can make mica look like gold. Thus we find three conditions: First, the professional mind is not economically inclined; second, many times the economic welfare of the teacher is not looked after by others; and, third, the teacher is a comparatively easy victim of the ill-advised or unscrupulous promoter. The subject assigned for this discussion, is therefore, timely and well chosen.

At this point we might consider some of the things that the teacher brings to the market of society and for which she asks a compensation. Intellectual attainment is a compensation in itself to the individual, but when society makes use of that attainment society should be expected to compensate. Then there is length of service. Experience in this as well as other fields of activity is of value to that portion of society receiving the service. Patience in dealing with, concern for and interest in someone not your own have certain compensations to the individual but do not make a living, and if they are received and accepted by society as a whole entitle one to a fair return. And then there is that character forming side of the teacher's work. This cannot be definitely segregated, cannot be measured in dollars and cents, but let a teacher depart from the building side and begin to present ideas that destroy character and how quickly the community feels it.

We have now seen that by reason of the public use of her intellectual preparation, her experience, patience, concern, interest, and character building work, the teacher has brought something to the general public market and is entitled to a compensation.

To be fair it should be stated that the public is not unappreciative; the rest of the public is just as busily and honestly engaged as the teacher and until comparatively recently little real study has been given to a proper and just method of compensation. The compensation is usually a monetary consideration. That is now so universal that it may be accepted as the public's way of compensating. This, however, leaves open many questions. The amount is always a live issue. It varies in localities. It would seem that this could be overcome by the study of costs of living, arriving at the purchasing price of the dollar, taking into consideration, of course, the desirable and undesirable localities. One could not be expected to endure the hazards of a malaria stricken district with no greater compensation than that received in a locality of splendid living conditions.

Should the amount vary according to intellectual preparation? It would seem that this should be correct. How much variation is an open question.

Should the amount vary based on experience and length of service? This

variation is quite generally recognized and seems right. How much credit should be given for experience will in turn depend on whether the teacher has kept abreast with the profession while gaining experience and also whether the experience has been in one or many systems.

Should the amount vary solely by reason of the grade or subjectmatter taught? There has grown up this difference, but from the standpoint of clear reasoning it seems difficult to maintain. If a proper relation were established for preparation, experience and responsibility it would seem that this problem would disappear.

The first step, therefore, looking toward the economic welfare of the teacher is the receipt from the public of a proper and fair compensation for that which the teacher has to market. In determining this proper and fair compensation there will be contending forces. Human nature has not yet gotten to the place where self interest can be entirely eliminated. The teacher will seek the larger compensation. The public, through its chosen officials, will desire to pay just as little as necessary. Is it too much to ask or expect that these two elements will conscientiously and honestly work at the problem, and that they too will see to it that the great tax paying public are fully and frankly advised of all facts entering into the solution?

Now let us assume that the fair compensation is received. The remaining question in the economic welfare of the teacher is, how to use the compensation received. Many budget systems are devised and many have great merit, but these will not meet the requirements.

A careful survey will show that everyone concerned with his or her ultimate economic independence must make savings work while he sleeps. This means investments. Investments, generally speaking, fall into three classes—investment, speculation, and gamble.

Three questions should be asked about each investment: First. Is the principal safe? Second: Is the interest return adequate? Third: Is it convertible? If all of these questions can be answered in the affirmative the proposed investment is good. The qualities spoken of do not always appear in each transaction. To illustrate, let us take a Liberty Bond. The safety of principal would be rated high, the interest return low, and convertibility high. Now let us take a well selected real estate mortgage. The safety would be fair, the interest return fair and convertibility fair, with promotion oil stock, the safety low, interest return erratic, and convertibility low.

Let it be understood at this point that I am not opposed to promotion. Mines must be opened, wells drilled and industries developed. These are all legitimate speculation, but this class of investment belongs to him who can afford to lose and the average teacher is not in that class. Many are induced to gamble on the outcome of a patent, a mine, a well, or an industry, by the hope of great returns. These great returns seldom come and when they do are usually after a reorganization, which to a great extent changes the original plan and often eliminates the original investor.

On the other hand, too great a conservation does not give an adequate return. This is true of Liberty Bonds and savings accounts as a permanent investment. The problem for the teacher is to get as nearly as possible the first earning. By that I mean get as nearly as possible the full amount that legitimate enterprise can pay for the use of money. This is generally by means of well selected bonds and mortgages.

In passing mention should be made of life insurance. A well selected policy that will protect those dependent during dependency and will be paid to the insured when it has matured will be a splendid means of stabilizing the economic conditions for the average professional man. This like any other good thing must not be carried to the extreme: Life insurance is not primarily an investment. It is protection.

Finally, in every business there are departments, the buying, the selling, the credit, the shipping, and the legal. Each has its part to perform. The business man takes just as few chances as possible. Why should the individual not so organize himself? Seek advice from competent successful men with no axe to grind, no direct interest in the matter on which advice is given. This will insure an unbiased opinion. Mistakes will be made with even such help, but the great, said plight of the little being frittered away will become less and less frequent.

THE PROFESSIONAL WELFARE OF TEACHERS—ABSTRACT

FLORENCE HALE, STATE DIRECTOR OF RURAL EDUCATION, STATE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, AUGUSTA, ME.

There never has been a time when the professional opportunity and welfare of the classroom teacher has been more promising than today. We should all appreciate the significance of the fact that this year a classroom teacher is being nominated for the president of the National Education Association, the greatest honor in the greatest education association in the country. If elected, this will be the first real classroom teacher to be given this honor and even the nomination alone is very significant. I am not speaking of this matter at this time with any "political" intent, and like most National Education Association members I do not believe in building up a spirit of "class" groups in the National Education Association. However, the fact that a classroom teacher is to be considered for this honor should not pass without classroom teachers especially realizing that it is significant of the changed attitude toward their status and means increasing professional welfare.

For years it seemed to be an accepted idea that in order to secure professional recognition—promotion—that a teacher must leave the actual classroom and become a supervisor or a principal. It has been the bane of the superintendents' existence that as soon as a teacher become "outstanding" she would be lured out of this work she could do so well into some sort of administrative position, not only by financial gain but more especially because of the greater opportunity for professional respect and

honor. No greater blessing can come to the teaching profession and to the children of this country than to have the day arrive when the classroom teacher need not go out of her schoolroom and give up the actual teaching of children to secure honor and promotion. If the highest honors educationally can come to an able teacher going on with her regular work in an actual classroom, the whole teaching profession will be benefited and we shall see more teachers enamoured of the real job of teaching and anxious to study further to better fit themselves for the work most of us in our hearts really love better than any cold problem of executive position—the teaching of children to know and love the great and beautiful things of the world. This is the brightest day educationally that the teachers of the world have seen.

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

ANNA THOMPSON, KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI

To promote and maintain a continuity of policy is essential to the success of any organization. During this year your president has endeavored to correlate the work of the department with what has gone before.

For the past five years the efforts of this department have been centered largely upon improving conditions for the classroom teachers to the end that the teaching service of the nation may be improved, and the department has not by any means abandoned that policy. In our conferences we have continued to stress the desirability of fewer interruptions of classroom work, simplified rating systems, fair salary schedules, tenure of positions, actuarially safe retirement funds, sabbatical leave, and the reduction in the number of pupils to the teacher.

Second Yearbook—While continuing to stress all those things which pertain to the welfare of the classroom teacher, we have, this year, centered our attention chiefly upon the child under our care, and our yearbook is devoted to the rediscovery and exploration of youthland. The classroom teachers of America are endeavoring more and more to give the individual child opportunity for self direction for development of initiative.

Many teachers from every section were set to work securing first hand information on how right habits, right attitudes, ideals, and appreciations are developed. All classroom teachers know that these are important aspects of instruction, but so far little has been done toward measuring them. What method best builds right attitudes of cooperation with teacher and other pupils? What best instills tolerance? Perhaps we can as yet measure only information and skill, but we, at least, can make an intensive study of attitudes, ideals, habits, and appreciations, and how they may be developed.

The majority of classroom teachers are not trained in scientific research, and in a few cases the results of the committee work turned out to be a study of methods rather than a study of the child. Even so, your president conceives the yearbook to be for the growth and expression of the class-

room teacher, believes the material contained is very valuable, and feels that the teamwork developed when scores of classroom teachers all over the United States are contributing to cooperative studies of problems in their own field rivals that of the famous Macedonian phalanxes, and is one of the finest outcomes of the Department of Classroom Teachers. Your president takes great pride in her efficient chairmen, and in the personnel of the committees.

Acting upon a strong conviction that there has been too much centralization of the activities and responsibilities of the department in the executive committee, an attempt has been made to enlarge greatly the number who are actively participating in the work of the department* this year.

Speakers' Bureau—Considerable progress has been made by the department in securing recognition of classroom teachers. Four years ago when state associations were first requested to place a classroom teacher on the general program, seven of the forty-eight letters were answered, the second year nineteen answers came, last year twenty-nine replies were received, and this year thirty responded.

The tenor of those responses was that the state officers were not only glad, but sincerely anxious to secure classroom speakers who can talk effectively, and a favor, many said, would be conferred by listing a few outstanding classroom teachers whose ability had been demonstrated.

Reaction to the foregoing was the organization of a speakers' bureau of classroom teachers by having local organizations recommend speakers from their own membership.

The complete list was compiled and you will find this Speakers' Bureau on page 246 in the Second Yearbook.

Field trip—In carrying out the provision of the constitution which provides that regional conferences shall be held for the purposes of discussing and formulating educational policies, and in extending and educating the membership of this department, a field trip was made through the south covering sixteen states, and lasting nine weeks including the week at the Department of Superintendence meeting in Dallas.

The Kansas City school board generously granted permission for your president to be absent from her work at Northeast Senior High School without loss of salary during this trip.

Starting on January third the first stop was in Little Rock, Arkansas, where many schools were visited and two group conferences were held.

During my stay in New Orleans, I visited a number of schools and had contacts with several groups of teachers, many of whom evinced their willingness to cooperate in the work of the department by serving on committees and by functioning in other capacities.

Mobile's welcome was most cordial. A live conference of classroom teachers was organized there from which we expect great progress. The establishment of the Mobile school system antedates that of the state system. The schools of Mobile, county and city, are under one management. The same rules and regulations apply to the county and city alike,

the same salary schedule being employed, and the same supplies purchased for each.

Florida has the county unit system, controlled by a county school board of three members. The county superintendent is the executive secretary of the board and all cities are under the county board.

The type of teachers' organization known to us of the middle west and west where the social feature is prominently stressed was found in only a few cities of Florida. In a very few cases the large turnover of teachers prevented a general acquaintanceship among the teachers, and some difficulty was experienced in electing officers since the teachers did not know each other's capabilities well enough to make nominations. Then, too, we found the school term somewhat shorter and the salaries lower than in cities of approximate size in other sections of the United States.

Pensacola's superintendents, supervisors, and teachers extended a cordial welcome. A responsive group of teachers discussed classroom problems and organized a classroom unit. In Tallahassee another classroom unit was organized, and the affairs of the department were left in capable hands.

At West Palm Beach County teachers' meeting the opportunity was given to organize a unit of the department of classroom teachers at a luncheon conference.

Fort Lauderdale was also visited and a classroom organization was formed.

Dade County, Florida, including Miami and Miami Beach, has a superintendent who takes pride in the fact that every teacher in his county belongs to the National Education Association. In this friendly atmosphere, we believe the unit organized in Miami will flourish. The director of elementary instruction of Dade County showed the visitors through the schools of the county. We were much interested in the health program, and enjoyed a luncheon in a model school cafeteria in which no white bread, no white sugar, nor condiments were served.

At Orlando in Orange County, a conference was organized with the cooperation of the administrators.

Tampa has a live teachers' club. A committee welcomed me and took me on a tour of the schools and a live regional conference was held with leaders who had ideas and put them into practice.

At St. Petersburg, the supervising principal called all classroom teachers together for a conference, and a responsive group seemed much interested in the work. An opportunity was afforded to attend the opening reception of the new high school at Largo, an up-to-date building with all modern conveniences.

Jacksonville has an organized group, the president of which called a conference.

Savannah, Georgia, has a progressive superintendent, who, together with his assistants, extended every courtesy in arranging for a conference and in affording opportunity for visiting schools.

At Columbia, South Carolina, my visit occurred at the close of the first semester when all were exceedingly busy. Only building representatives attended the conference, but among this number there chanced to be several alert teachers aware of the significance and value of classroom organization.

The spirit of comaraderie existing between administrators and teachers was immediately apparent upon meeting the school people of Charlotte, North Carolina. Delightful hospitality from superintendent, assistants, club president, and teachers made a two days' stay in this city a real joy.

A conference was next organized in Greensboro, North Carolina.

The superintendent and teachers of the Charlottesville schools had made plans for every moment of my stay in that historic city. Visits to the schools, to the famous Virginia University, and to that shrine of democracy, Monticello, with a descendant of Thomas Jefferson and another teacher, were among the happy experiences of the day. Then came the organization of the conference, with wideawake leadership. This was followed by a reception planned by the principal of the McGuffey school, which afforded a chance to become better acquainted with the teaching corps and to enlist their cooperation in our department plans.

In Charleston, West Virginia, the next conference was held. We met with splendid cooperation from the superintendent and his assistants, and exceedingly capable officers for the conference were elected. A state classroom department has been organized in this state.

The superintendent of the Lexington, Kentucky schools was another administrator who had mapped out plans for my visit. His interest in his schools impelled him to wish visitors to explore that system from boiler room to attic. We heard beautiful spirituals in the colored high school, and saw good work everywhere. There is a strong classroom teachers' organization in Lexington, and our conference was well attended.

The conference organized at Chattanooga was felt by the teachers to be a progressive step, and letters from the chairman give assurance of hearty interest and cooperation in the new organization.

Notwithstanding the fact that Atlanta teachers were in the midst of a fight to prevent the reduction of their present salary schedule, and to retain their automatic salary increases, they took time to show a fine spirit of cooperation and a conference was organized with enthusiastic officers.

Birmingham school administrators took pride in exhibiting their fine new buildings, and the excellent work accomplished there. The officers elected at the conference seemed anxious to function effectively, and we have had efficient help on our yearbook from this city.

The teachers' association sponsored the conference held in Meridian. The superintendent and other administrators were present and contributed friendly suggestions and advice. Wholehearted cooperation was given, and teachers willingly accepted service on the various committees.

Contacts were had with the teachers in the junior high school in Shreveport, but no general conference was held there.

This opportunity is taken to express grateful appreciation for the cordial and delightful hospitality accorded the president of the department while on this lengthy and somewhat arduous field trip. She takes pride in the fact that not once in the nine weeks did she miss a train nor fail to appear at the appointed time and place for a conference.

Previous conferences—At the time of the Missouri State Teachers' Association a luncheon conference was held in Kansas City in conjunction with the state classroom department. Many noted educators were present, among whom were Augustus O. Thomas, Patty Hill, Uel Lamkin, Eugene Fair, C. H. Williams, and many others, who spoke on educational subjects and whose inspiration carried over into the business meeting which followed.

Summary of conferences—More than forty conferences were held by members of the executive committee during the year.

The department aims have been presented to many other groups apart from these conferences of classroom teachers. Executive committee members have appeared before the faculties of state teachers' colleges, federated clubs, and groups of administrators. The president of the department spoke before the Kansas City Elementary Principals' Club on the general program of the Missouri State Teachers' Association, and appeared before the St. Joseph Federation of Clubs in April to discuss the New Education Bill and other professional matters.

Purpose of conferences:

1. To discuss and formulate educational policies and programs for the general meetings of the department.
2. To carry into effect the policies and programs of this department.
3. To extend and educate the membership of the department.

Effecting the purpose—In carrying into effect these purposes, the current welfare, civic, professional and educational problems of classroom teachers have been discussed in these conferences, and the best means of solution have been sought. The membership of the department has undoubtedly been extended, since many teachers immediately joined and sent in National Education Association dues in order that they might function as officers in the newly organized conferences. Scores of teachers in the southeastern part of the United States are now serving on various committees who had previously had no contact whatever with the department. They are no longer onlookers, but are active participants in the work and responsibilities of the department.

We sincerely believe that organization and affiliation with the National Department of Classroom Teachers will mean better teaching conditions, higher salaries, and higher professional standards. The public is demanding a longer period of training and greater efficiency. It should ponder

over the cost of longer years of schooling, and pay adequate salaries for such training. The public needs education along this line, and organized teachers are in a better position than others to accord this information in sections of the country where teachers are notably underpaid.

Finances—The department is financed by an appropriation from the general fund of the National Education Association. Last year the sum allowed was \$7,500, and no increase was granted this year. We must perform all the functions of our department and publish a yearbook on the sum mentioned above. It is quite impossible to carry out the purpose of the constitution and to publish a yearbook that will adequately represent the department on this amount. The Second Yearbook has necessarily been curtailed on account of the small appropriation. This appropriation will have to be increased, or other means found to finance the department. As the department increases in membership and consequently in prestige, our yearbook and all our activities must keep pace with this growth. To attain to greater usefulness and higher efficiency, the department needs at least \$8,500, and this is the amount requested for carrying on the work of the department next year.

Budget requested for 1927-1928—

Midwinter Conference and Summer Convention.....	\$3,500.00
Regional Conferences.....	1,800.00
Part time for President.....	1,000.00
Stenographic help.....	700.00
Printing	800.00
Office expenses.....	300.00
Incidentals	400.00
	\$8,500.00

Had the Kansas City school board not been generous enough to grant the president of this department a nine weeks' leave of absence without loss of salary, the Second Yearbook would necessarily have been curtailed still further. The amount allowed on the budget for the part time for president did not need to be used for that purpose, and we hope that it may be applied toward the expense of publishing the Second Yearbook.

Department fee—The question of a departmental fee is an ever recurring one. Previous presidents have suggested that as salaries are equalized and increased, department dues might become advisable. The president of the department last year recommended that as speedily as possible the department move toward a departmental fee. Both the president and the secretary of the National Education Association have suggested this year that the time is ripe for such action.

In order to determine the wishes and opinions of the membership in regard to such a fee, the matter has been discussed freely in regional conferences, and a committee has been appointed to obtain information from local organizations and to present all phases of the subject for discussion and action at the business meeting in Seattle.

Recognition of the department—In recognition of the importance of the Department of Classroom Teachers, the president has been appointed a member of Committee No. 5, the Herman-Jordan Plan for International Understanding in the World Federation of Education Associations.

Midwinter meeting—The constitution requires that a conference of the officers, executive committee, advisory council, and other members of the department shall be held at the time and place of the Department of Superintendence.

This year our midwinter meeting was held at Dallas, and on account of the very fine spirit of cooperation shown by the Dallas and Fort Worth teachers we had most inspiring meetings. The attendance at the luncheon, 546, was by far the largest in the history of the department.

The conference at Dallas on March second was enlivened by the presence of several members of the advisory council from newly organized units in the southeastern part of the United States who were much interested in plans of organization.

Classroom executives from many organizations, and members representing widely-scattered organizations took an active part in the discussion of the problems and policies of the department.

Superintendent H. P. Harding, of Charlotte, North Carolina, discussed the "Classroom Teacher's Philosophy of Living," and many favorable comments were made on his sympathetic understanding of their problems.

Frederick L. Whitney, of the Colorado State Teachers' College, gave an able report on "Retardation Due to Class Size." We owe Dr. Whitney a debt of gratitude for investigating the relation between class size and retardation, and the comparative cost of large and small classes as modified by the amount of retardation traceable to class size.

Progress reports of officers and committees were freely discussed.

Conclusion—During this year the official family has been a bulwark of strength which has stood firmly by in time of stress and difficulty. We are handing over to our successors a large and powerful organization which is working harmoniously to advance the interests of classroom teachers, and to bring about professional improvement. We are all richer in contacts, richer in friendships, richer in understanding; and, because of this year's study, we believe we are better able to find our way to the hearts of America's childhood.

REPORT OF THE VICEPRESIDENT¹

MARY B. SULLIVAN, CASTLETON, VERMONT

During the year, most of the conferences held have been in Vermont, with one or two in the neighboring states of New Hampshire and New York.

¹ This report and those following include only those conferences held before April 15.

Montpelier, Vermont—The first conference of the year was held October 21, in Montpelier at the time of the Vermont State Teachers' Association convention. The purpose of this meeting was to arouse a deeper and more active interest in the National Education Association, and particularly to awaken an enthusiasm in what the Department of Classroom Teachers is doing. Julia E. Sullivan, of Boston, formerly president of this department, was the principal speaker, and brought a splendid message of achievement and inspiration. The vicepresident of the department then spoke, explaining the purpose of the department and some of the problems it has for consideration at the present time. There was an animated discussion from the floor which showed that those attending were eager to know more about the work of the department.

Castleton, Vermont—The work of the department was made known to a gathering of about two hundred fifty teachers, some of them prospective teachers, at a conference of the Southern Council of Primary Teachers. This was the first regional conference which these teachers attended and they were much interested. The chairman emphasized particularly the necessity for feeling the "bigness" of the job of the classroom teacher, and tried to arouse a professional consciousness. She also urged teachers to participate in school management, the making of curricula and the like when offered the opportunity.

It has been my privilege, because of being an instructor in a normal school, to come in close contact with many beginning teachers and those who are to be teachers, and to try and give them as they go out into their classrooms everywhere, a knowledge of what this organization stands for, what it is aiming to do, and also to help stimulate in them a professionalism from the beginning of their teaching career.

As chairman, I would like to make grateful acknowledgment to all who have worked with me on committees—collectively and individually—in planning and organizing the unit on primary work in the Second Year-book.

It has been a joy to have met, if not in reality, at least in spirit, the teachers of this country all united in promoting the welfare of the children in our schools.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

CLARA LYNN, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

To be a member of the executive committee of the Department of Classroom Teachers is an opportunity for growth. Contact with classroom teachers throughout the country and with administrators gives a broad viewpoint of our educational problems.

As I have met and talked with the teachers in regional conferences, I have found an increasing interest in better preparation, a large percent

taking extension work to secure a degree or strengthen themselves if they have a degree. All are vitally interested in the child.

Six conferences have been held during the year. The first one was at Bellingham, Washington, during the County Institute. As there had been no conferences here previously the teachers were very much interested in hearing about the work of the department. The younger teachers especially wished to have help in classroom problems and asked for bulletins along this line.

The next conference was held in Seattle during the convention of the State Teachers' Association at which a most interesting program was carried out. This was a joint meeting with the Washington Classroom Teachers' League. The topics discussed were the work of the League, the Inland Empire Classroom Organization, the teacher in service, teacher placement, single salary, a code of ethics for teachers, the Education Bill, and tax revision. Teachers from all parts of the state were present and two representatives from Portland.

During the session of the Oregon State Teachers' Association in Portland, at Christmas time, a conference was held. The teachers were vitally interested in certain problems at this time, and requested that the subjects for discussion be class size, retirement laws, and single salary. Oregon has a fine classroom organization, and is working out a progressive program.

On my way to Dallas I visited the Kansas City, Mo., schools. One of the schools visited was the Model School at Woodland. Mr. Buckles, the principal, gave us his time for the morning. The work observed was an inspiration, showing the finest kind of preparation on the teacher's part and interest on the pupil's side. After a splendid lunch in their cafeteria, Mr. Buckles and some of the teachers took their cars and gave us a delightful ride to Kumpf school, one of their platoon schools. I have never seen better work than was presented there. Kansas City may well be proud of her schools.

On my return trip from Dallas I held three conferences in California. The proverbial California spirit surely prevailed. In San Diego the schools were dismissed at 2:30 for our conference. At this meeting the first topic discussed was "Tenure." All the California cities are working to get a bill through the Legislature to secure tenure and sabbatical leave. Teacher load was one of the vital questions with this group. Your representative spoke on this subject, on the Education Bill, and the work of the department. A lively discussion arose over the subject of a departmental fee.

In Los Angeles, an informal conference with some of the teachers on the policies of the department was held. This was a most profitable hour. This was followed by a dinner conference in the Women's Athletic Club.

San Francisco teachers and administrative officers proved themselves

royal entertainers. One of the deputy superintendents took me to inspect one of their fine junior high schools, where I spent two hours in observing classroom work, of which any school might well be proud. At four o'clock I attended a regular meeting of the San Francisco Teachers' Association where tea was served, as is their regular custom. After listening to their program, your representative was asked to speak on the "Benefits of Organization." A dinner was given in the Stewart Hotel arranged by the cities of the Bay district. The officers of all the organizations of these cities and counties were present. Five minute talks were given on the work being carried out, followed by a discussion of the legislative work. The Education Bill was a topic which aroused much interest.

Californians have the true spirit of progress and might well be an example to other groups in their desire for and appreciation of the needs of "The Child and His Teacher." I do not feel that this report would be complete without saying that my superintendent, Thomas R. Cole, and the Seattle school board, have been most generous in granting me three week's leave of absence on full pay with a substitute, and other days when I needed them.

REPORT OF EASTERN EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEMBER

EDITH B. JOYNES, NORFOLK, VIRGINIA

The regional conferences which were held by the eastern representative convened at the time of the state teachers' association meeting in the various states or at the time of the district meetings. The plan at the state association was to organize a classroom teachers' department of the state having main objectives the same as the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association. The officers of the various state classroom departments are to act as an advisory committee with the executive committee of the Department of Classroom Teachers in planning for the yearbook, also in discussing objectives for the coming year.

Clarksburg, West Virginia, October 28-30—Gertrude Roberts, president of the West Virginia Education Association, arranged the program. The eastern member of the executive committee was given an opportunity on the general program to explain the purpose of the department, its method of operation, and stressed the teachers' responsibility in organization work, since improvement in teaching conditions will come more quickly by this means than by any other.

The second day of the meeting, a classroom teachers' department of the state was organized with about one thousand members. Your representative gave an address on "The Classroom Teacher and the Curriculum." Joseph Rosier, president of Fairmont State Normal School, also gave an address, the keynote being "The Future of Education Depends on the Classroom Teacher."

A general discussion followed—Shall the classroom teacher cooperate in research? The teachers discussed the topic freely from the floor and showed a willingness to participate in research as well as curriculum making. Many administrators were present and they were in hearty cooperation with the movement. The classroom teachers gave a luncheon and your representative was the main speaker. They were eager to learn about the work of the department, and they are now carrying on the work in their various roundtable groups that meet throughout the state during the year.

Roanoke, Virginia, November 25-28—The Department of Classroom Teachers met with the grammar grade department with over a thousand present. Miss Charl Williams of the National Education Association gave a most pleasing address on "Keeping Pace with the Times." Your own representative stressed membership, and benefits to be derived from the National Department of Classroom Teachers.

This is the second meeting of the Classroom Teachers' Department of the Virginia Education Association and a real demonstration was shown in their willingness to participate in the meeting. The three main topics: sabbatical leave, tenure, and retirement law, seemed to be of special interest.

Greenville, North Carolina, November 13—At the district meeting T. D. Martin, director of the Division of Records and Membership of the National Education Association, spoke on "What the National Education Association means to the Classroom Teacher." A classroom teachers' department of the district was not organized as the delegates wanted to discuss the question in the local groups.

Norfolk, Virginia, April 8—A conference of classroom teachers was arranged at the time of the district meeting. The towns represented were Newport News, Portsmouth, Norfolk, Suffolk, Gloucester, Franklin, Cape Charles, Princess Anne, and Norfolk County.

The teachers were interested in exchange of teachers and sabbatical leave. In the discussion of departmental dues they expressed the feeling that the time had not arrived for establishing a departmental fee because in this section membership in the National Education Association has just started, and the extra dues would have a tendency to check the enthusiasm.

Greenville, South Carolina, March 24-26—On the general program of the South Carolina Teachers' Association, which was in session for three days, your representative explained the work and purpose of the Department of Classroom Teachers.

Plans for organization of a classroom teachers' department were presented before the teachers in the different department groups of the state association. The object is to bring about a closer relationship between the state department and the National Department of Classroom Teachers.

Conferences are arranged to be held in Rocky Mount, N. C., Wilmington, Del., and Fredericksburg, Va., during the month of May.

Your executive member sees a closer cooperation between administrators and classroom teachers and the awakening of a classroom teacher consciousness, which will advance education in this department more rapidly in the next five years than ever before.

REPORT OF MIDDLE SECTION EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEMBER

EULA F. HUNTER, FORT WORTH, TEXAS

School practices of recent date show a marked tendency to place the greater emphasis upon the child to be taught rather than upon the subject-matter of instruction. Classroom teachers have demonstrated throughout the discussions in the regional conferences that it is through a scientific study of the child that they look toward the solution of many problems which will lead to improved conditions in the field of education.

Other subjects which I find being widely discussed, and which bear more directly upon the teacher and her relation to teaching as a profession, are the improvement of teachers' certificate laws, teacher tenure, retirement remuneration, sabbatical leave, the Education Bill, state aid for rural schools, single salary schedule, the improved qualifications of teachers, and the improvement of local organization work among teachers.

The teachers are deeply appreciative of the work of the Department of Classroom Teachers and the opportunities which the organization affords teachers for cooperating in the task of meeting the local needs of education, and in the greater task of making possible a systematic study of problems which are nation-wide in their scope and upon which the building of a profession among teachers so much depends.

My first aim in conferences among new groups of teachers is to acquaint them with the Department of Classroom Teachers, its plan of organization, and its work.

In Texas I have met with teachers of Fort Worth, Dallas, Houston, with the rural teachers of the twenty-four "Panhandle Counties" in joint institute at Canyon City, and with the Stevens County teachers at Breckenridge.

In Pueblo, Colo., a conference was held at which we completed plans for the organization of a department of classroom teachers within the Colorado Education Association, to correspond with the Department of Classroom Teachers in the National Education Association. Alma Krusen of Denver was elected president of the new organization.

Conferences were held during the spring months at two of the division meetings of the Texas State Teachers Association, and with the Oklahoma teachers at Tulsa.

*REPORT OF WESTERN SECTION EXECUTIVE
COMMITTEE MEMBER*

JEAN L. SOULES, SPOKANE, WASHINGTON

The Spokane school board, as in the two years preceding this, granted me a three weeks' leave of absence to attend the meeting of the Department of Superintendence. The great distance to be traveled in reaching Dallas and returning left little time for meetings along the way. However, I have had a few opportunities to present the program of the department.

In November I met a group of Spokane teachers consisting of representatives from the various grade schools. I talked on the Education Bill, urging them to see that all teachers in the city were informed on the subject. I presented it to two parent-teacher associations also.

I spoke to the general assembly of the Oregon State Teachers Association and the classroom teachers' department of that organization at the annual meeting held in Portland in December.

I found it impossible to accept an invitation to speak to the Idaho classroom teachers at the time of their state association meeting, as the dates were the same as those for Oregon. But on my way to Dallas, I spent a day in Boise, holding a small, informal conference in the morning, and speaking to a larger number at a delightful luncheon, at which six towns beside Boise were represented. The geographic conditions in Idaho make it difficult for teachers of one part of the state to meet with those in other parts. This lack of acquaintanceship is a hindrance, but with an increase in the number of those who realize the value of classroom teacher organization, and with a growing understanding on the part of school administrators of the steadily mounting professional spirit of classroom teachers, progress is sure to result.

The State Teachers College of Kearney, Nebraska, has a student unit of the National Education Association. This is, I believe, the only one in existence. I had the pleasure of seeing this organization at work, as I spoke at their regular monthly meeting, February 21st. I learned that their programs include a study of the special reports issued by the National Education Association and that a debate on the Education Bill is to take place at the March meeting. If we could get teachers in all organized groups to debate the Education Bill, the resulting knowledge of the subject would go far toward securing its enactment.

I addressed the teachers of the Kearney schools in a meeting held after school, the afternoon of February 22nd.

My next stop was at Omaha, where I had two opportunities to meet with the Omaha School Forum. Here, as in the case of Boise and Kearney, I found the superintendent's office most courteous and cooperative. A classroom teacher, who is vice-president of the Forum, was re-

leased for the afternoon to be with me and to accompany me to the meeting where I spoke to three hundred teachers. Following this meeting, a charming dinner was given attended by two hundred. Here the talk was more informal and called forth discussion and questions.

A brief stop in Kansas City was delightfully spent with two teachers whom I had previously met through the work of this department. It was a pleasant surprise to be met at the train and delightfully entertained, though I had not announced my coming. It seems that one valuable by-product of the activities of this department is the fabric of friendship that is being woven. Its warp and woof of earnest purpose runs north and south and east and west, and woven in and out to make a beautiful pattern runs a golden thread of friendship.

One of the best things accomplished in the western section this year has been the formation of the Association of Classroom Teachers of the Pacific Northwest. A preliminary organization was effected in Spokane last April and a constitution is now ready to present for adoption at the meeting this spring. It is hoped that the organization will be instrumental in stimulating classroom teacher organizations and will serve as a clearinghouse for problems affecting classroom teachers in the states concerned.

The Washington Education Association, at its annual business session last October, amended its constitution to permit the formation of student units in teacher-training institutions. An effort will be made to visit each normal school in the state before the end of the present school year, in an attempt to stimulate such organization. One visit for this purpose has already been arranged.

The special work assigned to me was the study of Retardation Due to Overcrowding in Primary Classes. Our first task was to learn, if possible, to what extent retardation is due to overcrowding. Our investigation in this field is being carried on under the direction of Frederick L. Whitney, Director of Research of Colorado State Teachers College at Greeley, Colorado. A progress report is presented by Dr. Whitney on pages 163-179 of this yearbook.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON A DEPARTMENTAL FEE FOR THE DEPARTMENT

CORNELIA S. ADAIR, RICHMOND, VIRGINIA, CHAIRMAN

Your Committee on Departmental Fee was selected by the president in response to the request made at the last summer's meeting. She appointed twenty people from different sections of the country and they began their work in the latter part of December of last year.

We sent out 350 questionnaires to the classroom teacher organizations affiliated with the National Association, and 104 organizations responded.

The majority of the organizations that answered either felt that there should be no fee, or that the time was not ripe for financing such a fee. Various reasons were given both for and against the question.

The committee met in Seattle on Wednesday, July 6th, to discuss the replies to the questionnaire, and to formulate their report. As a number of the members of the committee were unable to attend, others representing different sections of the country were asked to meet with the committee. After a full and free discussion it was decided to present to the department at this meeting for its adoption the following recommendations:

First, that for the present the department should not require an additional fee for membership.

This was the reason: The Department of Classroom Teachers organized on its present basis is comparatively young. You have heard the reports of its officers and know of the wonderful field work they are doing. It is comparatively easy to reach the organized groups such as many of you represent, but there are thousands of teachers throughout the country who have not had the privilege of coming in contact with the National Education Association, or with any of your officials or anyone who would talk to them about the work of the National Education Association and the benefits both to them professionally and to the National Education Association that would accrue by joining the Association.

The committee felt that for the present it was wise to let the fee for the National Association serve for this department. Others felt that because at least 75 percent of the membership of the National Association was classroom teachers that we should ask the parent organization to finance us from the dues paid by classroom teachers.

There were a number of suggestions made along that line. Some felt that it would be wiser if we wish to have additional funds to raise the dues of the entire Association with appropriation to the various departments of the money that would come in that way. For instance, the dues might be raised to \$3.00; and \$1.00 appropriated to the Department.

We considered the resolution that was passed here in the Northwest and found that if we took the income of the Association, aside from the dollar that was apportioned to the JOURNAL that there was approximately \$140,000 in dues. Estimating a part of the expenses of the division at headquarters that has to do with classroom teachers, and taking the \$7,500 as apportioned in the budget, we find that we lacked about \$400 from having ten percent of the \$140,000.

That brings me to the second recommendation: That the Department have a financial committee appointed to go into the whole question of appropriations and to decide with a view to establishing a standard by which we should be guided in making requests of the budget committee of the National Association. The amount requested might be a certain percentage of the income from classroom teacher dues, or it might be arranged in

some other way. The membership in the Department of Classroom Teachers is increasing very rapidly. It seems to the committee that it might be well to establish some principle that should govern our appropriation from the executive committee, or, from the parent organization.

In order that the budget committee might feel more kindly toward our request for funds, or toward an increase in our funds, we suggest this same finance committee, or another committee from the Department prepare a budget for the classroom department for submission to the executive committee of the National Education Association when we ask for our appropriation.

The committee feels that if we should adopt these recommendations that we would be establishing a financial policy for the Association. We would not be cutting ourselves off from some future decision in regard to the financing of a departmental fee, but we would be on our way toward a sound financial policy for the Association.

The three recommendations were voted upon and adopted.

NOTE—Other committee reports presented at the Seattle meeting will be found in the Second Yearbook of the Department of Classroom Teachers, published by the National Education Association.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, Tuesday Afternoon, July 5, 1927

The first session of the Department of Classroom Teachers was held in the auditorium of the First Methodist Church, Seattle, Washington, on Tuesday afternoon, July 5, 1927. The meeting was called to order by the president. The following program was presented:

MUSIC—Garfield High School Ensemble

GREETINGS

Mrs. Bertha K. Landes, Mayor of Seattle

GREETINGS

Edith Post, President, High School Teachers League, Seattle, Wash.

THE SOCIAL ASPECT OF TEACHERS

Augustus O. Thomas, President, World Federation of Education Associations, Augusta, Me.

THE OUTSTANDING BENEFITS CONFERRED UPON TEACHERS BY OUR BOARDS OF EDUCATION

Maude Compton, Omaha

Viola S. Kelley, San Francisco

Anise Slattery, Chicago

Estelle Bogges, Denver

Mamie Stoecker, Seattle

Nell Lain, Kansas City, Mo.

Lucy Brickhouse, Norfolk

Leona Coulter, Spokane

Gladys E. Moorhead, Los Angeles

Annie Kate Taylor, Dallas

THE ECONOMIC WELFARE OF TEACHERS

Carl Croson, Attorney at Law and Former Member of Seattle Board of Education, Seattle, Wash.

THE PROFESSIONAL WELFARE OF TEACHERS

Florence Hale, State Agent for Rural Education, Augusta, Me.

Second Session, Thursday Afternoon, July 7, 1927

Business meeting—The meeting was called to order by the president, Anna M. Thompson. The President asked for corrections of the minutes of the last meeting. No corrections were offered and a motion for their adoption was carried.

The vice-president, Mary B. Sullivan of Castleton, Vt., presented her report of the year's work. The report appears on pages 206-207 of the *Second Yearbook*. The report was adopted.

Clara Lynn of Seattle, Wash., secretary of the Department, gave her report which is found on pages 207-209 of the *Second Yearbook*. The report was adopted.

Edith B. Joynes of Norfolk, Va., member of the executive committee from the eastern section, presented her report. She called attention to the renewal of classroom consciousness in the southeastern section of the United States. The classroom teachers in the south did not receive very much recognition two years ago. Lately, this view has changed. She spoke of the certification laws in Virginia. Some teachers are required to go to summer school every year in order to renew their certificates. This year, the supervisor of certification, in compliance with Mrs. Joynes' request, allowed those who desired to attend the National Education Association convention to substitute this attendance for a term at summer school. Her report will be found on pages 210-211 of the *Second Yearbook*. On motion of Mrs. Joynes the report was adopted.

Eula F. Hunter of Fort Worth, Texas, member of the executive committee from the middle section, gave her report, which is found on page 212 of the *Second Yearbook*. On motion of Miss Hunter the report was adopted.

Jean L. Soules of Spokane, Wash., member of the executive committee from the western section, presented her report, which appears on pages 213-214 of the *Second Yearbook*. On motion of Miss Soules the report was adopted.

Anna M. Thompson of Kansas City, Mo., president of the Department, presented her report which appears on pages 195-206 of the *Second Yearbook*. This year the work has centered on the child under our care—the re-discovery of youthland. The Department is financed by an appropriation from the general fund of the National Education Association and last year and this year, the sum appropriated for the Department was \$7500. This will need to be increased or other means of financial support solicited. The question of a department fee is an ever-recurring one. The time, the president and secretary of the National Education Association believe, is ripe for such action. A committee was appointed by the President to handle this matter. Miss Thompson then presented the following suggestions instead of making recommendations:

1. That the six officers of this Department be elected from the six different sections of the United States.
2. That the work in the Dakotas, Montana and adjacent territory be stressed this year. The work there has not progressed very rapidly.
3. Bring the aims of the Department to the notice of the teachers.
4. Secure reciprocal relations between the different states for the certification laws.
5. Make use of the advisory council.
6. That the standards, requirements, and credits for teachers in service be made a subject for further investigation by this Department.
7. Require state associations to include a classroom teacher on their programs.
8. Retain present plan of local associations to choose their delegates.

On motion of Miss Thompson the report was adopted.

Ethel Gardner of Milwaukee, Wis., chairman of the committee on organization presented her report to be found on pages 219-220 of the *Second Yearbook*. She

called attention to the work that the Department is doing not only to stimulate membership in the National Education Association, but how they have aroused the desire for organization in the hearts of the teachers who have not known it before. Miss Gardner moved that the report be adopted and that the committee be continued. Motion carried.

Cornelia Adair of Richmond, Va., chairman of the committee on a departmental fee, presented her report. The recommendation was made by the committee that for the present the Department should not require an additional fee for membership. It was felt that as long as 75 percent of the members of the National Education Association were classroom teachers, that we should continue to have the parent organization finance us. It was suggested that the dues for the entire Association be raised instead of having a separate fee for this Department. Another recommendation was made that the Department have a financial committee appointed to study the whole question of the appropriation and to decide with a view to establishing a budget committee of the National Education Association. On motion of Miss Adair the report was adopted.

Edith Post, chairman of the committee of division of teachers into sections, presented a recommendation to have a separate sectional meeting of the teachers of secondary education. At Dallas, it was suggested by the high school teachers that they form a separate department in the National Education Association but a compromise was reached to have a separate sectional meeting and not to divide the Department of Classroom Teachers. A committee of nine was appointed by Miss Thompson to confer on this matter and determine what recommendations could be made.

The motion made by this committee was as follows: Recognizing that the teachers of the elementary schools and those of the secondary schools have certain interests and problems which are not identical, it is hereby moved that the Department of Classroom Teachers be divided into two groups for section meetings, it being understood that the two groups shall function as one department for the business and social meetings.

A question was raised about the officers of the meeting, whether they would have to have two separate sets of officers. The president suggested that the president could preside over one meeting and the vice-president over the other. It was again suggested that this might weaken the department if there was a division. The high school teachers should stay with the group for the present time at least.

An elementary school teacher stated that the tendency of the public schools at the present time is to divide and divide. Kindergarten, special subjects, junior high school, elementary, and senior high school teachers want their own special section. Their particular problems should be discussed at home and they should come together once a year for the big general problems of classroom teachers.

Miss Harden asked whether the motion proposed by Miss Post meant that the two departments would be separate. Miss Thompson replied that the high school teachers felt that they did not have enough contact with the other high school teachers and that they only wanted a sectional meeting to get together with those interested in their branch of work and did not wish to withdraw from the department.

Mr. Caldwell of Dallas, Texas, stated that the meeting of the National Education Association should make for solidarity. He said that he was in favor of a sectional meeting for the high school teachers. Particular problems should be discussed in the schools. Teachers' problems are the coming subject and within the next few years we will realize the great need for solidarity.

Charles E. Scott of Portland, Oregon, stated that he was in favor of three meetings, one general, one sectional and one business.

It was questioned whether the constitution would allow more than two meetings.

Miss Harden read from the Bylaws of the National Education Association Constitution, Section 4, Article 5, which stated that three meetings are all right if approved by the president of the department.

Miss Adair stated that she was in favor of the sectional meetings.

Miss Powell of Chicago, stated that the two groups should stay together another year at least. Inasmuch as the president of the National Education Association for next year will probably be one from our ranks, we should not split.

Mr. Richardson of Minneapolis, moved that this matter be laid aside for consideration until the next meeting and that the President of this Department be authorized to appoint a committee to further consider this matter with the new President. A member stated that the motion was out of order inasmuch as another motion was before the house.

Mr. Milliken of Seattle stated that this movement was to hold and encourage membership of high school teachers and it was not a movement of secession.

Mr. Richardson moved that the motion before the house be tabled. Motion failed to carry.

Miss Yoder of Omaha stated that this matter should be left to the discretion of the officers of 1928 and suggested that the request of the high school teachers be granted and keep the organization as one.

President Thompson then read the resolution as proposed by Miss Post and her committee. It was placed before the house and the motion was lost.

Miss Harden of Chicago moved that the President of the Association be authorized to appoint a committee to which various questions of this type can be brought. Motion carried.

Miss Harden, chairman of the Resolutions Committee, presented the following report:

The Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association, in its official capacity, represents hundreds of thousands of classroom teachers. Their welfare and that of the children entrusted to their care should be its chief concern.

In order that this department may function in a way to insure the best results, it should have a forward looking, constructive program extending over a period of years. This program should take under consideration all problems vital to teachers and the schools.

Many elements enter into classroom teachers' problems, some very apparent and others, though intangible, have a powerful influence for good or evil upon the lives of the teachers and through the teachers upon the children. A teacher who feels she is receiving just and fair treatment, who is happy and contented, is not only a better teacher but brings happiness into the lives of her children.

We believe the achievement of the following program worthy of the consideration of the Department of Classroom Teachers:

1. That as growth, both of the individual and of the group, follows close upon the heels of responsibility, we believe a much greater responsibility should be given, not to a small picked group, but to all teachers through a system of officially recognized advisory councils.
2. That all study of the question of salaries should be upon the basis of training and experience, not upon that of sex, rating or teaching positions.
3. That as the National Education Association now has committees studying the subjects of tenure and pensions, this Department should make a careful study of these reports and from them prepare recommendations for further study.
4. That classroom teachers should investigate the policies and programs of their superintendents with the idea of lending their full support when these policies embody the highest aims of education.
5. Since teacher rating is a channel through which much injustice is done and

efficiency thereby lowered, that in all cases where a teacher is rated by an administrative officer, the teacher shall have the opportunity for reciprocal rating.

6. That the classroom teachers affirm their belief in the principle of properly safeguarded tenure for both teachers and administrators, provided they have satisfactorily passed a period of probation.

7. That the time has come when the recognition of teaching as a profession demands that teachers shall have a national code of ethics with the necessary machinery for establishing and maintaining this code.

8. That there should be established a national board of examiners which would hold examinations at convenient times and places and issue to successful candidates certificates entitling them to register without further examination for teaching service in any state in the Union.

9. That in the interest of autonomy the officers of the Department should be held responsible for carrying out most effectively the policies and projects decided upon by the members of the Department.

10. That investigations requested by the Department of Classroom Teachers should be carried on through the Research Division of the National Education Association under the direction of the Department of Classroom Teachers.

11. That an accurate record be kept of all transactions of the board of trustees and executive committee of the National Education Association and that a copy of these transactions be sent immediately following these meetings to the president of each department of the National Education Association.

The Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association wishes to express its deep appreciation to the teachers and other citizens of Seattle and the State of Washington for the many courtesies extended during the convention. Never before in the history of the organization has a more beautiful greeting been conveyed to the visitors than that expressed in the wealth of blossoms which have been showered upon us. We realize the tremendous amount of time and labor spent in order that our stay in Seattle might be made happy.

We wish to thank the children for their delightful contributions to the pleasure of our week in Seattle. Their happy spirit of cooperation is a high tribute to its public school system.

Signed by the committee:

FRANCES E. HARDEN, Chairman
ES. ELLE BOGGES

ETHEL M. GARDNER
VIOLA S. KELLEY

ANNIE KATE TAYLOR

The president then announced the election of officers for next year. The Committee on Elections was Nannie Thompson of Richmond, Va., Amanda Kennedy of Kansas City, Mo., and Catherine Baird of Chicago.

Jean L. Soules of Spokane, Wash., was nominated by Miss Spooner of Portland, Ore., and the nomination was seconded by Annie Kate Taylor of Dallas, Texas. Miss Soules was elected president.

Nominations for vice-president were as follows: Mary B. Sullivan, of Castleton, Vt.; Mary Harrington of Denver, Colo.; and R. Ross Smith of Chicago. Mr. Smith was elected vice-president.

Nominations for secretary were as follows: Maude Compton of Omaha, Nebr.; Jane Davis of Tampa, Fla.; and Charles E. Scott of Portland, Ore. Mr. Scott was elected secretary.

Nomination for the member of the executive committee for the western section was made by Mrs. Viola S. Kelley of San Francisco, who nominated Miriam D. Eisner of San Francisco. Miss Eisner was elected.

Meeting adjourned at 5:00 P.M.

The Department of Deans of Women

THE DEPARTMENT OF DEANS OF WOMEN (National Association of Deans of Women) associated itself with the National Education Association in 1918. Its meeting is first reported in *Proceedings*, 1918: 391-417.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Dorothy Stimson, Dean of Women, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.; *First Vicepresident*, Margaret S. Morriss, Dean of Women, Women's College, Brown University, Providence, R. I.; *Second Vicepresident*, Florence Purington, Dean, Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.; *Secretary*, Elizabeth M. Hause, Dean of Girls, High School, West Chester, Pa.; *Treasurer*, Estella G. Hefley, Dean, Texas State College for Women, Denton, Texas; *Headquarters Secretary*, Gwladys W. Jones, 1634 I St. N. W., Washington, D. C.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and records of its meetings will be found in earlier *Proceedings*, as follows:

1918:391-417	1920:357-364	1922:693-793	1924:500-536	1926:423-457
1919:393-426	1921:407-420	1923:621-636	1925:403-449	

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

DOROTHY STIMSON, DEAN, GOUCHER COLLEGE, BALTIMORE, MD.

Two years ago Miss Wells in her president's report listed eight needs of the Association which I am taking the liberty of repeating to you in somewhat summarized form:

1. A larger budget
2. A central office
3. An executive secretary
4. A monthly bulletin
5. A standardized program for a dean's training course
6. An avenue through which the theses on the dean's work by graduate students in various institutions might be made available
7. An up-to-date textbook on our four-fold field
8. A collection of case records

Thanks to the generosity of Mrs. Phillips, Miss Arnold, and Mother M. Ignatius, with slight modifications the first four of these needs are at least partially met. We have an office in the American Association of University Women headquarters in Washington on the most favorable terms, we have a paid though only part-time headquarters secretary, and we have carried out for the past four or five months the plan of issuing a bulletin or some printed matter to the paid-up membership once every six weeks. We could do still better had we that larger budget of which Miss Wells spoke even though we have doubled our annual income in this short time. As for the other four points: some of our number are working on textbooks, and the research committee is dealing with the assembling of case records; our headquarters secretary wishes to assemble in our office all publications dealing with the deans' work and has already started a collection. So far as I know the standardized program for the dean's course is the only one of these points not as yet at least being developed by the national organization.

Such a record of achievement by the untiring efforts of the various committees concerned gives great promise for the future of our Association. When the mantle of the presidency fell so unexpectedly on my shoulders a year ago after Miss Purington's resignation had been regretfully accepted, I had had very little contact with the organization of the association and the problems it entailed. As I tried to carry on the work my predecessors had undertaken, the more I studied the organization, its achievements and potentialities, the more impressed I was by the wealth of service and ability to be found in the membership and the fine *esprit de corps* that fired the whole Association, nursed and developed by its previous leaders.

This year our task has been to conserve that fine spirit of devoted volunteer work and at the same time to relieve these workers of some of the drudgery developed by sheer increase in numbers. This meant building

up a simple but adequate machinery to carry the business of the Association and take over some of the routine detail so as to free the committees in their service from work that a paid official might more readily handle. The reorganization is not yet complete and our constitutional amendments are just a part of this re-working of our framework. In the process we have only begun to use the potentialities of our headquarters under the enthusiastic and intelligent guidance of our headquarters secretary, Miss Gwladys Jones. In the years to come our central office should not only take over these business details but should develop into an exchange for all kinds of information from members' new addresses to possible openings in the profession. More and more it should become a repository for the results of questionnaires and for all printed matter bearing on our profession. Its possibilities are limited only by the funds available for its support. Furthermore the executive committee empowered our first vice-president this year to work in special cooperation with our state and local subdivisions. We hope thereby to increase the effectiveness of our service, each to the other, without unduly complicating our machinery.

Apart from this matter of organization with its related questions, our most important problem today as I see it is the future of our profession as such. Has not the time come for us to be "class conscious" in a sense and for the sake of adequate work for our young people, to set standards for the deanship in training, in variety and quantity of duties, in the importance and recognition of the position? We have a responsibility to ourselves and to our profession as well as to our students. They cannot receive our best if our offices have inadequate clerical assistance, if we are fagged out by too heavy teaching schedules and too many routine details that a good assistant should carry. Furthermore, giving a woman the title of dean does not necessarily make of her a dean of women or of girls. Is there not some definite training needed? Do we ourselves always appreciate the type of position we occupy as compared with our neighbor—for example the difference in duties and responsibility between the dean of women and the dean of a woman's college? Possible answers to such questions as these I hope may be suggested in the discussions in some of our meetings here this week, and I hope that these subjects will be further studied both by the national association and by its subdivisions. Unless we can answer such questions clearly ourselves how can we expect full understanding and cooperation either from our associates in the educational world or from the general public?

Then too, were we more "class conscious" I believe we would make the time to study our own work more and publish an article or two on it from time to time. Surely an organization as large as ours should be able to find in its work the material for at least six or eight articles by its members every year.

Related to this main problem is that of our annual meeting as to its time, place, program and financing. The experience of only a few months

leads me to believe we are strong enough to be independent if we wish, and valuable enough to others in our discussions to be deliberate in our choice of associates in conference. The presence of Miss Trilling on our program tomorrow is an instance of the cooperation given us. She is able to come through the generosity of the National Society of Physical Directors for Women and through that of the director of physical education at the University of Texas. Such cooperation thus generously expressed is but a hint, I believe, of the opportunities open to us. Perhaps our annual meetings should develop into institutes dealing with some one specific theme with fewer general sessions. What would you think of a conference on the training requisite for a dean and a study of the content of her academic preparation?

Our present problems then are these:

1. To develop our machinery to cope with our increased membership and yet conserve the fine spirit of volunteer work. (This should include an effective financial program.)
2. To develop the sense of our professional standing by a study of the deanship in all its phases and relationships.

Before I close I wish thus publicly to express my great appreciation of the loyal and hearty support and help given my administration this past year by the officers and committees without exception. It has been a privilege and a joy to be associated with them. As heartily and as publicly I wish to thank our speakers at this session, some of whom have travelled from far to reach us at a considerable sacrifice of valuable time and energy. May they feel well repaid in the pleasure and profit their coming has given us all. And we all owe a great debt of gratitude to our local committees and our hostess organizations for all they have done and are doing for our comfort and happiness.

A PROGRESS REPORT ON "A PERSONNEL STUDY OF THE WORK OF WOMEN DEANS IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES"

SARAH M. STURTEVANT, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS
COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

A growing interest has been manifested in the past few years in the relatively new profession of dean of women. Many questions are being asked regarding the status and function of such a woman dean. Presidents seeking deans and women looking toward the work of dean have been equally concerned to know more about the profession in terms of its duties, the qualifications and vocational histories of those now serving as deans, and the opportunities for professional expression in the field.

So far there has been little factual basis for answer to such questions, and each person addressed upon the subject has been forced to answer in terms of personal experience and of more or less limited observation.

It became evident that a study of the work of women deans would be valuable, first to those who are contemplating the work of dean as their vocation. Aspirants in this field would be helped by knowing the amount and kind of academic training that is expected of deans, the kinds of previous experience they have had, the extent to which educational institutions have created this position, its duties, and the range of salary which deans receive.

In the second place, it would be useful to those who are giving professional courses for advisers of women. This smaller group must know what are the problems and activities of deans in various types of educational institutions, so that in the light of their needs a curriculum for advisers of women may be built.

Third, it was certain that the deans themselves would be interested in an analysis of the job as such. They are asking if it is possible to draw any composite picture of the function of the dean of women. The group which has contributed the data for this study is naturally interested in what other deans are doing. By comparing her status with that of other deans in similar situations, modifications of a dean's own activities suggest themselves. Is her salary below the median of her group? Is her professional training less than that of others? Is she required to carry a heavier teaching load than the majority of deans? Is her efficiency in administrative and personnel duties therefore limited? These and other questions suggest an analysis of herself and her situation, and a reevaluation of her activities.

With a view then to answering some of these questions as far as they can be answered by looking into what now is and what can be objectively measured, a personnel study of the work of women deans in colleges and universities was undertaken by Miss Jane Jones, candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Teachers College, Columbia University. The aims of the study as stated are: first, "to present certain facts about women performing the function of dean in colleges and universities at present and to analyze their work; second, to make certain suggestions after consideration of these facts for the vocational guidance of deans and for the curricula of professional courses for deans." To this investigation the deans of women at present in the field have contributed most generously of time and interest, so that the percentage of returns from questionnaires has been unusually large, and the data unusually complete as far as the items asked for were concerned and were measurable.

The group selected for study was the group of 503 liberal arts colleges and universities which are attended by women in the United States. Those institutions cooperating were divided into three sections:

Group I: Colleges and universities approved by the Association of American Universities. Of these 84 are coeducational, 17 are women's independent colleges, 6 are women's allied colleges. There are 107 cases.

Group II: Colleges and universities not approved by the Association of American Universities but accredited by some local accrediting agency such as The Association of Colleges of the Middle States and Maryland, or the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. There are 82 cases in this group.

Group III: Non-accredited colleges—74 cases.

The method of study was, first, the questionnaire, which in spite of its very decided limitations was deemed the best available means of extensive survey. The fact of splendid cooperation on the part of the deans themselves minimized greatly the usual difficulties. The questionnaire method was supplemented by interviews from one-half to an hour and a half long with 28 deans representing various types of colleges and universities from different parts of the country and of varying sizes. In addition time studies were made of the work of two deans over a period of two weeks.

The scope of the investigation was necessarily limited to measurable objective data on such topics as: (1) How many women are now performing the function of dean in colleges and universities in this country? (2) What titles do they hold? (3) What has been their academic training? (4) Do they teach? (5) How heavy a teaching load do they carry? (6) From what experience do they come into the work of dean? (7) What salary do they receive?

Qualities of personality which so far seem to be immeasurable such as charm or tact, or results of work which can only be read in the history of years, could not, of course, come into such a study, though most would agree that such qualities and such results of work done are none the less significant.

The findings of this study constitute the subjectmatter of a thesis soon to be published. They are too extensive to be given here but they give certain indications of the work of a woman dean as a vocational opportunity and as an educational service which might be phrased as follows:

I. From a vocational angle it seems clear that for those seeking a place in this field a bachelor's degree will be "almost an essential requirement for a deanship" in any college, and for those looking to appointment to those colleges of higher academic rank, higher degrees will be a necessary qualification. At present the higher the academic rank of the institution, the greater the percentage of deans holding the advance degrees. It is further evident from the large percentage of deans holding Phi Beta Kappa and other college honors that the degrees held indicate superior intelligence as well. This evidence seems to be at variance with the opinion frequently expressed that deans are usually endowed with social qualities rather than with intellectual ability. It points rather to the conclusion that this position will more and more demand all the qualities, intellectual, emotional, and volitional, which belong to real leadership.

II. The prevailing rank of the dean in all colleges is that of professor, though only 28.6 percent of those professors hold the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. This means that the academic rank of deans is higher than the academic rank of women by and large who are teaching liberal arts subjects. Miss Lohn's study

of the academic status of women in 70 universities showed only 1.33 percent of women professors in liberal arts subjects.

III. It is apparent that the work of dean is regarded by forward looking presidents as a profession, inasmuch as the title dean has been given to so large a percentage of women supervising the activities of women students and professional rank bestowed upon them.

IV. The dean's field in its present state of evolution at least implies some classroom teaching. This is evidenced by the fact that 80 percent of deans are recruited from teaching and are in seven out of ten cases in all grades of institutions teaching still.

V. When deans are carrying a teaching load of 15 to 20 hours a week, the work of dean must in the nature of the case be more nominal than real.

VI. It seems evident that aside from teaching, deans are frequently carrying a burden of work incompatible either with best results to the education of young women or with the health of the dean herself.

VII. The median salary of \$2766.66 for deans in all classes of institutions, as compared with those of teachers in public high schools of nine cities of over 250 thousand population or with deans and professors of public universities and colleges, indicates that the salaries of deans in colleges is relatively small.

These facts in turn raise the following questions which may well be discussed by the National Association of Deans of Women:

I. In view of the new material in the personnel field, will it not be necessary for women deans to look upon their own task as an independent profession rather than as an academic field with dean's work as a side issue? If the work of dean is coming to be regarded as a profession by far sighted college and university presidents, does that not put upon deans themselves the responsibility of developing professional subjectmatter and technic which shall be worthy of a profession?

II. If the dean's office is to be conceived as an administrative one concerned in a vital way with the education of women, and as a personnel bureau, as it has been in so many institutions, should not her office be organized as a department of student life, looking to the development of a staff adequate to this task?

III. Should not the office be more adequately defined by the National Association of Deans of Women, the American Association of University Women, and other organizations interested in women's education, in terms of time, salary, official appointment and opportunity to do the work assigned?

This study is very evidently rather a point of departure for further research than a final statement of what deans should be or should do. It has sought to establish a few facts concerning this much discussed field of vocational endeavor. A similar investigation undertaken after a five year interval would doubtless show a development in one or more of several trends. To this development the deans themselves will doubtless be important contributing factors.

FROM HIGH SCHOOL TO COLLEGE

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The great American institutions of higher learning annually accept within their walls about one hundred thousand of the most promising products of the high school. The previous records of these one hundred thousand have been scrutinized with care, hosts of the most favorable

recommendation from instructors, friends, and principals have accompanied the students' pleas for admission; many have been subjected to grilling entrance examinations and still others have been classified by psychological tests. These young people have been through a very thorough selective process to eliminate the undesirable, the disinterested, the intellectually unfit, and have been stamped and classified as the most acceptable material for further intellectual training. One hundred thousand students enter college fresh from the thrills of high school graduation, filled with ambition and enthusiasm, eager to learn what is before them. Mark that only the selected few are given this opportunity. How many college administrators stop to think that freshmen in college are only three or four months older than seniors in high school? In those three months certainly they do not change radically in ambition, in mental calibre, or in morals and character. Yet statistics show that at the end of four months of college the mortality among this highly selected group amounts to 20,000 students, who voluntarily or involuntarily withdraw because of failure.

Recently a personnel study of first-year students in the University of Chicago was conducted by Miss Gallop. From the list of 218 students who were dismissed, put on probation, or not allowed to register, the first 200 whose records were available were taken. In addition, the first 200 of the students of the *highest* grade in the same class were studied. All these four hundred young people looked very much alike to the University in October. They had all done work of good quality in high school; they seemed good material and promising subjects to undertake advanced study. Yet half of these students were thrown into the discard—marked as failures before a year had passed. Is there such discrepancy between the scholastic standards in high school and those in college that 20,000 of the selected few cannot satisfactorily meet college requirements during the first year? It is evident that something is wrong and that conditions warrant thorough investigation and study to find out where the trouble lies. Dean Kent, of Northwestern University, states, "The more carefully selected the student, the greater the obligation the college has toward him. Failure of a student under the selective system argues strongly for failure on the part of the college either *in* selecting or *after* selecting."

Such startling data as the above and the proximity to a big university, in which the freshmen say "everything is very different," led to the desire to find out what was meant by "everything is different," and to gain, if possible, suggestions which might help both high school and college deans to understand matters.

Fifteen to twenty serious-minded freshman girls were selected from each of the following institutions: The University of Wisconsin, Beloit College, Rockford College, The University of Chicago, The University of Illinois, Smith College, Mount Holyoke College, Purdue University, and Wellesley College. These special colleges and universities were chosen

for the investigation in order that there might be a range in the size of the institutions, a diversity in faculty and student body, and a difference in the location of the institution and in the living conditions of the students. Record was kept of each girl's standing in high school and her marks up-to-date in the college. Academic standing was graded superior, average, or poor. In the two hundred answers studied, no girl had had a record of "poor" in high school, only three had had poor records in college, and more than sixty per cent of them had had superior records. This last fact is quite significant in the evaluation of answers and suggestions, because the information secured is not the pessimistic complaint of disgruntled outcasts whose impressions of college life have been colored by failure, but it is rather the sane, thoughtful expression of those successful students who are pointed to with pride by the academic world.

The young women selected were given seven questions pertinent to the changes from high school to college. One of the most interesting facts in the investigation was the striking similarity in the answers. Whether the young women were attending small women's colleges in the east, large cosmopolitan coeducational institutions in the west, or conservative small coeducational colleges, their reactions were almost identical.

1. The first question submitted was "*Do you feel that there is a gap between high school and college—i. e., do things seem different in college?*"

All students with the exception of ten stated that there was a great gap. "Everything is different" was the beginning sentence in most of the answers. According to these young people, the greatest gap is due to five factors: first, the work in college; second, the personal responsibility; third, the social life; fourth, the attitude on the part of the faculty; fifth, the attitude of students. That college subjects differ more in quantity than in quality seems to be the consensus of opinion. Things are dealt out on a much larger scale. The people, the studies, and the whole institution, are more advanced. Methods are strange and impersonal. These students have come from an institution of learning which has been advancing with rapid strides on the theory of individual instruction and the development of personal initiative. They suddenly find themselves under the impersonal lecture-method of instruction and under the general policy that college is a survival of the fittest. No student omitted to mention the overwhelming requirements in outside reading, the unbelievable amount of time demanded by the individual instructor, and the strain it was upon the conscience to report the assigned reading and to remain honest.

Most of these girls are away from home for the first time—a tremendous responsibility for studying is placed upon them without the accompanying supervision of home and school, the quiet study room, and the encouragement of parents. The strain of "being my own boss, my own self-starter, my own disciplinarian, and my own critic" is a serious matter with these earnest freshmen.

Furthermore, there is an overwhelming proportion of social life for some and a dearth for others. Activities consume the time of one, while the institution gives no stimulus, little opportunity, and less time to another. Many girls, even in these days, graduate from high school innocent, unsophisticated, and dependent upon their elders for advice along social lines. Therefore the despairing comment of one freshman, "I'm lost in this social maelstrom" is no doubt typical of thousand of others.

Everything is so much greater in magnitude in college that it is proportionately more impersonal is a rather mild way of expressing what was present in every answer to this question. It does not seem out of place to quote verbatim some of the responses:

"Instructors know students only through papers or readers. The student feels no guiding influence, nor that anyone is interested in her progress." (When a college girl switches from a chemistry major to an English major and then is unable to decide whether she would prefer a mathematics major or a French major, and either is possible for her, she is not a sophisticated, versatile fool as some people judge her, but an unguided child.)

"The chief difference is that no one is interested in whether one learns or not. *Learn or get out*—Take your choice.

"It is so hard to get a personal footing in these large classes that one wonders what it is all about and also whether the professor knows or cares what it is all about."

"No one in particular is interested in seeing that you develop one way or another in this unfeeling institution."

"There is an impersonal, disinterested attitude on the part of instructors—also a crushing dogmatism which hinders selfdevelopment. The attitude is 'Do it my way, think my way, or get a D.'"

"Sympathy no longer plays a part in your life. Nobody offers you a helping hand or a second chance."

Many a thinking young woman was distressed and perturbed at the flippant attitude toward learning very prevalent among some student bodies. They especially resented the disinterest in anything but the most superficial entertainment and achievement and the indifference toward real culture. Grades—obviously so meaningless—so unfair a criterion, so utterly beside the point of learning—are constantly in the foreground. Students are working for a grade, for a credit, for a degree. The undignified scramble for grade points rather than knowledge has seemingly placed some of our cultural institutions on a commercial basis.

2. The second inquiry was "*What has been your greatest difficulty in adjustment in college?*"

Over and over the responses contained the expressions "to accustom myself to studying and concentrating," "to adjust myself to the different methods of teaching and the abundance of work," "to take final examinations," "to choose my course," but these were given the second place in

importance. The greatest adjustment of most of these young women was concerned with the development of the art of living together. These difficulties fell into two classes—the problems of those who were living in dormitories in either large or small institutions, and of those who were living at home or in private dwellings. During the freshman year there is presented to many for the first time the dilemma of knowing whether to rush into hurried friendships with whomever one is thrown, or to stand off and wait until one can see. The inevitable adjustment in working out harmonious living with a roommate or a dormitory group; the danger of losing one's personality and becoming one of the standardized herd; the difficulty in sorority houses of having thirty girls around all of the time; the continuous living with girls alone in women's colleges—all are problems which are confronting these groping freshmen who appear so sophisticated to the unknowing.

In sharp contrast to the above are the girls in large institutions who do not live in groups. Many a heartache, many a feeling of depression is behind the confessions "my greatest adjustment has been to be a mere nobody," "to realize that I am just one of several thousand," "to be without friends," "to be among great crowds of students and go hours and hours and sometimes whole days and only say 'hello' to a few passing acquaintances." How many of these girls long for some personal touch, some guidance along the way, and just a little bit of human sympathy! And this is from the superior group. What might we expect from the less fortunate?

In order that help may be given to these young folk, it is necessary for both high school deans and college deans to know what lack is felt during the early college period. Hence the question:

3. *During your first months at college, what have you missed most from your high school days?*

The answers to this question go hand in hand with the reason why most freshmen feel a gap between high school and college. A very few were frank in saying that life had been so strenuous and so full in college that they had not had time to miss anything.

Almost one hundred per cent, however, headed the list with varying statements of the following idea: "The thing which has been missed most has been the feeling of security which comes from being part of an institution and knowing and enjoying my instructors, who made me feel that I personally counted, and that I really amounted to something." Many, also, have missed the club activities, the opportunity and time to enjoy sports and other forms of recreation. Those who had come from high schools in which well-organized advisory systems were functioning felt a great loss and a lack of competent supervision.

The collegiate world does not ordinarily think of high school students being interested to any great extent in independent thinking or in research

problems, and yet it is interesting to read among the items of those things which have been missed from high school days such statements as these:

"My preparation in high school emphasized independence of thought. I have missed the opportunity of reaching out into fields beyond the assignment. This last is due to the fact that so much is assigned I haven't time to *think*."

"I have no time to pursue my favorite studies because I am loaded with required reading."

"I miss having time to do independent work where I can really explore fields which fascinate me."

Equally helpful to all deans who are vitally interested in making the most satisfactory and most rapid adjustment for their young people is the next question, with answers given by two hundred students who have taken the step from high school into college within the last few months, and who have stated that there is a big gap.

4. *What suggestions could you give a high school dean so that she might help to prepare senior girls for the step into college?*

The common suggestion was to make the senior year in high school as much like college as possible, by giving no supervision to students, by demanding that each one assume mature responsibility, by making classes very large and impersonal, by giving hard final exams, and by using the lecture method, with practice in note-taking—in short—to make the high school courses so similar to college that the gap between will not swallow the freshmen. That is the solution of groping minds who realize, as most true educators do, that the secondary period of education has been broken in the middle and that the mere granting of a high school diploma does not convert immature girls into mature women. These freshmen show clearly the need for junior colleges, but, without true perspective, they have naturally brought the last year of high school up to college level, while the experts in adolescent education bring the first year of college down to senior high school level. Both have the same desire to make a more natural and normal articulation between the two levels of learning.

Further suggestions were made for high school groups to be held in which definite college problems could be freely discussed, so that girls before graduating might get help in formulating standards on which to base their decisions. Many valuable and exceedingly live topics were suggested. For example, talks on "Colleges in General," "The Need for Good Study Habits," "The Purpose of a College Career," "Criteria of Social Success," "Correct Clothes for College," "Definite Problems Involving What is Morally Right or Wrong," "The Necessity of Thinking for Oneself," "An Analysis of Various Types of Courses Offered in College." Further demand was made that high school deans should hold individual conferences with seniors in which she should help the girl decide for what type of college course she is best fitted.

These suggestions are far-reaching and demand infinite time, but if their

fulfillment would bring more natural and more effective adjustment in college, no doubt our time would be spent more profitably in work of this type than in the many other duties which appear more important.

5. Closely allied to the last question is the next: "*What suggestions could you give to a college dean to help freshmen bridge the gap from high school?*"

The answers almost naturally fell into the "Do's and Don'ts for College Deans." To quote:

1. Be sympathetic and understanding about academic and social troubles. Be guiding rather than critical. In this way freshmen will get a grip on their work from the start.

2. Let the college dean become more informal. A meeting with her now is an *occasion*.

3. There should be more frequent and longer conferences between the girl and the dean. Drop technicalities. Let the girl ask questions. She has many, and has no one to answer them. A three-minute conference once a semester does not invite confidences.

4. Let the dean give the freshmen an idea of the various activities in which a student might become interested. Many students would like to take part in activities, but they do not know how to go about it.

5. Don't judge the freshmen by the same standards as the senior college or graduate students. Do something to help them adjust themselves.

6. Help freshmen to budget time. Make them realize the need for a "work and play" program.

7. Cultivate the habit of enjoying that part of a girl which distinguishes her from other girls.

8. Don't let the professors forget that we are freshmen. Let them cultivate an atmosphere that the institution really does care whether the individual fails or succeeds.

9. Start a live Big Sister Organization and see that it functions.

10. Organize freshmen discussion groups to talk over campus problems. Let these groups be supervised by the dean, but led by an older student who knows from personal experience what rocks are ahead, and one who has reached a working basis for herself founded on sound reason and approved by the opinion of the older generation.

The following answer by a rather mature girl should call forth careful thought from all deans in women's colleges. "In a woman's college," said she, "one is hampered, perhaps wisely, perhaps not so wisely, for our life seems often to be not quite whole nor wholesome; our desire for action, for something vital and alive is often expressed in a perverted manner. Someone, a dean or a faculty member, should help that type of girl to discover vitality in other things, to see excitement in an idea as well as in an action."

All the students who answered this questionnaire have weathered the gale as far as grades are concerned, and inasmuch as grades are most often the deciding factor by which the college judges a student a success or a failure, they have succeeded. Therefore, it is interesting to note their answers to the question,

6. *What has been your most helpful agency in college?*

These answers range from the pathetic response of a freshman in a big institution who said, "the card catalog in the library," to the satisfying answer of a girl in an eastern college who wrote "The Dean of Freshmen—a lady of efficiency and understanding."

The order of frequency in the answers is suggestive and helpful, though not complimentary. (1) College has offered no helpful agency; (2) Friends, big sisters, upperclass counselors, and roommates of every description; (3) Sorority; (4) Deans; (5) The Y. W. C. A. conference groups; (6) Church; (7) The Athletic Association; (8) The high school training which carried over.

Intelligent guidance can be given to these young women only by finding out the type of the new problems which confront them. Therefore they were asked,

7. *What are the problems which you find in college which you did not have in high school?*

The adjustment, no doubt, had been difficult for the girl who wrote, "I found a cruel world which demanded from me many important decisions all at once. My simple problems changed from the act of getting a good lesson at regular hours when everyone was quiet at once and study was possible and easy, to real decisions dealing with conduct, ideals, aims, and, in fact, with the whole problem of how to live and what to gain from life."

The one who states her problem in the following words could be multiplied by thousands of entering freshmen, but all do not show the maturity of decision which she evidently did. "My greatest problem has been in learning that everything could not be done at once, campus activities, studying, and society. After the first three weeks I had to sleep all one week-end and start again more slowly. The second time I made a schedule which was better balanced, and I made sure that I had my eight hours for study and school work and the necessary hours for sleep and recreation."

Many girls regretted that in these few months their ideals had been shattered, that they had experienced a terrific upset of religious and social standards and that the problems of judging and appraising people, especially young men, on one meeting had been most appalling.

The hectic rushing period of sororities and the political control of campus activities as a problem in freshmen adjustment is well expressed in this intimate bit of confession, "The cosmopolitan, impersonal political factions of this college have dazed me. I came from a community of old families, of beauty-loving people, of intelligent, cooperative folk with the culture of generations behind them. I cannot seem to understand the indifference, the selfishness, and the scheming attitude of college students. The so-called popular young people seem to be most forward and least appealing. Perhaps I am too idealistic for modern life,"

In dormitory life there is the ever-present problem of exaggerated familiarity which is apt to shut out individual thoughts and opinions. One lives constantly in the atmosphere of college. Contact with the every-day world is lost. Contemporary events play a decidedly minor part. From this state of affairs, which seems quite universal, one young woman found the solution to her problem in a Current Events Club, for she said it kept her mind and attention on *vital* things of the times and provided a means of taking her away from the *pettiness* of college dormitory life which threatened to swamp her.

So the answers might continue almost indefinitely. What is the solution of it all? What can be learned from this brief survey of the opinions, the suggestions, and the needs of two hundred wide-awake modern college freshmen? At present we must recognize that there is a gap—a wide social gap between high school and college, and there is need for the closest articulation between the work of the high school deans and that of the college deans. A girl needs a certain type of assistance on both sides of the gulf, namely, a thorough knowledge of the stations along the way and the price one pays to reach each one.

This complex problem of adjustment which is at the root of the failures of most college students should challenge the ingenuity of every thinking woman who is working in the capacity of dean. "The fields are white unto the harvest." There is an urgent demand for real guidance—that type of guidance which is thorough and scientific; there is a craving for sympathetic and intelligent understanding; there is a crying need for the genuine sincerity and the human touch of interested personalities who are capable and willing to help bridge the gulf from high school to college.

THE VALUE OF A STUDENT PETITION

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The occasion of the piece of work reported here was a petition which was presented to the principal of our school last year during the summer session. The cause of the petition was objection to a ruling to the effect that students would be permitted to go home but once each month and would be permitted to visit some place other than home once each month with permission from parent or guardian on file in the dean of women's office.

The dissatisfaction was brought to a focus when as an educational event arrangements were made for the student body to visit the Sesquicentennial on a Friday. Immediately a large number prepared to go home on Thursday night and stay until Monday, whereupon the principal announced that the school would continue as usual for those not attending the Sesquicentennial. Feeling ran high and developed in a petition which was presented to the principal. He gave the petition to the dean of women with the request to "find out what is in it."

The petition was typed and signed by names of 211 girls and women. Frequently several names were in the same handwriting. In one instance 20 names had been written by the same person. One name was misspelled. The whole situation presented a good laboratory for some work in civics.

Every Monday morning the chapel period is given to the dean of women to meet all the women of the school except those who are teaching in the training school in the forenoon. On Monday morning after the petition was presented to the principal the petition with questionnaire following was distributed to the girls and women with a few preliminary remarks on the right and dignity of petition.

It was stated that it was the policy of the school to encourage the use of the petition; always to give a petition careful consideration; and whenever it was in accord with the best interests of all concerned it was a real pleasure as well as privilege and duty to grant the petition.

It was evident that we had a rare chance here to do some research work on the value of a petition because out in the world, the town council, the county commissioner, the legislator, the executor had no opportunity to get behind the petition. It was made plain that there was no stigma whatever attached to their signing this petition and that we would all be interested in analyzing this one. All we asked was absolutely truthful answers.

All present were asked to fill out the questionnaire, whether they had signed the petition or not. They were told to do just as they pleased about answering the first question, "What is your name?" Concerning the second question, "Your age?" we asked the exact age if under 21—if over 21 simply write 21.

They were told that we recognized this to be a petition of rather high type as every signer was a high school graduate, some were normal school graduates, and many had years of successful teaching experience to their credit; that there was nothing personal in the analysis, simply a desire to get at the real value of a petition. A good understanding was established and a fair and honest response was given to the petition and questionnaire which follows:

The Petition

We, the undersigned, for reasons mentioned below do respectfully request the ruling regarding "week-end" visits to our homes, be rescinded:

1. As teachers, our vacation is limited to "week-ends" which now have been taken from us;
2. Some of us are Sunday School teachers, and to be true to our religion, should be in our places;
3. Because of this ruling, there is a general loss of school spirit which may result in the loss of students to our Alma Mater;
4. Some of us are under our family physician's care which necessitates our being home;

5. We consider it an injustice to compel those who cannot go to the Sesqui-Centennial to remain at school;

6. Our "week-ends" at home do not weaken our systems, as the ethics of our profession require that we so handle our bodies that we can render the best of services to the public.

The Questionnaire

1. What is your name?
2. Your age?
3. When did you graduate from this school?
4. If not a graduate, how many weeks have you spent here?
5. Did you read the above petition before you signed it?
6. If so, which of the six reasons assigned was the principal one to you?
7. Did you have opportunity and refuse to sign the petition?
Answer one or the other of the two following:
8. Did you sign it because you wanted the privilege for yourself?
9. Did you sign it to accommodate your friends?
10. At the time of signing the petition did you understand that you were permitted to go home once a month?
11. At the time of signing the petition did you understand that besides going home once a month you were permitted to visit one week-end with the permission of your parents on file?
12. Do you teach a Sunday School class?
13. If so, where?
14. Did your family physician sign your Health Certificate on your Normal School application?
15. Have you already attended the Sesquicentennial?
16. Are you planning to go with the school to the Sesquicentennial?
17. If not state your reasons.
18. How many were present when you signed the petition?
19. Did you write the names of any other persons besides your name?
20. Did you have a part in composing the petition?

The tabulation of the answers to the questionnaire resulted in the following facts:

The Personnel of the Signers

Over 21 years of age who filled out questionnaire.....	108	
Who refused to sign petition.....	27	
Who knew nothing of it.....	28	
Who signed petition.....	53	
Number who read it before signing.....	36	or 68%
Number who did not read before signing.....	17	or 32%
Students under 21 years of age who filled out questionnaire.....	182	
Number who refused to sign petition.....	27	
Number not asked.....	39	
Number who signed.....	116	
Number who read before signing.....	71	or 61%
Number who did not read before signing.....	45	or 39%
Total number who signed petition.....	169	
Total number who read it before signing.....	107	or 64%
Total number who did not read before signing.....	62	or 36%
Number signing to accommodate friends.....	73	or 43%
Number signing because they wanted it themselves.....	96	or 57%

Of those under 21 the ages averaged 18, and the number of weeks spent at the school 15.

Of those over 21 who filled out questionnaire, 19 were graduates of the school, 7 refused to sign the petition, 7 had no opportunity. The 5 who signed were graduated in 1926.

Of those who were under 21, 13 were graduates of the school, 2 had no opportunity to sign, 11 signed, several without reading the petition, and several to accommodate friends. All were graduates in 1926—a few of these were doing advanced work—most of them were of the type that had to stay at summer school to make up failures.

Forty-two of those signing the petition were not present at chapel to fill out the questionnaire.

Very few signed in the presence of only one other. The size of signing groups ranged from four to twenty. It proved to be what all the earmarks indicated—group instigation—group action—explained by mob psychology.

There appeared to be little fraud in the fact that several names were in the same handwriting. A group were together. One and another would say "Put me down," sometimes not having read the petition or not having heard it read. Sometimes with a mistaken notion, and sometimes with no notion of what it was about, but with surety of a desire to be "in the swim." The motive, as some expressed it, was "to be a good sport"—"to go with the crowd." This information came from conversation with a good many signers.

By-products:

Number signing for each of the following reasons:

1. As teachers, our vacation is limited to "week-ends" which now have been taken from us; 52.

2. Some of us are Sunday School teachers, and to be true to our religion, should be in our places; 16.

3. Because of this ruling, there is a general loss of school spirit which may result in the loss of students to our Alma Mater; 7.

4. Some of us are under our family physician's care which necessitates our being home; 5.

5. We consider it an injustice to compel those who cannot go to the Sesqui-Centennial to remain at school; 30.

6. Our "week-ends" at home do not weaken our systems, as the ethics of our profession require that we so handle our bodies that we can render the best of services to the public; 17.

A good many signed their names to the questionnaire even though they were told they need not do so. Those signing were usually those who were proud of not going with the crowd.

Out of a group of 290 who filled out the questionnaire, 169 signed the petition, 64 percent read the petition before signing, 36 percent did not read it before signing, 43 percent signed to accommodate friends, and 57 percent, because they wanted the petition granted for their own gratification.

On the whole, the younger group showed less discrimination than the older group as 61 percent of those read the petition before signing as against 68 percent who were over 21, or 39 percent of the younger group did not read it before signing as against 32 percent of the older group.

The older graduates did not sign the petition. Those graduates who signed were of the vintage of 1926 and most of those were in the summer school in order to make up a few credits necessary for their graduation in June.

Such are the findings of fact which the dean of women reported back to the girls assembly on the following Monday morning. Little comment was necessary. The petition had been the subject of lively discussion in the dormitories, at the table, and on the campus. The whole reaction was wholesome for the whole school. The more mature women rather gladly availed themselves of the opportunity to rest quietly over the week-end; to read a new book; to have a Saturday trip to the river or mountains; to worship in other churches; to receive company from home and simply to visit a bit and make of the casual acquaintances of the class-room what may turn out to be life-long friends. To sum up, they were glad to appropriate and enjoy all the school and its environment had to offer.

The younger ones caught the idea that "going away to school" meant something more than dodging in breathlessly for the first class on Monday, and escaping jubilantly at the first opportunity at the end of the week; and that being a "good sport" is not going heedlessly along; but that she is the "good sport" who meets life's inevitable experiences with poise, dignity, and a sustaining philosophy of life.

The whole situation had been so thoroughly gone over and digested that it was not necessary for the principal to render a formal denial of the petition.

But coming back to the petition and considering it from the teacher's and citizen's standpoint. Is it not a bit disheartening that out of these signers who are a privileged class and supposedly of superior intelligence, training, and character, 36 percent signed the petition without reading it and 43 percent signed it just to accommodate friends? Some answer, "yes"—some say, "no."

Will this same indifference carry over to petitions to school boards, to town councils, to county commissioners, to state and national law making bodies? If the answer is "Yes," what is the ideal to inspire and the force to energize for nobler actions?

Normal school graduates and high school graduates already have courses in civics and history and have been thrilled with the story of the evolution of our independence from Runnymede to the present day. We will not perish for lack of knowledge—rather for lack of conscience—lack of courage to accept our inheritance as a sacred trust. This, like all morals, should be taught primarily at home. Nevertheless, a substantial part of every

teacher's good teaching is the conscientious recognition and punctilious performance of civic duties.

To those of us who are veterans in the suffrage work, still another question insinuates itself—would a similar number of men and boys present a similar petition? In this particular instance there were men in school and they did not get up a petition.

Or putting it another way—may the character of this petition be attributed to the political infancy of women? Again, would the petition of housewives and business women be better or worse as to motive and purpose than the school-teacher's petition?

Along with "trial by jury," and "government with the consent of the governed" belongs the "right of petition." Its weight must depend upon its integrity. In this particular petition the majority percentages are intelligent and sincere. But it gives pause for thought that the careless and indifferent percentages are as large as they are.

To be sure this is but one petition from one school, but it is not unlikely that both petition and school are representative.

It may be the "straw which shows which way the wind blows"; or shall we hope it is only a straw caught in a passing gale?

AN ABSTRACT OF THE CLOSING ADDRESS OF DEAN ARNOLD

The exigencies confronting an after-dinner speaker are many and varied. Today the unmeasured miles between Dallas and Denton, the unbounded hospitality of our hosts, and the unalterable time of departure of our trains have left but brief moments for post-prandial philosophy.

I am therefore abandoning the entire drift of my words to you and am substituting a fresh message which will be exceedingly brief.

As I greet you—dean of women—I see behind you the young women of the University of Texas who have so skillfully and so generously supplied all our needs. I think of the paths which they are treading and the many hills which their feet will climb. As I look in your faces I realize how varied are your many duties, each differing from each, and how the thing which you are must dominate any rule or code. Just now there flashed into my mind the words of King Alfred the Great which ages ago I copied in my commonplace book:

I would, God knows, in a woodman's hut
Have spent my days and lived my quiet life;
. . . But *being what I am*,
I'll be it nobly!

That last sentence is to carry along with you. Its high appeal touches us all. We love the ring of the words. Let us take them away like the pocket stone that the small boy carries, rubbing and polishing it again and

again as he affectionately regards its precious beauty. "*Being what I am, I'll be it nobly!*"

There is one other word which an old friend gave to me in the early days of my administrative work in teaching. She knew well that I longed to do everything for the young women whom I was endeavoring to lead. The mother-heart in us urges us to this. We all know how deep the desire is.

And yet we all know that it ought not to be fulfilled. I shall never forget the words of this friend, "They must paddle their own canoe, my dear;—but you can sing the boat song."

Do they not sound the key-note, and help us to solve our problems? Our vision of the way, our courage, our faith, our understanding may serve to steady the hand and to give them courage in the hard places. We may share with them life's message to us—so far as they can take it—and this may hearten them. But they themselves must hold the oar and choose their own way in the end.

It has been with the deepest satisfaction that I have shared the privilege of attending your meetings and listened to your discussions. I have been greatly heartened by the assurance of the work which you are doing. It has never been better, and it is to be better yet. May all good attend you as you return to your God-given tasks! And may the great God be with you!

ADDRESS

ELLEN F. PENDLETON, PRESIDENT OF WELLESLEY COLLEGE,
WELLESLEY, MASS.

I regard the office of dean one of the most rewarding, as it is one of the most important of administrative offices. In saying this, I am not unmindful of the fact that this office has thus far escaped the standardizing process. The term has no universal connotation. The province and duties of the office vary with the institution served. There are certain qualities, however, which the ideally successful dean must possess, whether she be charged with the supervision of the academic or of the social life of the students. I cannot do more than mention some six or seven of these qualities, conscious that the list is not exhaustive nor does it offer anything especially new.

First, it goes without saying that the dean must have an understanding of, an interest in, and a respect for the ideals and objectives of the institution served.

Second, she should understand the curriculum, its specific requirements, the aims and equipment of the various departments, and, if she is the officer responsible for the academic work, she should be prepared to give to her chief an impartial and unprejudiced report upon any matters needing encouragement or correction.

Third, whatever her specific duties, the dean should consider it her duty to call to the attention of the president the needs of the institution as they have discovered themselves in the fulfillment of her office.

Fourth, she should acquaint herself with current educational questions, and trends. While this is essential for the officer charged with the supervision of the curriculum, it is an important asset for all administrative officers.

Fifth, as a personnel officer, the dean must have or must seek to develop a sympathetic understanding with young people, an appreciation of their strength and their weakness.

Sixth, she must keep always before the students that the academic work is the reason for their presence on the campus, and it must therefore have their first and chief allegiance. This is as much the duty of the so-called social dean as it is that of her academic colleague.

Seventh, the dean must resist the temptation to play the part of providence in the student's life. There are always students who wish to be told what courses to elect, what line of action to pursue in any given situation. Such students seem to lack initiative and have no desire to exercise the power of choice. I conceive it to be the province of the dean, or of any other member of the faculty, to give to the student all the information possible to help her to a conclusion, but at the same time to make clear to her that she and she alone must make the decision. Undoubtedly, sometimes her choice will not be what the dean would have made. Some of us know that the student sometimes understands her own needs better than her adviser. Even if she makes a mistake, the student develops maturity and initiative in assuming this responsibility of choice.

In closing, I should like to say a word about the position of administrative officers in an educational institution. I believe there is danger of our magnifying our office. The two important groups in any college are the teachers and the taught, the instructing staff and the student body. The administrative officers, including trustees, president and deans, exist to make more effective for the student the work of the teaching staff; to make sure that the expensive equipment of the institution yields the greatest possible return to the student.

MARRIAGE—A CAREER AND THE CURRICULUM

LILLIAN M. GILBRETH, PRESIDENT, GILBRETH, INC., MONTCLAIR, N. J.

Life may be measured in terms of satisfactions to oneself and one's group. If either marriage or a career alone brings satisfaction—well and good. In some cases each may—in many neither alone does—so a combination becomes a subject worthy of attention and interest. A successful combination of marriage and a career, for a woman, means not only that she wants it, but that her husband and her children also want her to have it. It would seem easiest to make the combination when least adjustments

have to be made at marriage—when both men and women are trained for careers, and when career making can be integrated as easily and naturally as home making is integrated. The happiest marriages mean living and playing together, making a home and bringing up a family together. If to this can be added working together, the integration is even more complete.

Undoubtedly many successful marriages include different careers, but this makes a more difficult problem to solve. The answer is—all careers, that of father, mother, children—belong in final analysis, to the family group, and are a source of group responsibility and pride. Good health, average intelligence and temperamental stability are a help to a successful marriage or a satisfying career. They are almost indispensable if one is to combine both, plus a philosophy that makes work the great blessing of life, and a technic of eliminating waste, human and material, and adjusting to life as it develops.

What can the curriculum do to help in this? Recognize that it must train for a twenty-four hour day, and for all of life, both work and leisure. Provide at each stage of both the boy's and girl's development not only for the average universal needs at that period, but for supplementing the lacks in previous training. Stress universal likeness, and point out individual differences. See that our youth is so far as is possible, physically fit, mentally alert, emotionally adjusted—and knows how to remain so; independent insofar that one can provide for his needs—but able and glad to work in groups.

We have learned that the fullest life means self-expression, but this is only permanently satisfying when it means integration within the self, and of the individual with his group—and with life everywhere. If we succeed in teaching this, marriages and careers can both be left to handle themselves.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Dallas Meeting

Wednesday Afternoon, February 23, 1927

The fourteenth annual meeting of the National Association of Deans of Women opened with a business session on Wednesday, February 23, 1927, at 3 P. M. at the Hotel Baker, Dallas, Texas.

The minutes of the last business session were dispensed with since they had been published in the 1926 yearbook. The minutes of the last three Executive Committee meetings were read.

Greetings to the deans were extended by Mary N. Hay, chairman of the local committee on arrangements.

The presentation of committee reports was the first business of the afternoon. Margaret S. Morriss, the first vice-president, reported on the relations of the state and local organizations of deans to the national association. *Voted* that the report be accepted.

The report of the headquarters secretary was given by Anna L. Rose. *Voted* that the report be accepted with appreciation.

Mrs. Durand, chairman of the membership committee, suggested that Lois

Matthews Rosenberry and Gertrude Shorb Martin be elected to honorary membership in the Association. A motion to this effect was made and carried unanimously.

The reports of the treasurer and of the audit committees were given by Miss Pierce and Miss Lockey respectively. *Voted* that these reports be accepted. *Voted* that thanks be extended to Miss Pierce for her splendid work as treasurer.

The report of the Press and Publications Committee was given by Helen Smith. *Voted* that the report be accepted.

The President announced the appointment of Miss Packer and Miss Amos as members of the Constitutional Revision Committee for this meeting. Dr. Haskell was appointed as a member of the Resolutions Committee.

The report of the Constitutional Revision Committee was next given. *Voted* that we proceed on the proposed changes in the by-laws section by section. *A motion* was made and carried that Article III, section 4 be adopted as proposed. *A motion* to adopt the proposed amendment to Article III, section 7 was defeated.

Voted that the amount of the life membership fee be referred to the Constitutional Revision Committee and the vote postponed until next year.

A motion to amend Article III, section 7 was defeated.

Voted to amend Article III, section 7 by adding "the fiscal year shall begin January 1st. Dues shall be payable in advance."

A motion was made and carried to continue the business session for 10 minutes.

A motion carried to table the discussion of Article IV, section 1.

Adjournment followed.

Thursday Afternoon, February 24, 1927

The second general session of the National Association of Deans of Women was called to order by the president, Miss Stimson, on Thursday afternoon, February 24th, 1927, at 2:15 P. M.

The reading of the minutes of the last meeting was postponed until a later time.

Dr. Laura Carnell's report of the June meeting of deans in Philadelphia was read by the secretary. *Voted* that the report be accepted and placed on file.

The report of the Membership Committee was given by Mrs. Durand. *Voted* to accept the main part of the report. The recommendations in the report were acted upon separately. *Voted* to adopt the first recommendation. *Voted* to approve the principle of the second recommendation but to refer the question of dues and definition of "allied interests" to the Executive Committee.

The thought contained in the third recommendation had already been approved in connection with the treasurer's report.

Voted to consider separately parts one and two of the fourth recommendation. The matter of sending out membership lists was referred to the Executive Committee.

Voted to refer to the Executive Committee the fifth recommendation regarding the plan of affiliation of organizations.

Voted to adopt the sixth recommendation.

Voted that we send greetings and flowers to Miss Crawford who had met with an accident.

Voted to send a telegram of greeting to Florence Purington..

The report of the Nominating Committee was given by Martha Reid, chairman.

Those nominated were as follows: President, Dorothy Stimson; second vice-president, Florence Purington; Treasurer, Estella G. Hefley. *Voted* to accept the report. *Voted* that the secretary be instructed to cast a unanimous ballot for the officers.

The report of the Committee on Intellectual Policies was read by the Chairman,

Mrs. Blanshard. *Voted* to accept the report. *Voted* to continue the business for 15 minutes.

Further changes in the Constitution were then considered.

Voted to amend Article VII to read as follows: The annual dues of all members shall be \$5, payable January 1st.

Voted that the payment of increased dues shall not be retroactive, but take effect at once.

This ended the business of the afternoon and the program followed as scheduled.

Friday Afternoon, February 25, 1927

A general session of the National Association of Deans of Women was called to order by the president on Friday, February 25th, 1927 at 2:30 P. M. It was moved that the reading of the minutes of the last business meeting be postponed.

The minutes of a special meeting of the Executive Committee held on Friday, February 25th, were read.

A history of our association prepared by Mrs. Phillips and her Committee was read by Miss Helen Smith. *Voted* to refer to the Press and Publications Committee the consideration of publishing this history.

The report of the Research Committee was given by Miss Blitz. *Voted* that the report be accepted with the suggestion that the Committee continue along the lines recommended in the report.

The report of the Committee on Relations with Other Organizations was given by Miss Blitz. *Voted* to accept the report with an expression of appreciation to Miss Blitz for her work. The report contained the resignation of Miss Blitz as chairman.

This concluded the business and the program for the afternoon followed.

Saturday Morning, February 26, 1927

The final business session of the fourteenth annual meeting of the National Association of Deans of Women was called to order by the President, Miss Stimson, at the State Teachers' College at Denton, Texas, on Saturday, February 26th, 1927 at 10:30 A. M.

The minutes of three business meetings were read and approved with minor corrections.

Agnes Wells reported for the Committee on Sororities. This report showed progress made by the committee and it was voted that the report be accepted and placed on file with the suggestion that the Press and Publications Committee consider its publication.

The report of the Health Committee was given by the chairman, Anna E. Pierce. The report was accompanied by several resolutions containing suggestions for the furtherance of the health work. It was voted to accept the report with appreciation of Miss Pierce's work.

The Constitutional Revision Committee resumed its report. It was voted to take from the table Article IV, section 1. *Voted* that the term "headquarters secretary" be used in place of "executive secretary" in Article IV, section 1. *Voted* to approve Article IV, section 2 as proposed.

Voted to approve Article IV, section 3 to read as follows: "The first vicepresident shall assist in every possible way in the development of state and local organizations. In case of the president's resignation or inability to act, she shall perform the duties of the president until the next annual meeting. In case of the inability to act of the first vicepresident, the second vicepresident shall perform

the duties of the first vicepresident. The last ex-president shall automatically become the second vicepresident.

Voted to approve Article IV, section 4 to read as follows: "The headquarters secretary shall be a salaried officer of the Association and shall be appointed by the Executive Committee of the Association. She shall keep an accurate list of all members of the Association; shall send out bills for dues, receive dues, and remit these to the treasurer; and shall cooperate in every way with the other officers of the Association and the chairmen of committees to carry forward the work of the Association."

Voted to approve Article IV, section 5 as proposed.

Voted to approve Article IV, section 6 to read as follows: "The treasurer shall receive all annual dues and other moneys due the Association, and shall make disbursements as directed by the Association or the Executive Committee. She shall be bonded by a recognized company and shall engage a certified accountant to audit the books annually and present such certification to the Association."

Voted to approve Article VI, section 3 as proposed.

Voted to approve Article IV, section 8 to read as follows: "A vacancy occurring in an office shall be filled by the Executive Committee until the next meeting of the Association."

Motion to approve Article VI, section 1 as proposed was defeated.

Voted to approve Article VI, section 4 to read as follows: "Regular meetings of the Executive Committee shall be held just previous to and just following the annual meeting of the Association. Special meetings may be called by the president and shall be called upon the request of five members of the Executive Committee."

Voted to approve Article VI, section 6 as proposed.

Voted that the proposal to use "teacher training institutions" instead of "normal schools and state teachers' colleges" in section 1 of Article VIII be referred to the Constitutional Revision Committee for consideration. *Voted* to grant permission to that section to use the teacher training institution title or some similar one if desired this year.

Voted to approve Article IX, section 1 to read as follows: "There shall be the following standing committees: nominations, program, press and publications, health, relations to other organizations, membership, research and budget. Additional standing committees may be created by the Association as may from time to time be deemed necessary."

Voted to adopt Article IX, section 2 to read as follows: "These committees shall be appointed by the Executive Committee to serve two years and the term of service shall expire at the time of the annual meeting. The chairman and one half of the members of any standing committee shall be appointed at the first meeting of the Executive Committee after the annual meeting and the remaining members of the Committee shall be appointed in alternating years."

Voted to adopt Article IX, section 3 as proposed.

Voted to adopt Article IX, section 4 to read as follows: "The Committee on Programs shall be the Executive Committee. It shall be the duty of this committee to prepare a program for the annual meetings of the Association and of the sections."

Voted that section 3 of Article IX become section 5.

Voted that section 5 of Article IX become section 7.

Voted that section 4 of Article IX become section 6, reading as follows: "The health committee shall consist of five members of which the president of the Association shall be one. One member of this committee shall represent the Association at the meeting of the Women's Foundation for Health."

Voted that section 6 of Article IX become section 8 and be adopted as proposed.

Voted to omit the present section 7 of Article IX.

The report of the Budget Committee was given by the chairman, Grace B. McLean. *Voted* to approve the budget in principle but to have a revised one prepared for publication in the Yearbook.

Voted that the Association express its approval of the action of the Executive Committee in levying a registration fee for the Dallas meeting and consent to its use again next year if it is found necessary.

The report of the Resolutions Committee was given by Miss Edith Barnard. *Voted* to accept the report with the amendment that it include the resolutions in Miss Pierce's health report.

At the conclusion of the business, the meeting adjourned to the Texas State College for Women where the members of the Association were luncheon guests. The program of addresses given at this time completed the fourteenth annual conference.

ELIZABETH M. HAUSE, *Secretary*.

The Department of Elementary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, temporarily organized as the National Association of Elementary School Principals at the Atlantic City meeting of the Department of Superintendence in February, 1921, became a department of the National Education Association at Des Moines, in July, 1921.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Arthur S. Gist, Frick School, Oakland, Calif.; *First Vicepresident*, E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Neb.; *Second Vicepresident*, Warren A. Roe, Principal, Belmont Avenue School, Newark, N. J.; *Secretary*, Helen B. Shove, Principal, Longfellow School, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Executive Committee*: W. T. Longshore, Principal, Greenwood School, Kansas City, Mo. (Term expires 1928); Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, Principal, Buchanan School, Grand Rapids, Mich. (Term expires 1929); M. E. Peterson, Twentieth St. School, Los Angeles, Calif. (Term expires 1930); Elizabeth McCormick, Howe School, Superior, Wis. (Term expires 1931). This Department meets twice each year—in February and in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:453	1923:653-666	1924:545-564	1925:450-477	1926:457-495
1922:851-886				

FUNDAMENTAL VALUES OF LIFE AND HOW TO REACH THEM

HENRY TURNER BAILEY, DIRECTOR, CLEVELAND SCHOOL OF ART, AND JOHN HUNTINGTON POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE, CLEVELAND, OHIO

THE most important thing in any life is the consciousness of being at home and of use in the Father's house. To secure this, three activities are necessary:

The first is nature study. Every child should have actual experience with the world of nature—with the open country—with the seasonal changes. There are no seasons in congested city districts. The children cannot see the spring come across the dewey hills, nor lustrous summer's prodigal display of sunlit green; nor the boundless wealth autumn flings across the landscape; nor the silent grace with which winter spreads her spotless mantle over a withered world. An enthusiastic primary teacher fresh from the country, once asked her school children in a city school to name the signs of coming spring. All she could get was "Swinging doors on the saloon." Think of that. Children who have not had country experience have not the foundations of the language used by novelists, and poets, nor can they appreciate pictorial art, or sculpture, or even music to the full. Nature is the inexhaustible reservoir of suggestion for all science and art. It is the supreme source of the purest delights of life—the flowers, the trees, the birds, the butterflies, the moths—the clouds and the stars never cease to entertain and bless those who have learned to love them. When we are wiser, we will not run the busses of the board of education to bring rural children into city schools, but to take city children into the country that they may learn to know and love God's first revelation to man, and feel at home in the natural world because well acquainted with it.

The second essential is found in the arts. Here the child comes to know the human world and to better appreciate his relatives in his Father's house. Literature—especially the imaginative literature—fairy stories, folk lore, poetry, and the Biblical literature, history, architecture, sculpture, painting and the minor arts, the drama and music, should be presented in such a way that children may come to know them with joy—know the art of them rather than the science of them; feel the thrill of them, warming the spirit to a consciousness of their significance and inspiring the spirit with love and thankfulness for those who have given such priceless gifts for all to share. Such experiences will make children feel at home in the human world.

The third essential is social service. The child must be led to see that as Emerson said, "Each one of us has a kink in the brain to insure our insistence upon some one point that nature has taken to heart." Each must be lead to discover the thing he can do best for the good of all. Some are especially responsive to a particular phase of life in the outdoor world. One loves birds or insects; another wild animals or household pets; one

likes to observe the weather or to grow things, another to collect specimens of woods or minerals; one loves pictures or patterns in color, another responds to music, or oratory, or dramatic interpretations or to poetry. He can sing, print, draw, dance, tell a good story, read sympathetically aloud, design, paint, model, make in wood or metal. He delights in writing, inventing, legerdemain, or playing a musical instrument. All of these and many more personal abilities should be discovered early, encouraged, put to service. The weekly assemblies or periods of entertainment and inspiration should be filled largely with programs evolved by the children themselves. From the first they should make use of their own varied resources to please and help each other. Service of one another in school will eventuate in the habit of service after school, and children so trained will become serviceable citizens. Ability to serve is grown; it cannot be had upon demand like a mouthful of air. We must invent opportunities for school children to serve each other and the community, until they get the joyful habit and know by experience that it is more blessed to give than to receive. Personally, intimately, in touch with nature; personally, intimately, enjoying the companionship of the best minds of the race and participating in their ideals; consciously contributing, with increasing efficiency, his share of service for the good of all, through thankfulness to God and love of his fellowman, any person, child, or adult, will find that he has a grip upon the fundamental value of life.

THE RESPONSIBILITY AND OPPORTUNITY OF THE PRINCIPAL TO THE SCHOOL

M. C. LEFLER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LINCOLN, NEBR.

Studies of the work of the principal in her official capacity indicate more than one thousand specific items which enter into her round of duties. There is seemingly no end to the number of different performances which she is called upon to assume as a matter of course in the daily administration and supervision of her office. Let no one assume that these are not important duties, nor because they are so many and so varied and sometimes so trivial, that there is not needed a training and a technic which brings not only keen professional insight, but also sympathy and vision which humanize every official act. The principal who can step ahead fast enough to lead the way is already on the way to added responsibility.

But it is not this overwhelming array of detail and important minutiae which further concerns us here. All of these will be taken for granted.

School is no longer an isolated unit. It is a part of a larger whole. Schools are not to be thought of in series. They are only adequately comprehended in systems. And this does not imply the subordination of the teacher, and especially of the principal. It is quite the contrary. Whatever

excels at one point must quickly find its application at all points. If the teacher is the very heart of the school, it is equally true that the principal must ever continue as the head and directing genius of the school over which she presides.

A system of schools implies unity and purposeful plans. Broad, constructive, well-defined policies are necessary. Here then is a fundamental responsibility of the principal of a school in the role of policy builder. It is not enough to attain distinction for her own school. In fact, the greater the success and achievement at this point, the greater her responsibility comes to give the advantage to all schools—to the system at large—and when this is done, to share it ever wider and wider, that it may ultimately be felt in the interests of state and nation.

Policies concern the fundamental principles upon which the school is conceived and operated. These imply conscious and purposeful planning. It is a thoughtful process and the responsibility of the principal to the school demands not only the ability to think in terms of adequate and modern school policies, but it calls for an enthusiastic willingness to be ever alert in this respect.

This is but another way of emphasizing the place of leadership which inheres in the person of the principal. Every great professional gathering is a dynamo of creative policy making. The Dallas convention is meeting for this very purpose. Its interests are not narrowed to the work of superintendents—e-n-t-s, but rather does it challenge the participation and cooperation of all who are working in the broad field of school superintendence—e-n-c-e. With this viewpoint in mind, it must be apparent to all that the so-called affiliated bodies of this convention are really not a part from, but truly an intrinsic part of the very purpose for which this convention has been assembled.

This principals' association, reaching the participation and cooperation of the elementary school principals of America, can therefore go forward with confidence that it has real work to do—a real contribution to make, if the policies in American education are to be conceived and applied as becomes the responsibility and opportunity of the principal to the school. And what is true about the principals in their organized relation, applies with equal truth to each principal in relation to her local school.

Let us now consider the responsibility of the principal of the school as it pertains to the program. If the principal enjoys a large cooperating opportunity and responsibility in the matter of evolving plans and policies, this responsibility becomes increasingly hers in developing programs within her school, which insures a maximum application of these policies. This is not a minor responsibility, for the program of any school touches immediately and continuously the lives and interests of all its pupils. The program is not a mere formulation of time allotments. It is not a mere calendar of subjects. It is not merely a perfectly initiated routine. It is not a series of purely formulated activities. It is in no sense a machine

for mechanism's sake. The program is rather a vitalized way of living for every child in the school. It does not leave to chance the ways and means of making progress in the direction of solving the problems of the day which are pressing and real. Nor does it force with blind coercion when there is neither reason nor benefit. The program of the school is a means—a humanizing means. It is not at end—a crucifying end.

Great, indeed, is the responsibility of all of us who are charged in any degree with keeping the system in repair, in operating with a measurable degree of effort without grinding to despair and oblivion the individual differences of those whom the school serves. The principal stands pre-eminently as the pilot at the helm in this important responsibility.

Obviously the program of the school contains not only the integrating elements which insure a community of understanding and appreciation, but it also contains the elements of flexibility and adjustment which give differentiation and adaptation to individual needs. To preserve these elements and at the same time avoid the conflicts so frequently met when one attempts to harmonize the differences between individual interests and generally established common core, calls for insight, vision and devotion in a degree scarcely found in any other profession. To permit the program to shape the child is a limitation freighted with great disaster. It is certain to place "round boys in square holes."

The arrangement of studies and activities in the program of the school may be *per se* in itself, almost a determining influence. It will be certainly so if the touch of understanding and personal interest is not ever present to temper the coldness of form with the warmth of cordiality and the appreciation of human worth. In this responsibility the principal stands at the door of every classroom and beckons the teacher to be ever mindful that the program of every child in the school is intended to lead him in the direction of "the truth which shall make him free."

Finally, it is the principal's responsibility to the personnel of the school. If her interests in the policy and program have lain largely in the field of organization and administration here, her duties and responsibilities assume large proportions in the field of supervision. Personnel management is always a timely topic. It is doubly so in those phases of personnel work with which the principal deals.

The teacher is truly the heart of the school, but the energy and spirit which she brings to her work is certain at many places along the way to reflect the sympathy and encouragement she has received from her supervising principal. Inspiration is a powerful incentive and without it there is certain reversion to routine and to the feeling of discouragement and defeat. Teachers have an inherent desire to contribute to the general progress and good. Nothing brings this creative participation of the teacher to the fore like the stimulating and inspiring leadership of the principal. To her then the faculty is a constant challenge to her own qualities of inspiration

and leadership and perhaps all of her opportunities and responsibilities. None flavors all the rest as does this outstanding characteristic.

But a mere inspiring and leadership personality does not go the whole distance. It is not enough to be merely energetic, and enthusiastic, primary as these qualities are. There are at least two other inseparable demands. One of these is the necessity of riding in the advance guard of training and preparation. There is no stopping point in this respect. Even the best which may be had today, is subordinate in a large way to the better of tomorrow. Teachers in increasing numbers are forging ahead and nothing can be expected to hold their continuous respect and confidence in the administrative and supervisory personnel of the school except full recognition of the fact that while the rank and file has been making progress, the leadership has also been keeping pace. Is it not true that the greatest hindrance to the greatest progress today may easily lie in the fact that the administrative and supervisory leadership of the present is in danger of being run down by the oncoming array of the better prepared? Certainly it is no small responsibility to keep up with the lead.

The other quality is demonstrated capacity for work. "Nothing succeeds like success" and "nothing works like work." Fuss and feathers, bluff and bluster, will not turn the trick. It is necessary for someone to take off the cloak or coat and buckle down to do the job. It is difficult to conceive an effective program for the improvement of teachers in service; or the presence of a well-defined reserve basis in the school; or an attitude which fairly comprehends the needs of behavior problem children; or a program of educational guidance which fairly guides; or any other problem of policy, program or personnel without visualizing through it all the unending hours of thought and effort which someone has been capable of giving in order to bring these things to pass. More and more the capacity to demonstrate in terms of *work* will be the measure of how successfully our responsibilities have been carried. And less and less will the chatter of the superficial, or the propaganda of the exploiter, or the mere song of the winds move us from our high purpose to accept our responsibility and opportunity to the school as becomes the profession of teaching which we represent.

THE TEACHER AN AGENT OF INTERNATIONAL GOODWILL

FANNIE FERN ANDREWS, BOSTON, MASS.

It is not so many years ago when a discussion of international goodwill in relation to the school curriculum would have been considered visionary and impractical. The idea has gradually evolved, as historical events have made their impress on our national life. It is necessary to review these events if we would trace the progress of teaching international goodwill in our schools. My mind goes back to a meeting eighteen years ago in

Denver, Colorado, when under the presidency of that broad-visioned personality, the late James H. Van Sickle, occurred the first annual meeting of the American School Citizenship League, the organization then known as the American School Peace League. Names high in educational prestige appeared on that program—James M. Greenwood, the forceful, courageous pioneer, a pillar of the National Education Association; and Nicholas Murray Butler, who today, through the great foundation of which he is president, is giving noteworthy service which affects education in every corner of the world. These men spoke eloquently of international goodwill and of the opportunity of the teacher to forward the idea embodied in the expression of the nations at The Hague for a better world order.

This meeting at Denver occurred two years after the Second Hague Conference, where the United States delegates, under instructions from Elihu Root, had sponsored and inspired deliberations which it was hoped, as Mr. Root said, would make "international justice more certain and international peace more secure." The Hague conferences, being the first gathering of the nations in time of peace for the consideration of means of settling international differences by peaceful methods, really marked an epoch in the relationships of nations. Many people had the faith to believe, after the First Conference in 1899, that these relations would in the future be based on goodwill, working through the practical application of arbitration and the Hague Court which this conference set up. And as the Court began to function, with the United States and Mexico taking the first case before it in May 1902, faith in international goodwill became stronger and stronger.

This epoch-making expression of the nations had its reaction on education. A few far-sighted educators in different parts of the world, principally in the United States, expressed the view that a great world adventure such as this should be noted in the schools. The Hague conferences not only represented an advance in civilization but obviously affected the history of the individual country. Particular stress, however, was laid on the motive as given in the preamble of the 1899 and the 1907 conventions, which actuated the adoption of the system of arbitration—the desire for international comity and the ultimate concern for humanity. It was this that these keen-sighted educators wished to teach in the schools. They proposed first of all that the opening date of these historic conferences, the eighteenth of May, 1899, be recognized as an appropriate time to teach the significance of the conferences in "recognizing the solidarity which united the members of the society of civilized nations," and of pointing out the beneficent results of international goodwill to one's own nation.

The meeting at Denver eighteen years ago focussed attention on the Hague conferences, which were in fact but the culmination of that steady advance of public opinion which for nearly a century had vigorously advocated arbitration and friendly adjustment of international relations, and which, it should be recognized, had laid the foundations for all sub-

sequent efforts for the promotion of international goodwill. This meeting at Denver also urged the celebration of the eighteenth of May in the schools.

Not long after the First Hague Conference, many civic and religious organizations began to celebrate the eighteenth of May and urged its observance in schools and colleges. It is interesting to review the earliest history of such observance, for it marks in a way the formal beginning of the teaching of international goodwill in the schools of this country. The first commemoration of which we have the record occurred in Bloomington, Indiana. At that time all the schools participated in exercises appropriate to the day, and the students of the state university joined with the townspeople in a celebration under the direction of the department of history. The names of Professor Amos S. Hershey and Professor James A. Woodburn stand out prominently in this event.

The historic document, however, on the celebration of the eighteenth of May in the schools is the letter of George H. Martin, secretary of the Massachusetts State Board of Education, addressed to the superintendents of schools in Massachusetts. In this letter, dated April 11, 1905, Mr. Martin calls attention to the Massachusetts statute which, as he described it, "imposes upon all instructors of youth the obligation to use their best endeavors to instil into the minds of the children and youth committed to their care the principles of 'love of country, humanity, and universal benevolence.'" The love of country, he said, was stimulated by special exercises in connection with the public holidays, February 22, April 19, and May 30. "A favorable opportunity," he continued, "to cultivate the other two virtues, 'humanity and universal benevolence,' is now afforded in the setting apart of May 18 in commemoration of the opening of The Hague Conference, May 18, 1899."

In December 1906, Dr. Elmer Ellsworth Brown, United States Commissioner of Education, addressing the state superintendents of instruction, recommended the observance of the eighteenth of May as Peace Day in the schools. In his report to the Secretary of the Interior, dated December 5, he called attention to the movement "looking to the annual commemoration in the schools of the United States of the opening of the First Hague Conference," and he particularly pointed out that "in the celebration of this anniversary day, and in the instruction of the schools throughout the year, the effort be made to promote an insight into the true aims and aspirations of our own nation and of the other nations with whom we are to work together in the making of a higher world civilization. . . . In 1906, seven state superintendents recommended the general observance of the eighteenth of May in the schools of their states.

Following the Commissioner's letter, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, meeting in February 1907, exactly twenty years ago, strongly supported, in a resolution, the observance of the eighteenth of May in the schools of the United States.

The scope of the observance grew steadily, and in 1908, the American School Citizenship League, which was organized in that year to promote international goodwill through the schools, emphasized at the outset the importance of celebrating the eighteenth of May.

We have already seen that at the first annual meeting of the American School Citizenship League, convened as an allied organization of the National Education Association at its Annual Convention in Denver, the teaching of international goodwill was recognized as a new responsibility for the school. Such teaching at that time, however, offered great difficulties. A confused sense of nationalism faced the teacher in taking up the new duty, as these pioneers at Denver had conceived it.

To train up the young to think and act in the spirit of friendliness and goodwill had long been recognized as an aim of education. It was accepted then as now that goodwill in the daily round of living is a desirable factor; that it makes for harmony and peace within the nation and promotes friendship and justice throughout the world. The resourceful teacher had found no difficulty in teaching the child, either through his own experiences or through the acts of others, the meaning and the beneficent results of goodwill in home, community and national life. This had become a recognized method of citizen training. It was generally accepted that no more important precept could be instilled into the mind of the young than this spirit of goodwill, and it was agreed that such instruction could hardly begin too early.

When, however, the teacher attempted to lead the pupil to appreciate and understand the beneficent effects of international goodwill, the subject suddenly became complex. It involved matters extremely delicate to handle in the schoolroom. At the same time, the sponsors of the idea realized that the abstract conception of international goodwill is meaningless, that it is vital only as it is demonstrated in international relationships. To choose such demonstrations appropriate to the school curriculum, required nicety of judgment and keen insight into educational aims and national ideals. Few teachers understood the new idea, and those pioneers who were fostering it realized that the success of the project depended wholly on correct interpretation and the proper selection of material. They worked for the gradual advancement of the movement, being concerned not so much in securing speedy response as in promoting intelligent understanding.

As the observance of the eighteenth of May—called interchangeably Peace Day, Hague Day, and Goodwill Day—became an established institution, there was a call from the teachers themselves for information concerning material to be used in the celebration of the day. The United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. Philander P. Claxton, responded to this call. In 1912 and 1913, he issued government bulletins, reprinted in 1914, containing material for the observance of the eighteenth of May, which he called Peace Day. In preparing these publications, at the request of the Commissioner, I selected material suitable for the pupil, being care-

ful to arrange this according to grades so that the little children as well as the pupils in the high school might grasp the real meaning of goodwill and human brotherhood. There was also information for the teacher relating to the principles of the movement for international justice, and finally an account of the various agencies working to this end. The achievements of the two Hague Conferences made a dramatic appeal to the children of all grades, while specific demonstrations of international goodwill in educational and humanitarian lines, as instanced in the return of the Boxer indemnity, for example, gave zeal for service to the higher ideals of international life. More than a hundred thousand of these bulletins were bought from the Government, and certain European Governments authorized the translation of parts of them for distribution to the teachers in their respective countries for the observance of Peace Day in the schools.

Many of the state superintendents of instruction included in their annual bulletins to teachers programs and suggestive material for the celebration of the eighteenth of May, which they called Peace Day. Some of these were conspicuous contributions to the general literature on the teaching of international goodwill.

Other contributions were made by the American School Citizenship League, which issued plays, pageants and special school exercises appropriate to the day. It was particularly pointed out by the League, however, that the eighteenth of May should be celebrated not only by special exercises, but also through the regular recitations, and suggestions were offered as to what might be done through the different branches of study.

More and more the need arose for a guide to the consecutive teaching of international goodwill, thus responding to the suggestion of Commissioner Brown in 1906 that such teaching should be included "in the instruction of schools throughout the year," a committee of the Massachusetts Branch of the American School Citizenship League prepared a graded course for the elementary schools which was published by Houghton Mifflin Company in 1914 and revised in 1918 under the title, "A Course in Citizenship and Patriotism." This Course, which comprises a book of nearly five hundred pages, develops from the first year in school, through stories, poems and historical references, the spirit of goodwill and cooperation through the widening relationships of the child acting as a member of the home, school, town or city, state, nation, and finally as a member of the world family. The theme of the book is citizenship governed by goodwill and expressed in service. Thousands of teachers are using this book.

The addresses of speakers on the programs of the annual and mid-year meetings of the American School Citizenship League which met year after year as an allied organization of the National Education Association at its annual conventions, consist of discussions covering almost every phase of the subject, while certain addresses on the main programs of the National Education Association make conspicuous contributions to the body of goodwill literature.

Then again, the State Teachers' Associations, through their publications, increased the volume of goodwill literature. Nearly a score of these state associations constituted the state branch of the American School Citizenship League a regular section which provided an annual program on the subject of goodwill, while in some of the other states where the state associations were not organized with sections, the state branch of the league met as an allied organization.

As interest in international goodwill increased in scope and intelligence, teachers began to seek some definite applications of the idea to the subjects in the curriculum. Attention centered first on history. There were dangers here, lest some should fail to realize that, in spite of the Hague conferences, nationalism still held a commanding place in the political field. It was necessary to establish a balance which would give full play to the ideal yet would regulate our expectations in the light of actual realities.

The American School Citizenship League, which had arranged the course for the consecutive teaching of international goodwill, set about the task of preparing a course in United States History for the elementary schools. It appointed some of the leading teachers and writers of history to do the work and set no time when the task should be finished. Such names as Wilbur F. Gordy, Philander P. Claxton, James H. Van Sickle, Charles E. Chadsey, and John W. Hall bespeak thoroughness and insight.

Other guides are necessary for the teaching of international goodwill. The League has in mind the preparation of a course in geography which will recognize that one great aim in teaching this subject is to make the people of one country more intelligent about other peoples, and that through geography the social conditions and the national ideals of peoples should be taught.

Just before the World War, a significant effort was made by the leading states of the world to secure international cooperation in education. The great purpose was to establish an International Bureau of Education whose functions should include a consideration of the teaching of international relations and certain educational problems in which the nations have a common interest. In 1912 the American School Citizenship League was instrumental in interesting the Government of the United States in an International Conference on Education. At the request of the United States Commissioner of Education, first vicepresident of the League, the United States Government consented to suggest to the Netherlands Government the calling of such a conference.

Invitations were sent by the Netherlands Government to the governments accredited to The Hague, asking for the appointment of delegates to a conference which should meet at The Hague in 1913. Inasmuch as a diplomatic conference on education had no precedent, government officials felt the need of a careful discussion of this new proposition. It was my privilege to respond to the request of the United States Commissioner of Education to visit the capitals of Europe in 1912 and 1913 for the purpose of explaining to the governments the objects of the conference. The

Netherlands relied on the support of the United States for the success of the conference, and the minister of foreign affairs invited me to submit a report to him of my interviews with the foreign ministers and the ministers of Education. Final invitations were sent out by the Netherlands Government calling the conference for September 1914, and almost simultaneously, the Department of State of the United States, to give the Netherlands Government an added assurance of the official interest of this government, sent a circular telegram to the American diplomatic officers at Paris, Brussels, Copenhagen, Oslo, Stockholm, Athens, London, Rome, Vienna, Madrid, Lisbon, St. Petersburg, Berne, The Hague with respect to Luxemburg, Bucharest with respect to Roumania, and Tokyo, stating the interest which the Commissioner of Education was taking in the Conference and requesting each of them to confer with the minister for foreign affairs, or with his permission with the minister of education, for the purpose of securing the acceptance of the invitation by the governments of those countries. Sixteen nations, including all the great Powers except Germany, accepted the Netherlands' invitation and appointed delegates to the conference. The nine United States delegates appointed by President Wilson were just on the point of taking their steamers when the World War broke out. This obviously prevented the holding of the conference. This is one of the lamentable results of the war, for this conference undoubtedly would have resulted in an international convention establishing an international bureau of education, which for the first time in history would have officially recognized education as a factor in the relationships of nations.

For several years before the World War, however, the national organizations of teachers in the states of Europe had recognized the teacher as an agent of international goodwill. These national organizations had combined into what was called the International Federation of National Federations of Teachers, and one of its important departments was the "Peace Section." The object of this was to work out plans and policies for teaching international goodwill in the schools. The American School Citizenship League was the American representative of this international federation, which held its annual meetings in the different capitals of Europe. The World War practically disbanded this organization.

The idea of international cooperation among teachers' organizations was again expressed in 1913 when the Board of Directors of the National Education Association voted that its annual meeting in 1915 should partake of the nature of an International Congress on Education. Following a resolution passed by the Senate and the House of Representatives, authorizing such an International Congress, the President in 1914 sent invitations to all foreign governments having representatives accredited to the United States. Invitations were also extended by the National Education Association to educational associations in other countries asking that delegates be appointed to represent them at the Congress. This was held in Oakland, California, in connection with the Panama-Pacific International Exposition in 1915. Although this Congress was unofficial in its nature, there were

representatives from thirty states of the world, some officially accredited and others appointed by national associations of teachers.

The declaration of principles adopted by this Congress, held in the midst of the World War, and participated in by representatives of all the belligerent Powers, gave proof to the world that civilization, in spite of conflict and destruction, still rested on stable foundations. This International Congress on Education appreciated to the full the teacher's responsibility for the creation of a new world order founded on international goodwill. To quote from the declaration of principles: "Of all the institutions working for the unification of mankind and the improvement of the social welfare the school stands first, and, in consequence, the importance of the stand to be taken by those who direct public education and those who teach in the schools can hardly be overestimated. What our civilization will be a quarter of a century hence will depend very largely upon the attitude assumed toward these new questions of international relations by those who are responsible for the direction of public education in all lands and nations." I remember very well how the Resolutions Committee labored over this declaration of principles, for we were dealing with a world catastrophe for which there was no precedent.

To pave the way for a progressive program in international goodwill after the war, the United States Commissioner of Education called a Conference at Atlantic City in 1918 during the meeting of the Department of Superintendence. This was attended by twenty-five of the leading educators of the country from which a committee was appointed to study educational laws and methods in other countries. The deliberations of this all-day conference registered conflicting views as to the duty of teachers and school officials while our country was at war, yet at the same time a stable current of educational responsibility for the future of mankind, as expressed in the International Congress of 1915, guided and controlled the conference.

A year after this Atlantic City meeting, at the Peace Conference in Paris, education pressed for recognition. The United States Bureau of Education was represented at this world gathering. At the suggestion of the United States Commissioner of Education, authorized by the Secretary of the Interior, I had the honor, as special collaborator of the bureau, of occupying this unique position.

Public opinion at Paris was focussed in various groups, assembled there to discuss the settlement. Two of the international groups—the Meeting of Delegates of Allied Associations for a Society of Nations, presided over by Léon Bourgeois, and the Conference of the International Council of Women and Conference of Women Suffragists of the Allied Countries and of the United States—were outstanding centers of influence, being represented respectively by six and seven allied countries. Both groups endorsed the idea of an International Bureau of Education. The resolution to this effect which I presented in the sessions of the first group was taken, with

the other resolutions passed by the group, directly to the Big Four. The resolution, as framed by the education section of the second group, calling for a permanent bureau of education, was presented at a meeting of the League of Nations Commission of the Peace Conference, which received the group officially. I also presented the resolution of the Léon Bourgeois group.

The next outstanding effort for international goodwill through education was the World Conference on Education at San Francisco in the summer of 1923. The world was then in the reconstruction period. Education again responded to the needs of humanity as shown in the purpose of the Conference given in the call: "To afford opportunity for educators of the various nations to agree upon principles and plans for the promotion of good will and mutual understanding, which are universal in their application and which can be adopted as a definite program to be carried out in the schools throughout the world."

This Conference had the same status as the 1915 Congress, invitations having been extended by the President of the United States to other nations as was done in 1915. At San Francisco there were representatives of fifty nations, the greater part of whom being delegates from teachers' organizations who had been requested by the National Education Association to send delegates, as in 1915. It was a magnificent group of intelligent, earnest, world-minded men and women who came together at San Francisco!

The plan of organization was well arranged for careful deliberation. The Conference was divided into eight groups: International Cooperation, Dissemination of Education Information, Conduct between Nations, International Ideals, Health Education, Universal Education, Rural Life Conservation, and the Pan-Pacific Union. The agreements arrived at by these groups were submitted to the plenary sessions of the entire Conference. An outspoken characteristic of the deliberations observed in the groups and the plenary sessions was the serious frankness with which the delegates expressed their opinions but always with a careful regard for other people's views.

The Conference organized the World Federation of National Education Associations, the working plan for which were the Resolutions of the group conferences as finally adopted by the plenary sessions. These resolutions fulfilled the purpose of the Conference as stated in the call. They cordially recognized the efforts of the past to teach world friendship in the schools as shown by the courses of citizenship and goodwill already in use, and finally declared, "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." The Conference registered a great advance in organizing the educational forces of the world for the promotion of international goodwill.

After the San Francisco meeting, Mr. Raphael Herman offered a prize

of \$25,000, open to the people of all countries, for the best educational plan designed to forward the movement for international comity. The competition was conducted by the Committee of the World Federation, and the prize was won by David Starr Jordan. Every suggestion in the Jordan Plan, which is entitled "A Plan of Education to Develop International Justice and Friendship," is calculated to foster international goodwill. Such devices as international correspondence, international scholarships, exchange professors, orations and essays on the subject are very familiar to the teachers of our country, and it is the hope that all these activities may be increased and extended to every part of the earth.

The Plan also proposed seven subjects for study: 1. The teaching of history and patriotism; 2. international athletic sports; 3. standing incentives to war; 4. is war necessary?; 5. a general peace committee to function with all organizations not connected with education; 6. a bureau of conciliation "to cooperate with governments in army, navy and air equipment;" and 7. the subject under the heading, general machinery for international cooperation—as to whether the Federation "shall form an international committee to scrutinize the League of Nations and the problems concerned in the same with special bearing upon international education."

The First Biennial Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations was held at Edinburgh in July 1925. Committees were appointed to make research studies on all the subjects proposed by Dr. Jordan except those on war. It was voted, however, that "the educational features of Sections 3 and 4 be combined with the other Sections."

This great Conference at Edinburg revised the Constitution of the World Federation as adopted at San Francisco. Its second Article reads: "The objects of this Federation shall be to secure international cooperation in educational enterprises, to foster the dissemination of information concerning the progress of education in all its forms among nations and peoples, to cultivate international goodwill, and to promote the interests of peace throughout the world."

The Second Biennial is to meet at Toronto this coming August, and when the delegates assemble there, most of them will have the support of their governments in the work they will do to forward the spirit of international cooperation. Last September at Geneva, fifty-five nations reindorsed the resolution adopted two years before, providing for an investigation of "the means by which efforts to promote contact and to educate the youth of all countries in the ideals of world peace and solidarity may be further developed and coordinated." The World Federation of Education Associations is one of the agencies striving to realize this world desire.

These fifty-five nations have established at Paris the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation, which is reaching out for friendly assistance to all organizations working to the same end. There are thirty-two national committees, functioning as national centres of information under the Committee on Intellectual Cooperation. Our own Committee

is composed of outstanding men and women in the educational and public life of the United States.

The governments are also assisting student organizations which are working for international goodwill. They have agreed on "the importance of encouraging contact between the younger generations of different nationalities," and are at present considering a plan which shall facilitate such contact. Special travelling facilities such as reduction of railway fares, collective passports, exchange of students and visits and inter-scholar correspondence have been suggested for embodiment in an international agreement. Many countries, it is a pleasure to note, have already adopted these devices for encouraging such contacts.

These young people receive this assistance as a matter of course. They seem to have taken the project of goodwill into their own hands. It is estimated that more than forty thousand students went from the United States to Europe last summer to travel and to study international relations. In surveying these youth efforts for friendship, one meets with the International Students Federation and the International Clubhouse for Students, with the International Bureau of the Boy Scouts, the "World Camp" of the Girl Guides, the Junior Red Cross, the International Centres of the World's Committee of the Y. W. C. A. and the World's Alliance of the Y. M. C. A., etc. Where will it all end?

Shall we, as some fearful observers declare, find ourselves following in a youth-governed world, unable to keep up in this race for friendship!

Obviously we must broaden our outlook; we must know what is happening in the world. The teacher, the torch-bearer of truth, must go forward with this great adventure of international goodwill. And more, as the sower of the seed which germinates and blossoms into ideas and actions, the teacher needs clarity, knowledge. Teaching international goodwill is an intricate enterprise. It is based on realities, on the actions of nations. The great endowment, which last year sent fifty college professors to the centres of Europe for study and observation and is planning to send an equal number of journalists for the same purpose the coming summer, might with great wisdom include in their excellent plan fifty of our forward-minded teachers, those of the every day school, who create the mind of the masses in the expression of international goodwill.

GREETINGS TO THE DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS—ABSTRACT

ANNA THOMPSON, PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM
TEACHERS, KANSAS CITY, MO.

We are gratified at the harmonious relations existing between the Department of Elementary School Principals and the Department of Classroom Teachers, and we hope this amity is an index to the state of felicity which has existed in our schools throughout the country during the year.

We wish to congratulate the Department of Elementary School Principals upon their rapid growth in power and prestige. It was my privilege to be present at Des Moines when you became a Department of the National Education Association, and the growth of class-consciousness which has developed since that time is remarkable. Classroom teachers welcome the new type of principal with his culture and his professional training. He has become a real leader of the school, and we shall all be happy to bid adieu to the old type, who functioned like a glorified errand boy. Classroom teachers have felt the spirit of progress, and are striving to achieve a higher professional spirit.

We have undertaken to discover each child's ability and we have more than ever set ourselves the task of instilling the idea that hours of sleep, play and work shall be properly balanced, and that wholesome food is necessary to growth and health. Measurement of intelligence, ability and casual grouping has claimed our attention.

Our committees have studied "problem pupils," and the results as published in our yearbook will lead to a better insight into the abnormal behavior of children.

Our Department has striven to emulate that old humanist schoolmaster, Vittorino, by making each schoolroom a "House of Delight."

We ask the cooperation of the principal's department in seeing that our classrooms are free from interruption. Stand with us in demanding the simplification of reports and records. Save the harassed teacher from overcrowded classrooms, and thus enable us to fulfill the purpose for which schools are instituted.

SOME SUGGESTIONS LOOKING TO COOPERATION AND EFFICIENCY IN THE FUNCTIONING OF SUPER- VISORS AND PRINCIPALS

MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, LOS ANGELES,
CALIF.

In this discussion, it shall be understood that a supervisor is an expert helping teacher and that a principal is the responsible head and director of the school.

The conflict of functions which sometimes seems to exist between principals and supervisors calls for a clear division of labor in the interests of cooperation and, I may add, in the interests of economy and efficiency. In the following paragraphs, I shall briefly indicate how the principal, so far from getting in the way of the supervisor, may make her work more effective and may save her time and his own, and how the supervisor may facilitate the general work of the school, as well as her own, by a genuine spirit of cooperation with the principal and by an understanding of her function as that of a helping teacher.

1. It is manifestly the duty of the principal to see that the supervisor is provided with tools and materials at the time and in the place where she needs them. To that end, the supervisor should leave her requisition for needed materials with the principal early enough to permit the materials to be secured and delivered to the classroom before the hour when they will be needed.

2. The principal should save the time of the supervisor for actual instruction by having the program of classes ready to hand on her arrival.

a. Teachers should know beforehand of the coming of the supervisor, so that they, too, may have everything in readiness for a full period of uninterrupted work. To that end, supervisors should inform principals in advance of the proposed date of their visit.

b. Teachers should be at attention to help with the mechanics of the lessons, thereby saving every moment of the supervisor's time for actual instruction. To that end, principals may well give anticipatory instruction to teachers as to "how to behave" when the supervisor comes.

3. It will often happen that a supervisor will desire some preliminary work to be done in preparation for her visit. Principals may help by seeing that such preliminary work is accomplished.

4. To advance the work and make desired progress more certain, it will greatly contribute to economy and efficiency if the principal visits classes occasionally while supervisors are at work, in order to understand more completely the problems, activities and procedures to be carried out. At any rate, there should always be conferences between the principal and the supervisor about "the next step," so that the principal may be able in his visits to classes to determine whether that next step desired by the supervisor is actually being taken.

A wise principal will not undertake to interfere with the plans of the expert supervisor; he will, however, assure himself by visits to classes that teachers are carrying out the work along the desired lines. So far from feeling that the appointment of a supervisor to his school is designed to relieve him of all instructional responsibility, the principal should interpret this new relation as placing on him the responsibility of understanding the aims, activities and procedures outlined by the supervisor, and the further responsibility of determining from time to time whether the teacher is equally understanding and is actually carrying out instructions.

5. Supervisors, in the interests of cooperation and economy, should never undertake to run the school, should never duplicate, or undertake to duplicate, the functions of the chief administrator. Their function is that of a helping teacher, just that and nothing more. They will, of course, be asked by the principal to assist him in evaluating the work of teachers, but the principal may sometimes venture to take into account in such evaluation other qualities than the instructional and may very well differ from the supervisor in his estimate. The principal's estimate should be final, or the principal should be a subject for dismissal for inefficiency.

Supervisors should not presume to engage teachers, to order supplies or equipment, although a wise principal will always seek their advice if the case is one affecting the supervisors' work.

Supervisors will not undertake to put over their ideas of control of the school; they will, however, try to understand the policies of the principal and work in harmony therewith.

6. A supervisor needs to remember that the school is larger than her own field of endeavor, that the life of the school should be integrate, that she will often be called on to assist in school projects which only touch her work, but which none-the-less have claims on her attention and services. A supervisor of drawing, for example, may be requested by the principal to undertake as a class project the making of posters for school events, for a community chest campaign, or for community pageants, or other community events. She should grasp such occasions as opportunities for the child to participate in the real life of the community, to become conscious of a wider life than that of the school.

The supervisor must be cheerful and cooperative, even though all this upsets her plans and even calls for a type of work not quite to her liking.

The supervisor of English is often hard-worked; it does seem almost unfair that she should be asked so many times to help prepare students for various public occasions, sometimes not entirely to the highest advantage of regular classwork. The supervisor, however, should interpret her functions in terms of the larger life of the school. Is not all of life that is truly fruitful a partial concession of self-interests to the interests of the group?

Turn now to the principal. The introduction of supervisors releases these school officials somewhat from supervisory functions. What are they going to do with their new leisure in the interests of greater educational efficiency? I have spoken already of the responsibility of the principal to do follow-up work, thereby making the efforts and instruction of the supervisor who visits his school more surely effective. There are other ways in which he may himself become more efficient and may contribute to the upbuilding of the school and community. If his new leisure means the doing of more mere odds and ends of things, it is not worth while. He should immediately adopt a new and vigorous program by which he will enter on new educational projects, either within or outside the school, or both.

The supervisor's assistance should enable the principal, for instance, to survey his school, in order to discover more about the individual conditions and needs of the children, or he might himself take hold vigorously of the improvement of the school along some line, such as the physical education program, the correction of minor physical defects, such as incorrect posture. He might interest himself in the improvement of English expression, oral and written. He might initiate a more satisfactory program of citizenship

that would function at once in the lives of the children, both in school and out. He might discover what seemed the greatest moral weakness in the school and introduce a regimen for its correction. The reason why we accomplish so little is because we undertake nothing seriously and persistently.

A second use of the new leisure for greater educational efficiency should be mentioned. There might be attempts at the educational betterment of the community. Social contacts may be very pleasant, also very wasteful of time and opportunity. There is a type of helpful contact that is bound to command the respect of the worthwhile element in any community and that will surely contribute to the upbuilding of the life of the community. One might mention the following as some of these ways in which the principal might become more efficient in his community as an educational leader:

He might establish a class for Bible study, or for the study of some other classic. He might undertake the improvement of the community in some physical way, such as interesting certain groups in wholesome physical recreation to be had in the school gymnasium or on Saturday afternoons. One most valuable contribution in a certain community was a class for parents, in which they were taught children's games and how to play with their children—a very useful service to both parents and children.

The principal might try to interpret modern education to his community, telling them what we teach; why and how we teach the greatly diversified curriculum of the modern school.

This new leisure that comes to principals through the assistance of supervisors belongs to the people and should be used in their interests, should surely be made to contribute either directly or indirectly to the educational efficiency.

A third possible use of this new leisure time may be mentioned. A principal should rejoice to avail himself of this time for reading, study and reflection. In no other way can the principal himself become more efficient, and to become more useful is an ever present obligation in this, the most significant and influential occupation of modern time.

The world moves so fast. The history of centuries is crowded into the life of a single generation. The science of yesterday is obsolete today. The trappings of life, its fashions and customs are out of date in a year. An automobile bought today must be exchanged within a year, or at least within two years, in order to have the benefit of the latest improvements devised in automobile alley or laboratory.

Yes, the world does move fast and education cannot linger, principals cannot rest on present knowledge, or on what they learned in college. To command the respect of the intelligent in any community, they must know as much, and more, and must be able to converse with understanding and administer their schools with wisdom based on knowledge. The new

knowledge released from laboratories and observatories each year fills volumes. Some of it is told in simple, understandable form for the unscientific, making it possible for all teachers to gain a fair grasp of the new knowledge developing every day in this world of ours.

No principal can afford to spend all of his time in detail, all of his leisure in sports or automobiling. He should and must bone down to good study, to stiff reading, not only along the lines of his occupation, but along many other lines. It would be a matter of interest to find how many principals read books, and how many are satisfied with the snatchy sort of information that comes through digests and magazines.

Science, especially, progresses with amazing rapidity. A recent writer in the preface to one of his books says: "Science moves fast these days. I may state that the hormone of a certain gland is 'not yet known'; Professor John Abel may have isolated it yesterday and announce the fact next year. When I studied anatomy under Thomas Dwight—to whom I owe much—I was told nothing about a certain little gland in our throat without which we cannot live. The activating principle of that gland has been discovered, and the secretion of another vital gland has been isolated, since I wrote the first word of this book. No one had heard of a vitamin a few years ago, nor had any vitamin been isolated when I began this book; one and possibly two, has since been isolated." We all agree that you and I cannot afford to be ignorant about tests, measurements, segregation into ability groups, about projects and the outstanding facts of psychology and mental hygiene; no more can we afford to be ignorant about conditions in Europe, the new discoveries in human anatomy, the never ending discoveries in nature and life, the marvelous reversals of opinion as expressed in discarding of old theories and the adoption of new theories, such, for example, as the abandonment of the nebular hypothesis as an explanation of the way in which our earth began, the abandoning of the atomic theory because of the discoveries by Robert A. Millikan of electrons, the calling in question even of the laws of gravity in view of the assumptions of the Einstein theory of relativity.

Fortunate principals, who have the opportunity to make themselves more efficient leaders, their schools more educationally efficient and their communities more understanding, because of the new leisure that comes through the giving of supervisor help!

Fortunate teachers! Who have the kindly, sincere help of supervisors who come to the rooms with fresh material, with new suggestions as to procedure, with demonstrations of the helpful personality that makes light of the petty incident, the petty trouble, that sweeps away the cloud of discouragement and brings the radiant light of hope of final successful accomplishment.

COOPERATIVE SUPERVISION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL—ABSTRACT

ELIZABETH R. MCCORMICK, PRINCIPAL, HOWE SCHOOL, SUPERIOR, WIS.,
PRESIDENT, WISCONSIN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

Union and cooperation between supervisors and the supervised who are endeavoring to solve the problems of method and procedure in education are absolutely essential to the success of their work. Already there has been some measure of achievement in this coordination but with that we are not yet satisfied and that we still aim at further cooperation is a good sign.

Ideal cooperation in supervision means voluntary association of superintendent, supervisors, teachers and principal in which they would organize democratically to assist each other through mutual action in which the motive would be service to the children.

Service is the soul of cooperation.

The big superintendent and the big principal passes on big ideas and makes an appeal to intelligence in his subordinates, instead of demanding blind obedience.

Where there was a real spirit of cooperation superior officers might frequently admit that subordinates had more practical ideas than their own.

The most learned modern educator is himself not a genius. His is himself plus the great educators from Moses to Thorndike.

Growth cannot be expected unless the superintendent, and in his turn the principal, creates an atmosphere in which teachers and principals may work in unhampered freedom.

COOPERATIVE SUPERVISION

GRACE G. SWAN, DIRECTOR OF ELEMENTARY PRACTICE, PITTSBURGH, PA.

In order to successfully supervise, it is essential that the supervisor have an adequate preparation for the task before her; an appreciation of the responsibility placed upon her; an ability to diagnose conditions and provide the remedy where and when it is needed.

In Pittsburgh, last year, we inaugurated the plan of sending two supervisors to the same school at the same time; one to supervise the first and second grades, the other the third and fourth grades. This was done (1) to conserve the time of the principal; (2) to allow both supervisors, in conference with the principal, to get his reaction toward the work; (3) to give the supervisors an opportunity to get the spirit of each school and its needs.

Under the direction of the supervisors, teachers who are doing outstanding work are selected to give demonstration lessons showing a definite

plan of procedure. These lessons are invariably followed by a period of discussion the results of which are soon evident.

Many teachers need to be shown the value of scientific tests, how to use them, and how to study the results obtained therefrom. No teacher should look upon these tests as a measure of her ability as an instructor but rather as a measure whereby she can ascertain where the weaknesses exist and through the information so revealed be able to apply the remedy best suited to correct the existing faults.

There is as much danger lurking in fulsome praise as there is in unjust criticism; one may produce a feeling of self-satisfaction which will stop growth while the other may cause discouragement and distrust of self that will hinder or dwarf future endeavor. Teachers need encouragement. The satisfaction that comes from a "well-done," when it rings true, will produce an abundant harvest of success.

COOPERATIVE SUPERVISION

CORNELIA S. ADAIR, TEACHER, RICHMOND PUBLIC SCHOOLS

In order to discuss the question of cooperative supervision, one should give the term a definite meaning. Is it simply the expression of a spirit of friendliness among supervisors, principals and teachers that would lead each one, as far as possible, to further any plan or suggestion of the other? Or, does it mean a working together of all the educational forces for the training of the children of the nation? If the second suggestion is accepted, and I take it that it is the more acceptable of the two, we must weigh each element of supervision to see which lend themselves to cooperative effort.

Since I am speaking as a classroom teacher, my question is—"What knowledge of supervision is necessary to a teacher in order that she may cooperate?"

It seems to me that she should know the purposes of supervision—especially where they affect her work; know something of its technic and have an appreciation of the art. There are many ways in which a principal may help a new teacher to adjust to her position, to see the school work as a whole and the importance of her part in it; to get the thrill that comes from helping to mold human lives. A supervisor may encourage both new and experienced teachers to grow into more efficient work and greater professional spirit. If the teachers are conscious of the theory back of the efforts, both will work more successfully.

There are many kinds of supervision, but the most effective has a definite aim in view. If the teacher knows that purpose, valuable time and effort will be conserved and much of the timidity with which most teachers regard supervision will be removed. Just as modern methods of education are shifting the emphasis in the classroom from instruction to supervision, so is better professional training and equipment of teachers changing the

plane of relationship of supervisors, principals and teachers. With the knowledge of the purposes and technic of supervision comes to the teachers a knowledge of what they may expect of the principals and supervisors and what the department of supervision should expect of them.

What are some of the difficulties in the way of cooperative supervision? Administrative difficulties first present themselves to the mind. The principal is so busy attending to the physical plant, seeing that the various weeks, drives, and other expressions of civic propaganda are successfully executed, adjusting matters of discipline and so through the multitudinous duties that hamper the performance of his most important duty—the supervision of instruction. Little time is left for supervision of the individual classroom and less for the conferences that cooperative supervision would necessitate.

I would not minimize the importance of these administrative matters. Perhaps these very problems may be used as a means to foster a better understanding among supervisors, teachers, and pupils.

Before cooperation among members of the staff can be established, there must come conferences—individual conferences and conferences in small groups. Carefully planned faculty meetings—meetings that are more than lectures or animated bulletins.

There are other more personal reasons why cooperative supervision is difficult. Some teachers prefer to be “let alone.” They do not wish to spend their afternoons in discussion groups. In this, as in any work involving the human element, the question of personalities of both teachers and supervisors, always an intangible factor, must be reckoned with.

To capitalize the idealism with which most teachers regard their supervisors and their work, to suggest corrective measures, when necessary, to give due praise, to offer encouragement to greater effort, these are marks of artistic supervision.

To know how to accept praise or blame and to profit by each, to acknowledge the worth of supervision and to weigh each problem, not from the teacher’s standpoint alone, but in the light of the need of the child, these are the attitudes of teachers possessed of high ethical standards.

Since mutual understanding and mutual respect are the bases of all cooperation, one solution of our problem may lie in the participation of every one in the school system, either personally or through his representatives, in the working out of educational policies. In this way, only, may the system be seen as a whole. Let supervisors, principals and teachers meet around a common table to share in making the rules and regulations under which they work, let there be committees to conform to the committees of the school board, let them have periodic joint meetings, let joint committees make the curricula—in short let each know the other through sharing a common problem. Place difficulties openly before the group. This is our school system—we are jointly responsible for it. Let each one know the joy of creative work. Actually work together, so that each may recognize

the capabilities of others and understand the motives. Thus may a spirit of loyalty—*esprit de corps*—be established.

In the classrooms are problems—teaching problems—to be solved jointly by principal, teacher, and children. Under modern educational methods the teacher is becoming more of a supervisor and less of an instructor. Research covering various fields is now being conducted in classrooms by teachers themselves. The *Second Yearbook* of the Department of Classroom Teachers shows excellent examples of the types of investigation now being carried on by teacher organizations.

We believe that the ideal of administration and supervision is so to conduct the schools that each child will receive the training best suited to his talents and ability—the education that will most adequately fit him for life. We Americans believe in cooperative effort. If supervision be a vital factor in education, and I believe it is, we should have the best kind of supervision—supervision with an eye single to the advantage of the child. Without this ideal, our great educational system will fall short of its high purpose.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS AND TRAINING FOR THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIP

W. T. LONGSHORE, PRINCIPAL, GREENWOOD SCHOOL, KANSAS CITY, MO.

Declaring that the most important people in the whole civilized universe are schoolmasters, H. G. Wells says: "The schoolmaster's place is not only important but extremely important. That is my thesis. I want to put it with boldness, shamelessness, arrogance and aggression. I want to suggest that they should up and take hold of the world. I shall tell you nothing new if I betray a consciousness that arrogance in taking hold of the world is not a characteristic of all schoolmasters. It is extraordinary that a lot of schoolmasters seem to be unconscious not only of the importance but of the range of their functions." No elementary school principal thinks of giving according to measure. Once engaged, he gives his best, gives his personal interest, himself. His heart is in his work, and for this no equivalent is possible; what is accepted is in the nature of a fee, gratuity or consideration, which enables him who receives it to maintain a certain expected mode of life. The real payment is the work itself—this and a chance to join with other members of the profession in guiding and enlarging the sphere of its activities.

The elementary school principal must believe in the dignity and importance of his position. He should make a solemn affirmation of its importance and conduct his school and himself so that the community, the superintendent of schools, and the board of education will recognize it. The work is as important as that of the high school principal, and for equal

preparation, efficiency, experience and success should receive the same professional recognition and salary when the positions have responsibilities which are relatively comparable. Elementary school principals are not asking favors. They are demanding that the rights of the younger children shall be recognized, and that they shall be treated fairly, that is, that they shall be given an equal chance. The idea of "skimming" the elementary schools to get teachers and principals to build up the junior high schools and the senior high schools is wrong. This "skimming process" must stop, because it is wrong in theory, psychology, pedagogy, and practice. No one will deny that this "skimming process" is going on in the schools. Why should an elementary school principal have to look to a high school principalship for a promotion to get enough money to maintain his family properly, and to do justice to himself professionally? Why should an elementary school teacher have to look to a position in a high school for promotion? Often such promotions spoil excellent elementary school teachers and make poor high school teachers. Rare talent is lost to the elementary schools each year because of the stupidity of traditional philosophy and practice. Emphasis is placed upon the wrong end, that is, at the finish instead of the beginning of institutional life and training.

The work of a principal of schools is to get things done through other people. He must know, in a general way, at least, what is to be accomplished, and through his organization he must know, to a certain extent, the capacity, abilities and undertakings of those who work with him. It is true that the successful principal of a school must have a high ideal of what his pupils are going to do and what they are going to be when they leave school. The work, then, of getting things done through others involves not only a certain amount of general information, together with special knowledge and a certain understanding of the technic to be employed, but it also means that the principal must be a master in dealing with human beings. Getting things done through other people is a different problem from that which is involved in achieving through one's own efforts. It is one thing to do a piece of work and quite another to get it done successfully.

There are human factors in all administrations to be considered. What are the human factors involved in the work of the principalship of the public elementary school? With whom does one have to deal? In other words, who are the persons through whom one must work in order to get things done that are worth doing? These persons are teachers or members of the school staff, and these persons differ among themselves more than the famous provinces of Gaul did. If a principal has twenty teachers, he has twenty different personalities to deal with. There are no two alike, yet there are at least two general types of teachers. The first type is the teacher who loves the subjects that she teaches. Outstanding in one's personal experience there may be two or three such teachers. They are the ones whose great love for a subject prompted them to study it. They are

the only ones who bring the subject to pupils in such a way that they in turn come to respect it, if not to love it.

It is the purpose of the Committee on Standards and Training for the Elementary School Principalship to work out a plan to raise the entrance requirements for the elementary school principalship to that of the high school principalship, or even to that of a college professorship, in order that a single salary schedule might be feasible and applicable. Thus a free choice of talent would be allowed to serve in its chosen field of education; at the same time service would carry with it a dignity which would be recognized by adequate compensation. An elementary school principal ought to have perfectly definite ideas on certain matters with which he is concerned. For example, he ought to know how to make a study of the pupil population of his school and district. He ought to have some very definite ideas on classroom supervision. The writer is in favor of specific and clearly defined courses for the principal. This does not at all preclude the possibility of giving to the prospective principals a broad general view of education through courses on the curriculum and history of schools. But it does mean that the main part of the principal's training ought to be specific and definite.

Another general point which should be made in this connection is that every administrative officer ought to do some definite piece of research work as a part of the training for his advanced degree. The writer does not believe at all in training which does not include some very definite requirements for original work on the part of the candidate. The elementary school principal should secure a bachelor's degree before he enters service. Candidates for principalships should be required to hold this degree with a major in education. It is not too much to expect that the principal in service will continue his professional training, and that he will earn a master's degree and eventually a doctorate. It is possible that the next ten years will see the master's degree established as a requirement of candidates for the principalship, since by that time graduate courses, especially for principals, will have been prepared and tested. All too frequently at present the courses which are offered do not contribute definitely to the service of the principal. They do, however, give him a breadth of view which is desirable for every educational leader.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

CARL F. ZOOK, ATKINSON SCHOOL, PORTLAND, ORE.

The Resolutions Committee duly appointed by your president begs to submit the following report.

I. *Whereas:* The question of the establishment of a Department of Education under a Secretary as a member of the President's Cabinet has been and is now before Congress and,

Whereas: Little remains of information or argument that has not been presented for or against such a plan, therefore, be it,

Resolved: That we endorse the Curtis-Reed bill and urge school principals to keep in touch with their Congressmen and local Chambers of Commerce in an effort to have this legislation enacted into law.

II. *Whereas:* The value of the services of the N. E. A. and associated departments is attested by school executives throughout the nation and,

Whereas: Many members and delegates are prevented from attending meetings and conventions because of the expense involved, therefore, be it,

Resolved: That boards of education be requested to include in their budgets appropriations to cover expenses of delegates to conventions and meetings, particularly to meetings of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

III. *Whereas:* The best success of an organization demands a membership that includes approximately all eligible, therefore, be it, *Resolved:* That we recommend to local clubs and associations a coinclusive plan of membership—a plan whereby one fee covers membership in local, state, and national organizations; and be it further, *Resolved:* That state superintendents be called upon to recommend or urge membership upon principals not reached through local associations or city superintendents.

IV. *Whereas:* Tenure of office in some degree has been quite generally bestowed on teachers and principals, and,

Whereas: The fire of politicians has in consequence been directed at superintendents, many of whom have been unjustly dropped from their positions to the serious detriment of the schools, therefore be it, *Resolved:* That this Department urges the extension of the policy and principle of indefinite tenure to teachers, principals, and superintendents alike, and that we request the support of the National Education Association in this effort.

V. *Whereas:* The elementary schools are as important as any section or unit of educational systems, therefore, be it, *Resolved:* That the single salary schedule should obtain for principals, whether elementary, junior high, or senior high, on the basis of training, experience, and number of pupils enrolled; and be it further *Resolved:* That the same time for preliminary duties on full salary as is now allowed junior high and senior high school principals, be allowed also to elementary school principals.

VI. *Whereas:* The publications of our Department—the Bulletins and Yearbooks—are invaluable contributions to the literature on school operation, and,

Whereas: It is important that school directors and superintendents be informed as to our plans, policies, and procedures, therefore, be it *Resolved:* That we recommend that local associations or clubs arrange to place these publications in the libraries of our superintendents.

VII. *Whereas:* Character education or training is regarded by educators and laymen in general as among the important functions of the school, and,

Whereas: Both principals need inspiration and guidance in this important field, therefore, be it, *Resolved:* That this department request the National Education Association Research Division to study and report the Detroit plan and other plans that have been tried and found valuable.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

F. H. DUFFY, CHAIRMAN, COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS, AND
PRINCIPAL, HARDING JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL, STEUBENVILLE, OHIO

The biggest piece of work in the way of progress that our schools can do today is the preparation for those who are to rule in the future.

A conservation or off-setting of the present day economic waste must come from an adjusted form of education if our posterity is to benefit by what we are attempting to pass down to them and which is more or less delusive in its content.

A general summing-up over the entire country of the items reported by the Committee on Educational Progress shows a graduated line of progress. However, the line should rise very much more abruptly. Here and there the communities are arranging to care for the old and incapacitated teacher by the establishment of pension laws; colleges and universities are being strengthened as never before and an effort toward the centralization of the teaching unit is being made in the rural districts.

It cannot be denied, however, that the public schools of the nation are still the target of corrupt politicians and progress of the proper kind will be retarded as long as the practice continues. The educational system of our country is far from progressing to the point where it is keeping in step with modern industry and for the development of that which will permit the generations of the near future to maintain the liberties and independence which we and former generations have so democratically enjoyed. The present steam-gas-electric-wireless age is carrying us forward at such a terrific rate that it far overbalances our present maximum of education. Economically we are living on the fat of the land. When we compare our educational progress during the last two decades with that of the commercial and industrial development during the same period of time, the former all but fades out of the picture. Unless our educational system is so adjusted as to off-set the present whirlwind of material progress, we predict that our grandchildren and great-grandchildren, sitting in legislative halls, will find themselves in a similar position to that of the proverbial farmer who locked the barn after the thief was gone with the horse.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

WARREN A. ROE, BELMONT AVENUE SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

The year 1926-27 has been marked by many noteworthy contributions to educational literature from the pens of the elementary principals of America.

It is evident that the stimulation provided by the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association is functioning and that we may hope to see the great potential constructive educational force of the combined abilities of the principals of every type of elementary school made available for the service of the schools of America. It is a vision of service that should call to the spirit of the men and women who head our schools. Can we add to the laboratory of theory of the college and university, the intelligent produce of the laboratory of practice? If so, wonderful achievement awaits us just beyond the threshold of our endeavor.

To the many able people, whose contributions published or unpublished have unitedly made possible the bulletins this department has issued, we send our hearty thanks. May they all add again their present professional studies to those they have already made. We shall hope that to their goodly number will be added this year many more. To the officers, committee chairmen and speakers whose cooperation has aided the recording of our programs and work, we express our appreciation.

Our membership has grown steadily. It appears as though we had a service to render that invites the support of all. The coming year looks full of promise for wide-spread and continued success for this department.

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

E. RUTH PYRTLE, PRINCIPAL, MCKINLEY SCHOOL, LINCOLN, NEBR.

The growth and interest in the Department of Elementary School Principals has been remarkable, almost phenomenal in our short six years of existence.

This department is recognized in the educational world as one of the most alert and truly professionally minded groups working in American education. The fine professional research study as reflected in our publications together with the bi-yearly programs and the superior work done, day by day, in the classrooms, in the nation-wide field of education, has won a cordial respect, a recognition and commendation for the principalship from all classes of educators.

Our opportunity as individual principals, and as an organized department group, is measured only by our vision and devotion to our field of work—the elementary field. Elementary principals are becoming professionally conscious, or shall I say, are now professionally conscious.

The six yearbooks and seventeen bulletins, filled largely with contributions from our own members, have received the highest praise from leading educators both home and abroad. The 1928 yearbook will be the report of Committee on Standards and Training of Elementary Principals. This report promises to be a most valuable contribution to the whole field of education.

Our host, Superintendent Thomas R. Coie of the Pacific Coast, said last year of this department: "It is my opinion that the elementary school principals have made the greatest progress during the last ten years professionally of any group of educators in the public school work. The Seattle school system has profited much by this professional growth."

May I now gratefully acknowledge and personally thank each and every person of this Department who has worked so zealously and untiringly and thus brought about the success of the work of the Department through this year.

CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS *DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS*

ADOPTED AT SEATTLE, JULY 7, 1927

A great majority of our future citizens receive all their formal education in the elementary school. To it is intrusted the physical, mental, and moral training of the child during its tenderest years, and to it we must look for that basic training upon which all future education must rest. Educators everywhere and our federal, state and local governments are realizing more and more the responsibility placed upon the elementary school, but primarily it is the elementary school principal who must face these responsibilities intimately. To meet the responsibilities of elementary education with a united mind and purpose, to study the problems of the elementary school with a broad and sympathetic outlook, to enlist the aid of educational forces everywhere, and in general, to give to the elementary child the advantages of united effort, we do hereby form the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association and adopt the following Constitution:

Article I. Name

The name of the organization shall be the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Education Association.

Article II. Membership

SECTION 1. Membership in the Department of Elementary School Principals shall be of two classes, Active members and Associate members.

SECTION 2. State, county, or supervisory principals of Elementary Schools, who are members of the National Education Association, may become Active members by paying the annual dues.

SECTION 3. Other persons, not supervisory principals, who are interested in Elementary Education may become Associate Members by paying the annual dues. Associate Members shall have all the rights and privileges of Active members except the right to vote and the right to hold office.

Article III. Officers

SECTION 1. The officers of the Department shall be the president, five vicepresidents, and the secretary, and they shall each hold office for a period of one year from date of election.

SECTION 2. No elective officer may hold the same office for more than one term until the lapse of a period of one year or more.

SECTION 3. The retiring President shall become automatically the First Vicepresident.

SECTION 4. The Executive Committee shall consist of all the officers together with four members elected at large. Retiring officers shall be ineligible to election to the Executive Committee until the lapse of one year or more.

SECTION 5. Members at large shall hold office for four years, one member retiring each year. The member receiving the largest number of votes at the first election shall serve for four years, and the others three, two and one respectively, according to the number of votes received.

SECTION 6. The President of the Department shall be Chairman of the Executive Committee and the Secretary of the Department shall be the Secretary of the Executive Committee.

Article IV. Elections

SECTION 1. Election of officers and Executive Committee shall take place in the business session held during the summer meeting of the National Education Association.

SECTION 2. Election shall be by ballot.

SECTION 3. Active members only are entitled to vote.

SECTION 4. A Nomination Committee of five members, not less than two of whom shall be members of the Executive Committee, shall be appointed by the President at the first session of the summer meeting or earlier. This Committee shall nominate one candidate for each office to be filled. Nominations from the floor shall be permitted.

Article V. Duties of Officers

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Department and of the Executive Committee; appoint all committees not otherwise provided for; call meetings of the Executive Committee at his pleasure or upon written request of four of its members; sign all orders on the Treasury; and perform such other duties as may from time to time devolve upon him. He shall be, ex officio, a member of all standing committees.

SECTION 2. In the absence of the President of the Department, the Vice-Presidents, in order, shall perform all the duties of that office.

SECTION 3. The Secretary shall keep careful records of the proceedings of the Department and of all its committees; and he shall be responsible for their preservation. Within 30 days after any meeting of the Department and within ten days after any meeting of the Executive Committee, the Secretary shall furnish a copy of the minutes to each member of the Executive Committee. He shall prepare and keep an accurate list of the members of the Department with their post office addresses; and perform such other duties as may, from time to time, devolve upon him.

SECTION 4. The Executive Committee shall be the administrative body of the Department, subject to the call of the President, except as otherwise provided for in the Constitution. To supplement and assist the President in the conduct of his office, the Executive Committee shall, by a majority vote of all its members, fill all vacancies, except that of the President. The President or Executive Committee shall prepare in advance a program for each annual meeting of the Department, and shall cause the same to be published prior to the meeting.

SECTION 5. The annual report shall contain a list of officers and committees of the Department, a list of members of the Department, together with their addresses and such other matter as the Executive Committee may direct. This report may be printed as a Yearbook of the Department.

BYLAWS

Article I

There shall be the following standing committees and such other special committees as the President may appoint: Committee on Educational Progress, Committee on Resolutions, Committee on Enrollment.

Article II. Organization and Conduct of Committees

The first meeting of a committee shall be called by the first-named member thereof, who shall be its chairman. Minutes of the proceedings of each standing committee shall be kept and a copy thereof certified by the chairman and secretary shall be promptly furnished to the Secretary of the Department. All standing committees shall report to the Department in writing at the annual meeting. Vacancies in all committees except the Executive Committee shall be filled by the President of the Department.

Article III. Committees

SECTION 1. Committee on Educational Progress. The Committee on Educational Progress shall consist of one member from each state. This committee shall bring before the Department such features of educational progress as it may deem worthy of consideration.

SECTION 2. Committee on Resolutions. All resolutions offered at an annual meeting of the Department shall be referred to the Committee on Resolutions, unless otherwise ordered by the Department. This Committee shall submit to the Department for its consideration such resolutions as they may deem advisable.

SECTION 3. Committee on Enrolment. The Committee on Enrolment shall consist of not less than one member from each state, but additional members may be appointed by the President of the Department. This committee shall secure members for the Department, collect the annual dues and pay them to the Secretary, furnishing him therewith a list of the names and postoffice addresses of members from whom such dues have been collected, and giving each member the Secretary's receipt, countersigned by a member of the committee.

Article IV. Books, Records, Paper, and Property

SECTION 1. The records and accounts of the Department and of its officers, committees, departments, sections, and divisions, shall be kept in books provided by the Department, which shall be the property of the Department.

SECTION 2. All books, papers, records, and accounts of the Department and its officers, committees, departments, sections, and divisions, shall be open at all times to the inspection of the Executive Committee or any member thereof.

SECTION 3. Every officer, member, committee, department, section, or division of the Department having funds, papers, books, records or property of any description belonging to the Department shall give up the same on demand to his or their successors in office or to the person authorized by the Department or its Executive Committee to receive the same.

Article V. Dues

SECTION 1. The annual fee for membership shall be three dollars (\$3.00).

SECTION 2. The Fiscal Year of the Department shall coincide with that of the National Education Association, but memberships shall run for one year from date received by National Education Association headquarters.

Article VI

Ten cents from the membership fee of each member annually shall be set aside as a permanent Reserve Fund of the Department. This fund shall be placed in charge of the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association to be invested and conserved for the Department of Elementary School Principals. The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association shall be the Trustees of said Reserve Fund. At each annual summer meeting of the Department the Trustees shall report in detail the condition of said Fund and shall apportion the income to such

uses as to the Department of Elementary School Principals may seem advisable. No part of the principal of said Fund shall be spent except after the unanimous recommendation of the Executive Committee of the Department of Elementary School Principals duly ratified by a two-thirds vote of the members present at a stated annual summer meeting of the Department.

Article VII. Robert's Rules of Order

The rules and orders of Robert's "Rules of Order," not inconsistent with this Constitution, shall govern the meetings of the Department and its committees.

Article VIII. Rules on Debate

The Department shall be governed by the ruling of the National Education Association that debates shall be limited to five minutes unless otherwise ordered during the year.

Article IX. Amending the Constitution

SECTION 1. An amendment to the Constitution or Bylaws may be proposed by the Executive Committee or by a petition of at least ten regular members of the Department.

SECTION 2. The proposed amendment shall be read in regular session at least twenty-four hours before a vote is taken upon it.

SECTION 3. Two-thirds of the votes of the members present in a regular session will be necessary to make the proposed amendment part of the Constitution.

Article X

This instrument shall become operative from and after the last meeting of the summer session of the year 1927.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

The excellent Seattle meeting began at 7:30 A. M. July 4th, with the breakfast conference at the Olympic Hotel. A large and interested group heard a short report from the enrolment committee which showed progress. The Committee on Vacation and All-Year Schools presented a report showing the valuable progress made in these fields.

Tuesday began with Vicepresident Hansen reporting for the Committee on Educational Progress to an enthusiastic group at the 7:30 breakfast conference. The afternoon meeting at Plymouth Church was well attended. President Gwinn of the Department of Superintendence brought greetings from that Department. Dean William F. Russell, Teachers College Columbia University, spoke upon "International Gossip." Miss Margaret Poore, Oakland, California, presented a

paper in the discussion following. Committees upon Resolutions and Nominations were named.

The evening banquet on Tuesday brought over three hundred principals and guests together. The tables were beautifully decorated with flowers. A glee club and quartet from Seattle supplied most enjoyable music. Short but pointed addresses by the guests and officers together with the community singing and the very excellent dinner combined to make a memorable occasion which those present will long remember.

Wednesday began with the breakfast report by the Committee on Standards and Training to another large group. The afternoon session received greetings from the Department of Classroom Teachers conveyed by Miss Anna Thompson, Kansas City, Mo., president of that Department. The topic of the meeting was "Cooperative Supervision," discussed most adequately for the superintendent by Susan M. Dorsey, Los Angeles, California; for the elementary principal by Elizabeth McCormick, Superior, Wis.; for the elementary supervisor by Grace M. Swan, Pittsburgh, Pa., and for the classroom teacher by Cornelia S. Adair, Richmond, Va. The report of the Committee on Revision of Constitution and By-laws was presented by Chairman M. E. Peterson, Los Angeles, California, and considerable discussion ensued.

Thursday morning the Executive Committee held an open conference at breakfast at 7:30. Later the committee held its formal meeting. The afternoon session received the report of the Committee on Standards and Training. Reports of committees were received and accepted. The amended Constitution and Bylaws were adopted and the following officers were elected in conformity with the constitution:

President—ARTHUR S. GIST, Frick School, Oakland, Cal.

First Vicepresident—E. RUTH PYRTLE, Bancroft School, Lincoln, Nebr.

Second Vicepresident—WARREN A. ROE, Belmont Ave. School, Newark, N. J.

Third Vicepresident—HERBERT C. HANSEN, Talcott School, Chicago, Ill.

Fourth Vicepresident—MRS. JULIA M. WHITE, Denver, Colo.

Secretary—HELEN B. SHOVE, Longfellow School, Minneapolis, Minn.

Executive Committee—W. T. LONGSHORE, Greenwood School, Kansas City, Mo.
(Term expires 1928.)

MRS. JESSIE M. FINK, Buchanan School, Grand Rapids, Mich. (Term expires 1929.)

M. E. PETERSON, Twentieth Street School, Los Angeles, Calif. (Term expires 1930.)

ELIZABETH MCCORMICK, Howe School, Superior, Wis.
(Term expires 1931.)

The convention recorded its appreciation of the fine work done by the Seattle Committee under the leadership of President Charles Potter of the Seattle Principals' club.

The Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY EDUCATION grew out of a meeting of the Froebel Institute of North America, which met in connection with the Association's meeting in Madison, Wisconsin, in 1884. See *Proceedings* 1884:74. This department cooperates with the International Kindergarten Union, whose officers for 1927-28 are: *President*, Caroline Barbour, Superior, Wis.; *Secretary*, LuVerne Crabtree, Washington, D. C. The Union publishes a monthly magazine, *Childhood Education*.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Eleanor Troxell, 1125 S. Westnedge Ave., Kalamazoo, Mich.; *Vicepresident*, Elizabeth Hall, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Secretary*, M. Elizabeth Brugger, Kindergarten-Primary Training School, 2050 E. 96th St., Cleveland, Ohio.

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and records of its meetings will be found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1884: 74	1893:321-381	1902:409-430	1911:477-517	1919:171-179
1885:349-368	1894:679-704	1903:377-407	1912:607-633	1920:191-203
1886:500-559	1895:510-560	1904:415-437	1913:425-447	1921:461-471
1887:331-391	1896:471-514	1905:341-373	1914:405-421	1922:969-987
1888:325-359	1897:584-614	1906:626-630	1915:629-671	1923:705-719
1889:443-482	1898:589-620	1907:455-475	1916:289-311	1924:583-597
1890:545-581	1899:530-575	1908:501-543	1917:417-431	1925:478-504
1891:529-568	1900:365-403	1909:437-457	1918:151-157	1926:495-527
1892:253-303	1901:500-540	1910:377-417		

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE INCREASING EMPHASIS ON THE EDUCATION FOR YOUNG CHILDREN

FRANK E. WILLARD, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
SEATTLE, WASH.

A DISCUSSION of educational tendency today must be partly an interpretation and partly a prophesy. The body of educational thought and practice with which we deal does not move in unison, but only in various detachments, each according to its own volition. We must be concerned more with the direction of change than with its speed.

People from the beginning have been accustomed to learn by imitation. They think, feel, act, and believe as their social environment has trained them to do these things. Thus civilization is transmitted. Traditional thought and attitudes are received by the younger generation ready made like the clothing they wear. They inherit an imposing array of social, political, and religious institutions and beliefs, a mixture of the slowly accumulated wisdom and the persistent error of the centuries.

Men do not choose to imitate. They are incapable of doing otherwise. The original thought of any single generation is but an infinitesimal part of its civilization. Moreover, this stream of influence coming down from the past has not encouraged original thinking. The suggestion of change disturbs settled interests. Generations may pass before the majority of men are reconciled to truth recently discovered. Yet when such discoveries after a period of conflict do survive, the darkness enshrouding some traditional ignorance is dispelled and fundamental conceptions of life are changed. Educational philosophy encountered such a discovery in the kindergarten. The kindergarten presented a new conception of method which a practical test has never failed to justify, yet its progress has been very gradual. In this country a select few gave it an enthusiastic welcome. It was generally received cautiously and with much shaking of heads. It was more easily tolerated because it occupied itself with a period of child life that most adults considered quite barren and more or less troublesome at best. It seemed to have little in common with the regular grades. For a time after its introduction it remained quite distinct. Its first adherents were generally strict constructionists, and emphasized the separateness. The elementary schools were devoted to drill. Primary teachers were openly skeptical of too much activity stimulated by interest. It was clearly out of harmony with the schedules of phonics and number combinations to which conscientious teachers had consecrated their lives. These served the practical ends of life. Social intercourse was dependent on them. They at any rate could not be neglected. It was doubtful if they could be much improved. The various phonic creeds were jealously defended as essential bases of learning. Nevertheless, it was conceded that the kindergartner might have the child of five if she would try not to ruin him for the seasoned discipline and mental concentration that the next year would surely require of him. So matters stood for a time.

The earlier school years have not only been remade; their relative importance has greatly increased. Psychologists are helping us to visualize a part of life where memory fails. That seemingly barren and almost forgotten period is found to be a most productive one. It not only precedes adolescent and adult life, but gives direction to many of its forces. "Childhood," we are told, "determines life's outlook. Opinions and convictions may change, but underlying tendencies seldom do." "Beliefs imparted to children or induced later by powerful teaching or by striking experience come to be held with a feeling of absolute inner certainty which seems a revelation of final truth." To quote again "It has become generally recognized among progressive educators, as well as psychologists, that the foundations of the character of the future adult are all laid down before the seventh year. The education of the child begins at birth, and crowded into the first early years are all the opportunities for the development of the feelings and emotions which are so necessary for adequate human relations."

A satisfactory life must be built on right attitudes and healthful outlooks. In addition to this, there must be understanding; and understanding comes only from experience. The significance of this principle to educational practice is only beginning to be appreciated. Most current problems in curriculum readjustment grow out of an effort to correct deficiencies due to past failure to take it into account. The school of the last century perhaps did not so much need to take it into account as we do. It has frequently been pointed out that the conditions of family and community life until recently furnished ample informal educative experience to which the school was only supplementary. The changes in economic and social life wrought by the advent of an industrial age have taken the most of these influences out of the life of children and beyond the range of the common observation. The schools substituted for this real experience volumes of vicarious experience. This was classified, condensed, and deleted of most of the personal element that gave it meaning. The results that followed were too meager and uncertain to suit the spirit of a dynamic age. Neither the child nor the adult has more than a reluctant appetite for static information dissociated from any active interest. A new interpretation of experience was needed, a new classroom technic essential.

The new educational philosophy applies the principle of self-directed activity and social cooperation to a reconstruction of general education. It is being expressed through courses of study written in terms of children's interests and activities. It is shifting the emphasis away from some time-honored standards of excellence. Its ideal pupil attitude is not the docile receptive one of the older school. It measures improvement in terms of doing good rather than being good. It frankly discards much that has come down to us from our predecessors, and finds the materials for growth of understanding among the activities of living. The experiences of children are close to the fundamental interests of life. The understanding of these is basal to all social understanding. The new viewpoint recognizes the value of direct observation, of first-hand experience, of personal experi-

ment, of interesting adventure, and last, but not least, of creative effort. It has respect for personal opinion, for appreciation, for aspiration, for well-meant effort. It esteems these things directly, placing them in the center of the curriculum where they will dominate the daily program. It recognizes that knowledge is power only when it is linked with experience.

The primary grades have taken the initiative in putting into practice this interpretation of education. It was logical for them to lead the way. Educational readjustment naturally begins with the younger children. Later development depends upon the character of the start. Moreover, the primary grades in approaching a common viewpoint with the kindergarten were first to question traditional values. It has been declared that all new ideas originate in the minds of those intellectually gifted and filter down to the populace. It might have been added that they become effective as pattern of conduct in the lives of the populace only after they have been rooted in the childhood of the generation that possesses them. The grammar grades are following the example of the primary. The activities of older children are equally suggestive and stimulating. It is possible for them through reading to participate indirectly in larger and more varied activities. The capacity of children to act independently, to assume responsibility, to think intelligently is unsuspected by those who adhere closely to the "learn and recite" ritual. An activity program induces a subtle change in the relation of teacher to pupil. Social situations are created and pupils share in the solution of problems. There is no place for a dictator. Things must be thought out. The teacher may participate, she may counsel, and sometimes when a situation arises where only the experience of age or of the ages can give the answer, she must instruct. But she is through all only a senior partner in learning.

Out of this there comes a school that is different from the old school—different in spirit and in attitude. It is busy and cheerful but not suppressed. There is lacking both the apathy and the furtive mischief that tradition ascribes to the good old school of yesterday. There is more freedom of participation, more confidence in effort, more purpose in achievement, more democracy in spirit. There is growth of personality and there is the liberty of self-control. It is not yet an ideal school but it is in many places a real school.

We are not through with social change. Invention and industrial reorganization continue unabated. The movement away from social stability shows no signs of slackening. Thousands live and work under highly complex conditions that are possible only so long as people understand and trust one another. Every decade sees the scope of organization extended and this interdependence become more complete. There are those who fear that our capacity for organization has already outgrown our capacity for control. Certainly grave issues are sure to arise. We cannot solve them. We cannot even foresee what they will be. If we could know, our inherited prejudices would unfit us to interpret them correctly. A new generation not yet out of the schools will face the problem of making over

customs, habits, and institutions to fit the needs of a new day. It is the problem of education to develop a cultural freedom and an honest tolerance which can look fairly and dispassionately at the issues of life. Democracy in adult life can be fairly tried out only after our classrooms have given genuine experience in its practice. It is "quality not quantity that makes life significant."

THE NURSERY SCHOOL CHILD AND HIS NEEDS

HELEN M. CHRISTIANSEN, DIRECTOR OF NURSERY-KINDERGARTENS, GOLDEN GATE ASSOCIATION, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

To state the needs of the nursery school child, we must borrow the structure of a cumulative tale, for his needs are so closely connected and as interdependent as the sequence of events in such a story as that of "The Old Woman Who Found a Sixpence." The child's needs as an organism make a good starting point—fresh air, sunshine, wholesome food, sleep, cleanliness, activity. But when we have considered these necessities, we have only the first incident in the tale.

We are concerned with the fact that the child has needs as a perceiving, doing, thinking individual, and that his reactions from this angle cannot be satisfactorily considered in isolation, but must be studied in conjunction with the previously found physical needs. Moreover, he is already feeling and expressing his reactions to that which is beautiful whenever environmental conditions are favorable. Another important group of needs—and closely allied to those just enumerated—grows out of the fact that he must be thought of as a member of a social group. And the climax of this living tale is the total personality of the child which is largely the outcome of the accumulated successes, compromises, or failures of society in meeting these closely interrelated needs.

It is the obligation of educators of young children to raise society's present standards of achievement in meeting the physical, mental, social, and creative needs of early childhood.

The major portion of the infant's needs are necessarily supplied by the adult. But from the beginning, it is the part of wisdom to remember that the ultimate objective is that of freeing the individual by making it possible for him to meet his own needs. Herein lies the secret of human happiness. The mother, the nursery teacher, the kindergartner, and the primary teacher must all cooperate in this respect, using, if one may speak figuratively, a sliding scale which registers a constantly increasing proportion of needs being met by the child for himself.

A. The needs of the child met primarily through adult provision include the following outstanding necessities:

1. Fresh air and sunlight.
2. Ample indoor and outdoor space for activity.
3. Well balanced diet.
4. Suitable clothing.
5. Proper facilities for relaxation and rest.

6. Regular schedule for eating and sleeping.
7. Medical supervision.
8. Nurse's daily inspection.
9. Rooms simple and artistic in color combination and arrangement.
10. Equipment suited both to the stages of development and to the sizes of the children composing the group.

This list of fundamental needs indicates the necessity of new courses in the curricula of our teacher training institutions in order that adults be prepared to make adequate provision for these essentials of childhood.

B. Needs met largely by the child through his reactions to carefully selected materials may best be expressed in terms of his needs for activity and consequently for equipment of a type to furnish appropriate stimuli.

The active child needs

1. To engage in activities which have to do with his physical care, such as washing and dressing.
2. To have freedom for self-initiated, self-managed play activities with accompanying responsibilities in connection with handling of materials and with regard for the rights of other children.
3. To engage in activities necessitating big muscle activity and subsequent motor control.
4. To engage in activities involving manipulation, experimentation, construction.
5. To have intimate contact with growing things.

His environment should provide

Dressing room facilities which make it possible for him to assume progressively more and more responsibility as he acquires motor skill.

Cupboard, shelf, storage space, and room arrangement such that many do—with materials which are easily available.

Kiddie Kars, wagons, carts, walking boards, slide, jungle gym, boxes, big building blocks.

Sand, plasticene, blocks, pegboards, insets, toy vehicles, toy animals, crayons, water-colors, wood, hammers and nails.

Flowers, plants, shrubs, pets.

C. Certain needs are readily met by the child's own volition as a result of the social setting of the nursery school which stimulates a high level of living for this particular age. He needs at this stage to be establishing the following habits and attitudes:

1. To eat readily the wholesome foods provided.
2. To prepare for and take his daily afternoon nap as a matter of course.
3. To try to do more for himself as a result of seeing what other children do and to find satisfaction in his new attainments.
4. To grow in ability to converse with others.
5. To comply readily and cheerfully with adult requests and suggestions, as—

Going to see the nurse.

Letting another child have a turn with material.

Positive suggestion as to use of material when child is using it in a detrimental way.

Going to get ready for dinner.

D. The following are typical of needs best met as a result of the combined effect of materials and social experiences with one's peers which the nursery school situation provides. He needs:

1. To grow in motor skill in the use of physical play apparatus as a result of desirable imitation of and participation in the plays of others.
2. To initiate, plan and manage activities involving not only self, but others.
3. To enter into new ways of doing and thinking and feeling through dramatic play.
4. To share enjoyment of objects, colors and ideas expressed in pictures; to point to, discuss and call attention to details; to ask for and enjoy music related to objects and ideas portrayed.
5. To share enjoyment of Mother Goose Rhymes, verses and stories of the "here and now."
6. To share enjoyment of music expressing the mood, activity or interest of the moment.

Music furnishes a good illustration of increased enjoyment when the experience is shared with others. One morning a child asked for train music and sat down near the piano to listen. But soon the rhythm of the music suggested the "chug" of the engine and he began to say "choo! choo! choo!" and rotated his arms. Another day he asked for this music again, and noticing the chairs near the piano, he arranged them in a long line to form a train before sitting down to listen. Others joined him. The following day, another child helped him arrange the chairs and several were seated in the train before the music began. Nearly all "chugged" and used arms and feet rhythmically. When the music stopped, some got off at the station to go for a visit in the country. This play, which began individually, was eventually being carried on one morning by ten children, quite spontaneously, but with much more detail than at the outset. At their request, the music was repeated six times. The sharing of this experience had added to their pleasure and led to the discovery of new play possibilities.

Social activities of the types above indicated are of the children's own choosing. Gradually as they come to find keener enjoyment in experiences which are shared, there is more chance for activity to lead on to further activity, and for the development of finer appreciations.

E. The scientific guidance of the nursery teacher is necessary in meeting the needs of the child as a developing personality.

1. As a feeling and expressing individual, he needs the sympathetic understanding and keen perception of a teacher who is herself creative and who reflects this characteristic by providing an environment conducive to creativity.
2. He needs to have the beginnings of creative expression recognized and encouraged by a ready response on the teacher's part with just the right bit of music for the hopping or dancing step he is experimenting with; by crooning with him the little melody he is forming to the rhythm of the swing as it goes back and forth; by singing a song or chanting a verse to fit the mood or dramatic play of the moment; or by recognizing his desire to experiment with color by placing suitable materials at his disposal.
3. He needs to be considered as a total personality. Chronological age, mental age, development history, and present physical condition must all be taken into account in deciding what constitutes high grade living for him at this level.

4. He needs a unified environment wherein the quality of living is held high throughout the twenty-four hour day. This can be realized only as a result of understanding and close cooperation on the part of the mother and nursery teacher. It requires real purpose and something of the scientific attitude on the part of parents in assuming their share of the responsibility of educating the child. It requires, on the teacher's part, a deep interest in humanity with its social and economic problems, vision as to what constitutes the good life, and ability to express the principles involved in child-training so simply and effectively that any parent may comprehend.
5. Each Nursery School child needs an individual curriculum. While the needs enumerated on our sliding scale form the basis for a general curriculum for the child between the ages of two and four years, no two children are exactly in the same stage of development at the same time, nor will any two have an identical sequence of experience.

The teacher, the parent and the child together shape the individual curriculum and of necessity it is made currently. From time to time, the teacher, as a result of observation and records, may make a cross-section study which shows the level of the child's living at that particular time. She is then able to adjust her scale and to set the stage for meeting the outstanding needs of the individual she has observed.

As our children go from the nursery school into the kindergarten and primary grades, the sliding scale is still needed. The chief headings remain the same, but, under each, new items must be added and the indicator moved forward. It should now register the fact that children are meeting more and more needs for themselves.

It is highly essential for us, as teachers of young children, whether engaged primarily in the nursery school, the kindergarten, or the primary grades, to work together in close cooperation in the adjustment of our sliding scale to the end that a high level of living may be maintained for each child from year to year.

THE PRIMARY GRADES—A CONTINUATION OF OPPORTUNITY FOR CREATIVE SELFEXPRESSION

ETTA H. TESSMER, PRINCIPAL, TAYLOR SCHOOL, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

That education is not merely a preparation for life but that it really is life, is an educational truth so well established that it certainly does not need defense or explanation. We are all agreed, I am sure, that the school life of the child should be real and full of purposeful activity. To be real and to be purposeful, school activities must be the result of the child's desire to express himself. How are we to carry on such a program and at the same time meet the requirements of the course of study?

Until very recently the little child entering the first grade was confronted with a dead wall of subjectmatter which he must scale as best he could with the help of "drills." If he failed then he must have more and more drills. But now, since the nursery schools and the kindergarten have blazed a trail for us, we come out and meet the child on his own level. The subjectmatter

curriculum, dealing with ideas about activities is being replaced by the activity curriculum which provides practice in the activities themselves.

I have been asked to describe the practical working out of such a program.

The school is far out on the edge of the city. The people who send their children to us are almost all foreign-born, the majority with only a meager education in their homeland. The children themselves are, for the most part, American-born, although most of them hear a foreign language spoken at home. We have two kindergarten classes, so that about half of the children entering our first grades have had the advantage of kindergarten training.

Our building is not old but it has not all the modern features of the new schools lately erected in our city. We have movable furniture (tables and chairs) in our first and second grades, but in the third grade rooms the old screwed-down type. These third grade rooms have been rearranged so that the seats are in a hollow square or U-shape. This gives a better setting for group work.

The children in each class room are divided into three groups according to ability and the work required of each group is modified accordingly. The teacher's daily plan provides suitable material for each group each day.

We divide the term roughly into quarters and each teacher plans with her class the work to be done. The choice is often determined by the season and centers around some holiday as St. Valentine's Day, May Day, Flag Day, Thanksgiving, etc.

After a vacation, when some child described a visit to Petaluma, the class constructed a wayside booth where chickens and eggs were sold to "tourists." This project was so popular and yielded so much practical arithmetic that it was continued for many weeks at fever heat.

Stores and bazaars are always popular, especially in second grades and continue for various periods, according to the interest of the class.

A postoffice has been one of the most valuable activities both in second and third grades.

Sometimes the desire to give some form of entertainment furnishes the motive. A third grade library book called "Animal Land Children" furnished the incentive for a puppet show, which yielded rich returns in reading, spelling, arithmetic, nature work, and language.

We use health plays as incentives for our work very frequently because our little people need to be taught even the simplest and most obvious health habits.

Sometimes a class project is part of a general school activity, as, for instance, the celebration of Flag Day with a school pageant in which every class had a part.

It sometimes happens that a plan for a quarter develops and continues for an entire term. In a first grade room recently the teacher and class built a life size playhouse which was designed as a dining room where the milk and crackers could be served each morning. The children made all the articles necessary for setting the table, adorned the windows with gay

paper drapes and constructed window boxes on the outside. They painted the outside walls and papered the inside. At the end of the period as planned the children pleaded to keep their house, so it was decided to convert it into a living-room. This was done and it was furnished appropriately. A fireplace was installed and a chimney erected on the outside. Later, it was converted into a modern bedroom with open windows, twin beds, and dainty drapes matching the bed covers and rug. On the day before the Christmas vacation when the children entered the room they found no teacher but out of their playhouse chimney stepped Santa himself in cap, beard, boots, and everything, with a huge pack on his back. The building and furnishing of the house provided material for "stories" printed by the teacher with the rubber sign printing set, to be used as reading lessons. The children's vocabulary was enriched and they went far beyond the requirement in number work, in learning to count articles needed, to add or subtract in real situations and to measure space and estimate material. But, best of all, they learned fundamental principles of American home life, social usage and healthful living.

To return to our plan. The teacher studies the enterprise suggested by the children and analyses it to discover its educational elements, and to estimate the length of time necessary to carry out the plan. This requires careful study and organization in order to provide for practice in every phase of school work.

Having evaluated and analysed her plan, the teacher proceeds to put it into effect through her daily work plan. Each day, each group has work assigned that will contribute toward the progress of the enterprise. A class discussion is held each day to criticize results, to suggest improvements and to decide on the next step. Quite often progress must be temporarily suspended in order to repair glaring deficiencies as, for instance, when a correct letter form must be laboriously practiced before invitations can be sent out, or when the awkward squad in spelling or number must get help before stories can be written or bookkeeping for the store can be correctly and efficiently carried on.

The daily newspaper, which is found in some form in every class room, reports progress and serves as a clearinghouse for bits of news as to birthdays, class triumphs, school events, etc. The position of "editor" is a coveted honor and editors are changed often so that it becomes worth while to write well, to form correct sentences, to know when to use a capital letter and to punctuate correctly. These "newspapers" may be written on the board by the editor from cooperative class suggestions or written individually by pupils. In the lower grades they are "composed" from strips printed by the teacher.

In order that progress may be kept always before the children and they may feel a consciousness of achievement, there is always a selfchecking chart. Its essential parts are a list of pupils' names in a vertical column and various activities in columns to be checked as completed by each child. The charts are often ingeniously devised by clever teachers in keeping with the

season or the activity in progress, at Christmas time small green stickers shaped like Christmas trees are used; pumpkins at Hallowe'en, etc. These charts are large and easily accessible so that pupils even in 1A classes may check their own progress. No phase of classroom work has done more to foster a real working spirit and a sense of personal pride and group responsibility than these charts.

The best and most gratifying results of work of this kind are the discoveries we make. We discover young poets who can write appropriate verses. We discover clever minds that can invent riddles to puzzle us. We discover fine mathematicians who can not only solve the hardest problems themselves but can teach other members of the group to master the intricacies of the multiplication table or to make change at the classroom store. We discover clever artisans who can build the witch's den or the fairy palace. We discover young artists who can paint clever scenery or make beautiful decorations. We discover young actors who can lose their timidity and selfconsciousness when given a chance to impersonate a giant, a soldier or a fairy godmother. We discover who are leaders, who are the best managers. We discover just what chance each one needs, just what his weaknesses are, in what he excels and how best to help him.

Our best reward has come from working with happy children and from the enthusiastic support and approval of the parents who are so keenly anxious that their children should have a better chance than they themselves have had.

A STUDY OF THE INTERESTS AND ACTIVITIES OF CHILDREN—ABSTRACT

J. L. MERIAM, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA AT LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

For years children in our traditional schools have been called upon to study books written by adults, while, on the other hand, there is great need that adults study children.

Data relating to activities of children reveal child life and expose teachers and parents to a modern education greatly needed by them in the conduct of our schools.

Childhood has been grossly undervalued. The farmer has fed little pigs for pork and young calves for beef. After much the same fashion schools have trained our boys and girls toward adulthood. And not without some good results, be it emphatically said. But we can do better. Improvement in the schooling of children rests upon a much more intimate knowledge of the normal activities of children. Data now being studied warrant two theses:

1. Child life is one of doing, primarily; and learning, only secondarily. "Learning by doing" has been badly abused by most teachers. With learning foremost, traditional school methods provide occasions to do primarily as a means to learn. Data show children in action; there should be occasion to learn only as a means of acting better.

2. Childlife is one of play, coordinate with any work that is to be done. The adult, both teacher and parent, has abused childlife by using its play as a motive for work. This is conspicuous in the modern "project method," so popular in our schools. In the light of our data, this procedure must be characterized as "soft pedagogy." It is needless, and more, it is an insult to childhood. Work is not unnatural to children, but it must be suited to them. Children must not be made over, through play, to suit assigned work.

Two leading implications for our modern schools are clear:

1. The curriculum should consist, essentially, of the activities of children, leading, in later grades and the high school, to a study of the specific activities of people.

2. The curriculum should consist of a good balance of wholesome play and vigorous work, commensurate with real life.

JUDGING THE WORTH OF ACTIVITIES

HELEN REYNOLDS, DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF KINDERGARTEN AND
PRIMARY EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS, SEATTLE, WASH.

The very statement of the subject indicates that we are committed to a program of activities as the basis for the curriculum. This means we can assume that we are that end of the group which is designated in the Twenty-sixth Yearbook as standing for the growth of the child as a member of the social group, as the center of our curriculum. Having taken our stand with those who believe in the activities' program, we are confronted as teachers, in the presence of groups of children and as members of those groups, with the necessity of developing criteria to be used in determining whether to encourage or discourage activities initiated by the children. We must also have some standards for deciding what activities we ourselves will stimulate, for the teacher is still the member of the group oldest in experience. In educational literature there have been apparently few attempts definitely to formulate these criteria in this relationship, though, of course, the movement toward the specific statement of objectives and aims is distinctly in this direction. We are, moreover, confronted in our analysis by the realization that as Dr. Kilpatrick puts it, "not all learning can be assigned," and while we are aiming for one objective desirable in itself, other learning not so desirable may be taking place. The "Habit Lists" compiled by Dr. Rogers and Miss Andrus are attempts at setting up standards or outcomes which should result from the experiences gained through life activities carried on at home or at school. No teacher can shut her eyes to the great body of scientific investigation which has resulted in outlining very clearly the steps in arriving with most children at desirable technics in certain definite lines. Shall any mistaken idea of giving the children freedom interfere with our directing their work in line with the study of research workers? On the other hand, are we going to become so interested in testing and checking and labelling the little children who come to us, in parceling them into groups and laying out for them schedules to

be completed, that we shall ignore their right to enough leisure and opportunity for growing in those qualities and abilities which they as individuals possess? Are we going to ignore the chance of variation which may lead to some creative contribution to the group in which the child lives, in our overemphasis on acquiring the skills of life? Creative effort is still the hope of our really moving forward.

To set up our criteria is one thing. To cling to them and apply them is quite another. Objectives fine to the point of hair-splitting may be formulated and lists of activities may be added which have nothing to do with them. The chance for children to do in a better way what they would do any way may be entirely ignored even when criteria and activity lists are on paper. To what extent are we really living up to our doctrine which we have formulated in black and white? Are we justified unless each day we look backward over the day's happenings and judge them by the standards which in moments of study and reflection we have set up, saying to ourselves, "This was good, and that was better. These things must be different tomorrow?" Can we take each day as a problem to be freshly solved in the light of all that we have learned from the successes and failures of our effort the day before?

In the study of this problem a request was sent to Seattle kindergarten-primary teachers asking for the criteria used in determining whether to encourage or discourage activities initiated by the children themselves.

Two hundred and thirty-five responses were received. The results of the effort to apply in Seattle the criteria set up may be seen in our exhibit at the Alexander Hamilton Intermediate School. Responses were also received from 12 experts in childhood education. With three of the latter the statement represented the thinking of groups. A summary of the results will be prepared.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

First Session—The Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Span

The meeting was called to order by the President, Julia L. Hahn, Director of Kindergarten and Primary Grades, Public Schools, San Francisco, California. The report of the meeting in Philadelphia was read and approved.

The Nominating Committee was appointed by the chair to nominate officers for the coming year. The Committee consisted of Flora E. Drake, Frances M. Berry, and Bess Ellis Steigleder.

The program offered was an exceedingly stimulating one and was enthusiastically received, education of the young child as a continuous process being the central thought.

Frank E. Willard, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Seattle, Washington, spoke on "The Significance of the Increasing Emphasis on the Education of Young Children."

Helen Christiansen, Director of Nursery-Kindergartens, Golden Gate Association, San Francisco, California, gave an address on "The Nursery School Child and His Needs."

Mary Dabney Davis was to have spoken on "The Kindergarten—A Link in the Steady Development Plan," but was unable to be present. In order to complete the unit Julia L. Hahn, President of the Department, spoke briefly as follows:

When the kindergarten began to be accepted as the first step in elementary education, the searchlight of scientific research was turned upon its procedures. Modern psychology and child study demanded a reorganization of kindergarten and primary grades, and as a result emphasis was placed upon the unification of the two. The emphasis was shifted to the child, less upon the teaching process and more upon the learning process.

The nursery school, even though not yet generally established in public schools, was accepted in spirit, and has made parents and teachers conscious of education as habit formation. The kindergarten welcomes the nursery school child, builds up on his nursery school training, leads him a step further along his line of growth, then sends him on to an understanding primary teacher, who consistently builds up on the same principle.

Etta Tessmer, Principal, Taylor School, San Francisco, Cal., spoke on "The Primary Grades—a Continuation of Opportunity for Creative Self-Expression." She described the practical working out of an activity curriculum which provides practice in the activities themselves. The work often is determined by the season, excursion trips, vacation trips, and covers a definite period of time—usually a quarter of the term. Entertainments presenting puppet shows and health plays yield rich returns in reading, spelling, arithmetic, nature work, and language.

Second Session—Outgrowths of a Unified Activity Program for Young Children

Report of the nominating committee was as follows:

President—Eleanor Troxell, Kalamazoo, Mich.

Vicepresident—Elizabeth Hall, Minneapolis, Minn.

Secretary—Elizabeth Bruger, Cleveland, Ohio.

The report was accepted, and the officers unanimously elected.

J. L. Meriam, Professor of Education, Southern Branch, University of California, Los Angeles, California, presented an address on "A Study of the Interests and Activities of Children." It was introduced with two theses:

- I. Parents and teachers fail to provide children and pupils with occupations called for by their natures and their needs; fail—not by reason of indifference but because of a lack of understanding and appreciations of childlife.
- II. Parents and teachers should generously provide little people with opportunity to be far more active in doing—in contrast with the emphasis usually given to learning.

In the home and community there is often a lack of occupational activity. In the school the situation is similar but different. There is a marked tendency to considerably enrich our curriculum with life acts out of school rather than increase the school acts within. We have wrongly assumed that childlife is best spent in learning.

He referred to a study presented in "Childhood Education," April 1925, which indicated that boys of six to twelve years play more generally than they work, and that they are more frequently giving expression through doing things than they are receiving impressions by way of what we term learning.

This was followed by his study of 150 boys and girls between the ages of six and twelve who were observed at irregular times without their awareness of observation. Two thousand eight hundred and forty-seven of their activities not directly connected with school were recorded. These activities were classified into four groups—play, work, observation and communication. The figures indicate that 43 percent of out-of-school activities are of a play character, about 23 percent of the nature of work, about 20 percent observation, and 14 percent communication.

Two questions arising from this data, which Dr. Meriam considered and explained are:

- I. What is the value of collecting such data as a contribution for guidance of parents and teachers in helping to interpret child life and to stimulate more intelligent and sympathetic study?
- II. How shall we face the difficulties involved in discontinuing the conventional classification of children's activities?

In concluding his study he made these suggestions. Childlife is one of doing, primarily, and learning, only secondarily. Children's interests and activities must not be sacrificed in helping them acquire the three R's. Though childlife is one of play to a very large extent, children are not adverse to work. Work is not unnatural to children but it must be suited to them. The curriculum from kindergarten to college should consist of a good balance of wholesome play and vigorous work, commensurate with real life.

Helen Reynolds, Director, Department of Kindergarten and Primary Education, Public Schools, Seattle, Washington, read a paper on "Judging the Worth of Activities." This problem involved so many questions in its solution, it was decided that requests be sent to Seattle kindergarten-primary teachers asking them to list the criteria used in determining whether to encourage or discourage activities initiated by the children themselves, or those which lead the teacher to stimulate certain activities. Two hundred and thirty-five responses were received, which Miss Reynolds read in question form.

Mildred Miller, Primary Supervisor, Public Schools, Cleveland Heights, Ohio, read a paper on "Enlarging Community Experience Through the Use of Excursions in Primary Grades."

Detailed accounts of excursions made by the first, second, and third grades to local places of interest were given; showing the relation between children, teacher and people of institutions visited, the opportunity to study children through their own responses, and the increase in community experience by providing vivid first hand experience with real objects, persons, and situations. Insofar as possible, the children's responses to the projects were tabulated, and each response showed whether it was spontaneous on the child's part or teacher directed.

The curriculum of the Cleveland Heights school is largely an activity curriculum. The excursion project has a definite place on the daily program and in many instances it gives material for spelling, oral and written language, nature study, manual arts, reading, and music.

The tables show that excursion experiences enrich every tool subject; provide many accessory learnings, for example—leadership, cooperation, habits, ability to initiate purposes and carry out plans; and may be one of the chief means of integrating the entire field of subjectmatter.

On Thursday, July 7, the Kindergarten-Primary Department of Seattle public schools gave a luncheon at which 650 were entertained in the most delightful fashion.

Joseph M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools of San Francisco, and President of the Department of Superintendence, was the only speaker. His subject was "Elephant's Ears and Elephants." There are as many educational theories as religious denominations. Six blind men touched an elephant—one on its ear, one on its trunk, one on its tail, and so on. Each built up a theory of the appearance of the elephant based on the part he had touched. Each was right in part—none wholly so. Educators have many theories, each one of which is to be its salvation. There is the platoon plan, the socialized recitation, the activities program, and others. Each is right in part—none wholly so. It is necessary that these various theories or points of view should be molded into a philosophy of education—one which will function. For, while a philosophy of education is good, the practice of the philosophy is better.

Miss Hahn introduced the guests to the Seattle hostesses, and extended our grateful thanks to them for their hospitality and entertainment.

Department of Lip-Reading

THE DEPARTMENT OF LIP-READING was established at the Philadelphia meeting of the National Education Association, in July, 1926, following the required successive meetings of the group, and after a petition had been presented to the Association.

The officers for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Caroline F. Kimball, 39 Jackson St., East Lynn, Mass.; *Vicepresident*, Agnes Stowell, 1056 Euclid Ave., Berkeley, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Alice I. Putnam, 3610 Milam St., Houston, Texas. Meetings are held once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are to be found in the following pages: 473-486.

WHAT THE CITY OF HOUSTON IS DOING FOR ITS HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN THROUGH THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

E. E. OBERHOLTZER, SUPERINTENDENT PUBLIC SCHOOLS, HOUSTON, TEXAS

THE Department of Lip-Reading in the Houston public schools is just in its infancy. For a number of years, in a limited way, Houston has conducted a school for the totally deaf, but for those children who are partially deaf or hard-of-hearing very little has been done. This work is now a part of the general program of the Houston public schools.

This group of children under discussion is entitled to all of the privileges of the school, according to ability, aptitude and potentialities. Organization and procedure must be set up in a way that discovery is made of impairment of hearing in its early stages and that the curriculum is so constructed and adapted as to meet the age level and ability level of the child, and broad enough in its scope to help the child meet the social, civic, economic and other responsibilities of life.

A survey of the various schools and the various sources of information, such as the school census, reports from clinics, etc., were first made to gather information concerning the group of children with impaired hearing. A great many of these children were found in the backward group, but in no sense can the child with the impaired hearing be classed always as backward. The initial classes in lip-reading were set up, using as a basis the reports from the principals of the schools where there were children partially deaf, or suspected of being so.

At first the hand-audiometer was used, but later the department of health education, with the cooperation of Miss Putnam, secured the loan of the Number 4-A audiometer from the Graybar Electric Company. Many schools were tested during the short period we were permitted to use this audiometer. In some cases, every child in the school was tested. Where the loss of hearing amounted to as much as four percent or above, a special record was kept. The health report card carried this information, parents were consulted, and a remedial program was set up immediately.

Where groups were sufficient in size, a class for lip-reading was conducted at the building, while in some cases centers were established and the pupils were sent for certain periods of the day for lessons in lip-reading. During the first half year, there were fifteen classes with a total number of seventy-two pupils. This movement has grown rapidly and involves new problems of organization to meet the instruction need.

I wish to quote an excerpt from a report rendered by the supervisor of health education, Doctor T. O. Woolley:

The money spent to discover and correct defects of hearing is a paying proposition from a purely monetary viewpoint. For these pupils invariably spend more than their allotted time in each grade and the lack of efficiency in later life due to the handicap causes the earning power to be much less.

I have observed that many of the deafened pupils in our schools have increased

50 percent in their general classroom studies after a few months of lip-reading instruction. I believe that the detection of the hard-of-hearing and the degree of deafness in each is impossible in a large school system without the aid of an accurate instrument that can be used by teachers. Such an instrument is manufactured for this purpose.

You will see that Houston is well satisfied with the first year's work of the Department of Lip-Reading and will continue to aid in its growth and efficiency. The Department has met the need of training for this group of children and it has to justify its existence not only in the fact that these children are receiving what is due them from the public schools as an inherent right, but also the added improvement in the classroom for individual work as well as the improved group work in the charge of the regular teacher, since helping the hard-of-hearing child relieves the regular teacher of that special problem. Training in lip-reading helps the child to keep his place, helps him to shape his education toward some work in life, for vocational guidance is emphasized as a part of this work and helps the school to bring happiness and success to the student. Any one of these results named would justify the expenditure of such a department. The leaders of this work should feel enthusiastic over the outlook and strive unceasingly to promote such instruction in every city and community of this great nation.

LIP-READING IN THE SEATTLE SCHOOLS

MARIA P. TEMPLETON, HEAD TEACHER, SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF,
SEATTLE, WASH.

Lip-reading as an art in itself is not taught in the Seattle schools; by that I mean it is not taught in one or two or more lessons a week to the pupil while he still remains in his regular grade and the lip-reading teacher visits him in his school. No doubt there are pupils in Seattle who would be benefitted by that kind of training, and it might come later.

Here the particularly deaf children are taught in the regular school for the deaf.

When a child is a first or second grade pupil, we have found it a satisfactory method to give that child his lip-reading and school work in the regular deaf classes until lip-reading becomes a well-fixed habit. Naturally he will advance more rapidly than his totally deaf classmates. As he advances he is put into a class of partially deaf children, where he progresses as fast as he can. Later these children are returned to the hearing school. In many cases, however, the parents desire that the children should remain with us and finish their grammar school work and not return to the hearing school till ready for high school. The children who have done this have usually made most commendable records.

The aim of our deaf school is to put all of those who are capable, whether totally deaf or partially deaf, into schools of higher education.

The partially deaf child who gets into the fourth, fifth, or sixth grade,

often through the misguided kindness of over sympathetic teachers, presents quite a different problem to us. This child has usually developed an extreme inferiority complex through having lost confidence in himself. This is especially true if it is necessary for him to begin repeating his grade. He has seen himself thrust back—through no fault of his own—and he is in a state of mind where he is ready to give up, hates school, and the change to the deaf school does not make any appeal to him.

Our first great problem is to make that child feel he is an important member of society. As he gradually gains his self-respect and independence, it is much easier to make progress with his school work. We find that the education of a child who has been passed along in this manner is usually at tag ends, and gathering up these tag ends and systematically arranging them now becomes our duty. From the first, stress is laid upon lip-reading. With his new mental attitude, school work presents its happy side to him and lip-reading has a real life meaning to him.

Of course this class of children is kept in classes by themselves.

Often children who are only a little deaf have been with us a year or two, and with intensive lip-reading in all of their classes have been able to return to the grades. The small classes and individual attention makes its appeal to these children.

It is a curious thing, but frequently parents object to lip-reading for their children as they have been given to understand it would be detrimental to what hearing is present. Overcoming this prejudice is sometimes a task, but, when reluctantly they have agreed to the lip-reading work and it has helped, the parents are honest enough to admit their mistake and to give genuine thanks for the benefits derived and become our ardent advocates.

Partial deafness almost always affects the speech and then the services of a well-trained deaf teacher comes in. Teaching lip-reading is one thing and teaching correct articulation is another thing, but in the expert deaf teacher both are combined.

We do not reach all of the partially deaf in the city because parents sometimes object to the thought of sending a child to the deaf school, thus we have been limited in successfully helping every one.

Perhaps in the near future the school for the deaf in Seattle will have additional means by which it can help all classes of partially deafened children to get lip-reading instruction.

WHAT SAN FRANCISCO IS DOING FOR HARD-OF-HEARING CHILDREN

J. M. GWINN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SAN FRANCISCO

Education today, in response to the ideal that each child must be given his full chance, has been making scientifically determined inventories of the latent and achieved abilities of each child. These inventories have revealed facts and conditions appalling and have stirred society somewhat to its responsibility and duty to many classes of handicapped children and

to a consciousness of the dependence of society itself upon the welfare of these less fortunate members.

Whatever sins of commission may be charged against education today, they are dwarfed almost into nothing when compared with the cruelty and waste of human life due to the omissions in the programs of education of the "good old days."

Is it not appalling to know that there are three million children in the United States with impaired hearing; that a large proportion of the two million four hundred thousand of these children which, taken in time are curable, have not so been taken and cured? Is it not appalling that most of the six hundred thousand incurable cases of progressive deafness demanding a special educational program have not been provided with this program?

These hard-of-hearing children by the thousands and hundreds of thousands have not had the attention they need and merit due to our not knowing they were hard of hearing. We thought they were stupid or inattentive. We have been looking for mental subnormality, for bad teeth and defective eyes, for bad habits of eating, and have until recently neglected to test the hearing of children. When we looked into the ears of the child it was always a matter of hygiene.

Now that attention has been called to the fact that children with even slight hearing defects are three and one-half times as apt to be retarded as children with unimpaired hearing, surveys are being made all over the United States to find the children with defective hearing so that they may be given whatever they require in the way of medical and surgical aid or special education.

For the past year in San Francisco we have been testing the hearing of all the children in grades four to nine, inclusive. A phonograph audiometer is used in making the test. The report of the hearing survey completed to the end of this school term, June, 1927, showed that thirty schools had been tested, including 9,633 children. Eight and seven-tenths percent of these children have a loss of nine or more sensation units in one or both ears. One and six-tenths percent of the whole number of children tested are so defective in hearing as to require special training in lip-reading. These hard-of-hearing children can hear through their eyes by learning to read the lips. Teaching such children lip-reading has become an important service in our schools.

In the San Francisco public schools we have three grades of service for hard-of-hearing children. For the deaf there is a special school with its specially constructed building, specially qualified principal and teaching corps. For very hard-of-hearing children there is a special class in lip-reading operated in connection with one of the elementary schools. In practically all schools children needing lip-reading are afforded this instruction in their own schools either through the service of a visiting teacher or through a specially qualified teacher called an opportunity teacher who is a member of the teaching corps of that school.

THE PRESSING PROBLEMS OF THE DEAFENED

ALICE G. BRYANT, OTOLOGIST AND LARYNGOLOGIST, BOSTON, MASS.

Many people are apathetic to the deafened and their problems, and many have not thought deeply on this subject. There are, however, individuals and groups of trained thinkers and doers alive to the values of advancing the medical care, acoustic tests, education and opportunities of the deafened. They aim to prevent ill-health, and, wherever possible, to war against probable causes of deafness, to improve the hearing and to continue to develop lip-reading methods and speech contacts, and to invent and approve qualified instrumental hearing devices and to increase human resources and output of the deafened. It is better to prevent deafness than to remedy it. It is well to remember that machines can be repaired, but human beings must bear the scars of illnesses and inherited disease. While science and progress go hand in hand, also conscience and service have wrought great changes in the world of the deafened. The education, medical study and treatment of the deafened offer a rich field for individual and group effort. We are going to the root of the matter in our united studies and fruitful results. Progress along these lines has been slow in the past, and we have become restive, but with a closer mental picture of this vast subject a new world is opening up before us and the progress will be sure.

Our interest in the deafened individual extends to a community and national interest. It is not enough for the non-deafened to maintain a passive reception of the deafened. The former should enlarge and extend their knowledge, for the interests of the non-deafened and the deafened are mutual. The new education of the deafened will free empirical and traditional minds from the nuisance of inherited facts. Old legacies of the old systems of the wasteful, misapplied and class-repeating methods prevailing in the so-called education of the deafened are being reorganized, transformed, and expedited by the successful leaders of education, medicine, and engineering. Our correct appreciation of the economic side in the education, medical care and acoustic studies of the deafened is producing greater ability and power to obtain results—results that are not only increasingly efficient but rather efficiently productive. Broadly speaking, we have two groups to consider in our approach to the problems of the deafened: one, competent to understand and to interpret, that is, the student, the teacher, and affiliated groups; and the other, to interest and to educate, that is, the general public. This group should widen its knowledge and outlook in the schools, in which its members are in part property owners, by a closer contact with the authoritative and scholarly and scientific work of the deafened and their teachers and medical advisors.

The use of lip-reading for every deafened person is an avenue of thought communication. The transfer of words and thoughts make a common ground on which the deafened and non-deafened must meet. Lip-reading appeals to the eye and the imagination. To thoughtful people it has acted as an interpreter for the deafened. The informed deafened in their daily

routine of duties are responding to an atmosphere of freedom. Lip-reading relieves nerve strain in the hard-of-hearing, and "fatigue deafness" is lessened. Lip-reading is obtained at the cost of much time and effort and thought by both teacher and pupil. Lip-reading has diminished faint-heartedness and brooding incident to deafness. Lip-reading teachers have discovered the facts by laborious work. The true teacher of lip-reading must have infinite patience, a keen imagination, a broad knowledge and sympathy, and unbounded faith in her work.

The hard-of-hearing should not be segregated or isolated. They should have a first-hand knowledge of school conditions of work and acquaintance with their school comrades and teachers. The seemingly dull child in his new environment has become the alert child. Time after time he has out-paced his hearing schoolmate.

The desirability of the human touch, the adaptability, love and sympathy and understanding for his chosen field of work must be uppermost in the mind and heart of the ear doctor of the future who would serve the deafened.

We should watch the ears carefully from infancy onward through the years. Deafness may be due to foreign bodies, wax, obstructions, catarrhal conditions, so-called "colds," abscesses, running ears, nerve deafness, measles and scarlet-fever, diseased conditions of the tonsils, adenoids, teeth and sinuses and diffuse lymphoid tissue, improper nose cleaning, and improper care of the teeth. All these causes should demand immediate attention.

Let us stress one of the questions of the hour, namely, wrong air-conditioning in public and private abodes which affects our comfort and health. Correct air-conditioning is not a free gift. Its material cost may sometimes be heavy, but the outlay incurred will be amply repaid when brought home to the public understanding. Ignorance, neglect, carelessness, and inertia are our loopholes and pitfalls.

A fundamental step in finding the deafened is by means of mechanical ear tests. We are all familiar with the well-known testing methods of watch, voice, forks and acoumeter. They possess difficulties as distractions of attention and lack of concentration on the part of the observed individual—the child—and variations in the spoken voice of the examiner or examiners from time to time. The voice of the speaker should possess one function only, namely, that of producing upon the ear drum of the listener exactly the same variations of pressure and frequency of air impulses. This is far from possible with the human voice and not fully attained by mechanical means. The beginning of a new era in the problems of the deafened has been made possible by an acoustic engineer, Dr. Horace Fletcher, a research chief in the American Bell Telephone Laboratories. He has recently come to our aid with his epoch-making work. It is an event of more than ordinary importance. He has devised forms of instruments based on scientific principles whereby "the sound is regulated as to intensity, volume and pitch" and the system of hearing-test records is facilitated and improved. With Dr. Fletcher's ear phone phonograph

audiometer, a group of forty persons can be tested at once, or three or more groups of forty can be tested in an hour. Dr. Fletcher, in association with Dr. Edmund Prince Fowler, has tested the hearing of thousands of pupils. Dr. Bock's "danger zone" for each deafened pupil helps the otologist and classifies the pupil for the lip-reading teacher. This will be of decided advantage to the deafened child. We know "children are backward for other reasons than deafness." We also know "the deafened child has become the alert child, and the percentage of the backward and dull children has perceptibly fallen." How many times does a deafened child repeat? This class-repeating process demands drastic action. It is an extra and unnecessary capital outlay. So blatant is the unfairness of this system! The pupil is penalized. It is a waste of effort, usefulness, time, strength and thought. We cannot afford to underrate the scholastic value of the hard-of-hearing pupil.

The problems of the deafened hold an enormously important place in the schools of the country. In 1926, the National Education Association, through its Board of Directors, voted to have a Department of Lip-Reading in its organization. Our Department of Lip-Reading in action at this time in 1927 at Seattle is not regarded as a branch of another department, but a department specially created for the above purpose.

THE WHY OF ADULT LIP-READING CLASSES IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS

CORALIE N. KENFIELD, TEACHER OF LIP-READING TO THE ADULT DEAFENED,
SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

Public school lip-reading classes for the adult deafened are an evolution in educational methods as applied to the adult who is handicapped by deafness.

Such classes were bound to be, for no other reason than that of the great need of them. They offer, without price, and so for an unlimited period of time, special instruction that is absolutely essential if the individual who is deafened would continue or re-establish his contact with life.

These classes are for the deafened. The deafened are those overtaken by deafness after speech was acquired.

For a number of years, large cities have had public oral schools for deaf children where lip-reading is taught, but special lip-reading classes for partially deaf children, and for the adult deafened, have not generally been established. It is only a question of time when this instruction will become an integral part of the curriculum of city public schools.

A greater problem presents itself regarding such classes in small towns and rural districts. Because we have seen these special classes successfully established in San Francisco we are occasionally appealed to by parents of children with some hearing loss, as well as by adults. These have heard of lip-reading instruction for the deafened, but they are living too far from

cities where such instruction is given. It is not practicable to send a child away from home when his hearing loss is so small that speech is unimpaired. The question is that of keeping him in his home, and in his home district school, and at the same time enabling him to have the necessary instruction in lip-reading that is essential if he would make his grade.

Deafened adults, fathers and mothers, cannot usually leave home for the length of time required to become proficient in the art of lip-reading.

It would seem to us, if the partially deaf child, and the deafened adult, cannot go away from home to receive instruction in lip-reading that the instruction should be carried to them.

Eighty-two percent of the people of California live in cities and towns. The balance is found on farms. An important part of California's problem with the deafened is that of serving the interests of those who live in small communities.

In some districts of California, this problem has been successfully solved, so far as the adult deafened are concerned. Glendale and Santa Monica, Inglewood and Monrovia, are each about one hour's ride from Los Angeles.

Glendale and Santa Monica are served by the same teacher on alternate days. Inglewood and Monrovia are served in the same manner by a visiting teacher.

The deafened of rural districts must be served. My plea for this is just as strong as any plea that could be made for the blind.

How do I justify my plea? Of what practical value is such instruction as applied to the adult deafened?

The problem of the hard-of-hearing child in our public schools differs materially from that of the deafened adult. We have the hard-of-hearing child just where we wish him to be—in school. He is attending school because the law makes it compulsory for him to do so.

We have but to ascertain the fact of his deafness, and the degree of his hearing loss, in order to grade him and to educate him as a hard-of-hearing child should be educated.

We have to do with training, standing, and attainment as eventually affecting his adult life. Because of his undeveloped mental faculties, because his contact with life is largely through his senses, we are not baffled to any great extent by the child's mental peculiarities. The mind is at its most receptive stage and, as a usual thing, it is open to impressions and is easily molded.

In sharp contrast to this is our educational problem, or rather our re-educational problem of the adult deafened. These must be taught to read the lips that they may continue, or reestablish a normal contact with life, both socially and economically.

Employers who question deafened applicants seeking work, as to lip-reading ability, recognize certain powers of eye and mind that are characteristic of a lip-reader and that make for efficiency on the part of a deafened worker. A lip-reader has a quick, accurate eye, and an alert, receptive mind, with powers of concentration highly developed.

Afternoon public school classes for housewives and evening classes for all who are employed during the day have solved many individual problems. Listlessness, inattention and depression give way to eagerness, concentration, and understanding. Ambition is stirred and poise is gained.

In no other class of human ills is mental health more to be considered than in that of deafness when it is adventitious in the adolescent or adult. Hearing is our social sense, and it is the sense most closely allied to our emotions.

It may be presupposed that all sounds of life affect the emotional stability of the individual. We sing and dance and are exhilarated by the strains of lively music. We weep when touching words are spoken. We are depressed when we are for any length of time removed from the sound of the human voice. No picture, nor sunset, nor anything seen so moves us.

The shutting off of this channel of emotional outlet, or relief, results in what would we term a "conflict complex." The term "inferiority complex" as applied to the psychological idiosyncrasies of the adult deafened is merely one phase of the emotional conflict.

One can label and classify these idiosyncrasies, and in some cases, psychoses of the deafened, but when all is said and done, it narrows down to the manner in which the deafened individual reestablishes his contact with life, and to his method of living with himself. It becomes a problem in mental hygiene and as such must be solved through reeducation.

Jacob Reighard, University of Michigan, says:

In a class of speech reading, I have seen the habit of diffuse attention give way in a few months to that of concentrated attention. With the new habit comes an improvement in memory. With the attendant training of the power of analysis and synthesis there comes an improvement and quickening of other mental processes of which I am definitely aware, but which I cannot describe. There is no question but that the mental processes of the adult deafened are definitely and permanently improved by adequate training in speech reading.

To this the teacher of speech reading, or lip-reading as the art is popularly termed, will probably add: that anyone deafened or with normal hearing can be benefited mentally by systematic training of the apperceiving faculties. That this training may in time become such a part of the mental processes of the individual as to be wholly subconscious processes that make for mental stability and poise.

We have said that we find the hard-of-hearing child in school. Where do we find the adult deafened? We may find them in the high schools, or out of school, unable to carry on to a higher education, and unwilling to make the effort to do so.

We may find them at home, depressed and listless. We may find them at work, with the sword of Damocles hanging over their heads for fear of loss of employment because of increasing deafness. We may find them working as unskilled laborers, or out of work and unable to obtain it.

Teachers of the deafened boy or girl of high school age are often confronted with an embittered or rebellious or "don't care" frame of mind.

These young people have awakened to the realization of the degree of their handicap. They are face to face with a stern reality of life. It is all very well for parent or teacher to say "brace up and learn to read the lips."

It is an insult to youth to ask youth to philosophize. Youth is entitled to its youth, for youth implies a freedom from physical limitations. It is the time when physical prowess is at the flood tide.

The teacher of lip-reading must compromise. Here is a mind and a soul in the awakening. She is determined that there shall be no retreat to the valley of despond. She must teach her pupil to read the lips, yes, but if she herself is deafened, her greatest appeal will be by reason of the example of her attitude toward her own deafness.

As for the adult, long deafened, he has gone over into the enemy's country. It may take years to find him. Once found, he may refuse the help we offer through the free public school classes. Here we may have to combat depression and apathy. Lip-reading must be taught, because through lip-reading we not only give the ability to understand speech, but we foster and encourage the restoration of mental processes that have long since become fixed in a manner prejudicial to the individual.

In our plea for the adult deafened, we ask the establishment of lip-reading classes in our public schools. We ask that lip-reading courses be offered and the work inaugurated, if but two or three are gathered together. The deafened adult who becomes a lip-reader is one restored to the right side of life's social and economic ledger. He is no longer a liability. He has become an asset.

REPORT OF THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LIP-READING OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

This being the first meeting of the Department of Lip-Reading of the National Education Association, we present the following brief report of the organization of the department.

A group of teachers actively engaged in giving instruction in lip-reading to hard-of-hearing adults and children in some of the public schools sought and obtained permission of the National Education Association officials to hold a conference in connection with the National Education Association Convention.

The first conference, which was held in Washington, D. C., July, 1924, was not attended by a large number, but the vital interest of those who were there prompted them to proceed with plans for the establishment of a department of lip-reading in the National Education Association. Under the rules of the National Education Association, it was necessary that constructive meetings be held three years in succession and that a petition for the establishment of a Department of Lip-Reading, accompanied by the signature of 250 members of the National Education Association, be presented to the Directors of the Association.

The second conference was held at the National Education Association Convention in Indianapolis, Indiana, in 1925. The following were appointed on the committee to secure the signature of 250 members of the National Education Association:

1. Charles S. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Somerville, Mass., Chairman.
2. Caroline F. Kimball, Teacher of Lip-Reading, Lynn, Mass.
3. Martha E. Bruhn, Principal Mueller-Walle School of Lip-Reading, Boston, Mass.
4. Coralie N. Kenfield, Co-principal, California School of Lip Reading, San Francisco, Cal.

This committee secured over three hundred signatures from twenty-five different states, and the petition for the establishment of a Department of Lip-Reading in the National Education Association was presented to the proper committee at the convention of the National Education Association in Philadelphia in 1926, after the third constructive lip-reading conference had been held.

The petition was reported favorably and the Department of Lip-Reading was established by the Directors of the National Education Association at the Philadelphia meeting. The president, Dr. Francis G. Blair, appointed the following as officers in the new department:

President—Caroline F. Kimball, Lynn, Mass.

Vice-president—Agnes Stowell, Berkeley, Cal.

Secretary-Treasurer—Alice I. Putnam, Houston, Tex.

The first meeting of the Department of Lip-Reading was to be held in Seattle, Washington, July, 1927.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

The first business meeting of the Department of Lip-Reading of the National Education Association was held in the Junior Hall of the Plymouth Church in Seattle, Washington, July 6, 1927, at 3:15 P. M.

After the meeting had been called to order by the president, a short report of the establishment of the Department of Lip-Reading in the National Education Association was read by the secretary.

The president appointed a nominating committee to nominate officers for the Department for the ensuing year.

A constitution was presented, and adopted by unanimous vote.

The treasurer's report was read and accepted.

The nomination committee presented the list of nominees as officers for the ensuing year.

A motion that the secretary-treasurer cast one vote in the election of officers was favored unanimously.

Officers were elected for the year of 1927-1928.

The following resolutions were adopted by the Department, unanimously:

1. *Resolved*, that a vote of thanks be extended to Mr. Clark, chairman of the committee appointed to form a Department of Lip-Reading in the National Education Association, for his untiring efforts in behalf of our Department, and that the

secretary shall notify Mr. Clark of this vote and that it shall be spread upon the records.

2. *Resolved*, that a vote of thanks be extended to our local committee for the splendid work they have done to make our meeting a success.

The motion for adjournment was made and carried by unanimous vote.

The Department of Music Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF MUSIC EDUCATION was created by the Board of Directors at the Madison, Wis., meeting in 1884. See *Proceedings*, 1884:23. This department cooperates with the Music Supervisors' National Conference.

The officers of this Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Thaddeus Gidding, Director of Music, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Vicepresident*, Estelle Carpenter, Director of Music, San Francisco, Calif.; *Secretary*, Ester Sather, Director of Music, Everett, Wash. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1885:369-405	1894:925-957	1903:683-719	1911: 787-827	1919: 291-303
1886:563-599	1895:765-807	1904:675-709	1912:1001-1031	1920: 309-311
1887:607-653	1896:718-754	1905:627-706	1913: 601-619	1921: 507-515
1888:625-665	1897:772-792	1906:703-706	1914: 625-649	1922:1047-1063
1889:665-703	1898:832-856	1907:849-877	1915: 847-883	1923: 733-737
1890:811-827	1899:970-998	1908:835-862	1916: 575-613	1924: 597-613
1891:807-827	1900:531-542	1909:673-701	1917: 473-491	1925: 504-522
1892:507-533	1901:704-721	1910:789-833	1918: 315-323	1926: 527-536
1893:507-543	1902:614-644			

THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND EDUCATION

FRANK E. WILLARD, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
SEATTLE, WASH.

REPRESENTING the schools, an educational agency established by the state, I am glad to have this opportunity to speak in appreciation of the educational influence of another agency which is of voluntary origin. The Chamber of Commerce and the schools have common interests that invite sympathetic understanding. The present organization of social life is making industry and education more and more interdependent. As a result of this, education has become less academic and more sensitive to social welfare than formerly. Its direction is determined more and more by the activities and needs of community life.

There used to be a feeling that education belonged exclusively to the schools, that other agencies could better concern themselves with other matters. There was, too, sometimes a feeling that education tended toward exclusiveness, that it had not forgotten its aristocratic ancestry. It is true that until quite recently the schools served only a very limited part of the people beyond the primary grades. Conditions have changed. The remarkable increase of attendance in the upper grades continuing on through the high schools and into the universities is an outstanding event of current history. It is indicative of a new attitude toward education and implies a readjustment of social values.

The Chamber of Commerce is commonly thought of as a commercial rather than an educational organization, but an analysis of its activities will show nearly all of them to be essentially educational in their intent. Practically all of them could be classified under one or another of the objectives named. Allowance, of course, must be made for the special purpose which the Chamber serves. Like the schools, its aim is to help the individual to help himself. It strives to promote the general welfare, recognizing that the measure of general welfare is the sum of individual well-being. It recognizes, too, that general intelligence is a social asset of great value to the community and has been sympathetic in its attitude toward the broader educational endeavor.

The Chamber of Commerce has made a considerable impression upon the young people of this city through the literature it has provided and through its member's council. Pupils from the schools have visited the council meetings in order to observe and report. Many have come to provide music and have remained to listen. Through their own assemblies and group meetings they are somewhat prepared to appreciate the meaning of such a gathering. They look out upon that assemblage with profound respect. They have in their school work, through reading, by projects, and with dramatization, followed the raw resources of the Northwest from source to finished product on its way to consumption. The members council represents to them the pent-up energy, the industry, the ability, and the initiative that drive this industrial life forward. They see there, also,

altruistic endeavor that makes such life worth while. I want you to know that youth looks upon accomplishment through idealistic eyes and likes to take for granted gallant and unselfish motives on the part of those in whose footsteps it would follow.

The Chamber chorus, through its generous activity, is making a positive educational contribution to the building of a more attractive city. I can speak heartily in great appreciation of the splendid spirit of the chorus. I think we do not fully realize "the good that is wrought in the lives of men through the songs they sing around the luncheon table and in their evening gatherings." In an age where men need most of all to learn tolerance and cooperation, music is the great harmonizer. It is a stabilizing and healing influence, not only for those who sustain the blows and thrusts of competition, but for all who must learn to go together about life's more commonplace duties. It represents especially an important leisure time resource without which education is incomplete.

Education for the right use of leisure time deserves more than passing notice. There are many who believe that America is not so much threatened by starvation or want as by a vast amount of leisure that may destroy us because we have not the character or culture to turn it into value. The use of improved machinery is steadily reducing the length of the day during which men must engage in productive labor. Conservative industrial leaders are quoted as saying that in the not distant future our industrial processes will be so highly developed that a four-hour work day will be sufficient to satisfy the material needs of society. Even if that statement may seem extreme, we do know that the margin of leisure time is constantly increasing. Whether this will be a benefit or a curse to society depends upon how it is used. In literature, in music, in art, in the world of nature there are unlimited strength-giving resources where each person may find what is suited to his own needs. By means of these, life may be enriched and enlarged; it may gain poise and power.

The Chamber of Commerce believes that a really great city can be built only in part by accretions from without. The main growth must come from within. If this is true industrially, it is no less true intellectually and spiritually. Those who will control the destiny of this city a few years from now are today enrolled in its schools. Their character is being built up by the slow processes of a growth that is responsive to all the influences that surround them. Nature has been versatile and generous in its encouragement to the industry of this city. It has, too, surrounded us with constant mountains that through all seasons and in all weather point always upward. The most potent influences that mould character are human. Shall the character of the oncoming generation of young citizens match these mountains in stability, in integrity, and in direction? The Chamber of Commerce, to the extent to which it finds opportunity to give approval to the finer, more wholesome influences of life, and to create conditions under which the idealism of youth may find its fulfilment without too much of disillusion, is affecting the answer that time will give to this question.

And so, in conclusion, the thought I would propose this afternoon is this: May the vision that we cherish in common of a greater and finer city include also and always the vision of a greater and finer citizen.

RESPONSE

RALPH MAGEE, PASTOR, FIRST METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH
SEATTLE, WASH.

I am happy to be here to respond to an address so intimately tying together the business and educational forces of this or any other community. One of the great signs of the idealism of our America is the increasing interest of so-called practical men in the cultural elements of education.

Our local Chamber of Commerce has, for a number of years, maintained a Friday noon luncheon called the members council. This luncheon is seldom attended by less than 450 men, with a scattered few women, and has had as high as 800 in attendance. The program consists of brief addresses either by visiting distinguished guests, or those representing important community activities. It is customary at these luncheons to have present some high grade musical attraction. Each year the eight high school orchestras of Seattle are presented in successive weeks. The interest shown by the business men and women is a high testimonial of the appreciation of the Chamber of Commerce in this cultural development.

Some who have seen the comparative figures on salaries paid school teachers might be inclined to think the business interests of this city were out of joint with education. I have no defense to make of low salaries and do not hesitate to say publicly that Seattle and all other cities should hasten the day when this important profession shall be at least reasonably paid, which it is not now, for the most part.

But, while I hold no brief for low salaries, I do believe it is but justice to our business men to remind you we are a very young city with an exceptionally large school attendance, especially in the upper grades and high school. We are providing practically everything that is available elsewhere. Most other cities have some things already cared for and these increased advantages are not so great a burden. In this city the present generation, with perhaps a little of the preceding one, has had to produce it all. This has been exceedingly heavy. While bonds provide for future generations to carry a portion of it, the heavy burden comes right now.

Since I became a resident of Seattle a little over six years ago, the Roosevelt, Garfield, and Grover Cleveland high schools have been built. Very large additions have been placed upon several other high schools, and even now many of them are compelled to use portables to help out. Similar increases in grade and intermediate schools indicate the pace we are going.

This is not said in boastfulness, for which this far west is so famed. It is to indicate to you the real interest of this city in the education of its youth. The Chamber of Commerce has ever been outstanding in the support of all of these forward programs.

And now a moment's attention to your Department. How unfinished would be our modern schools without their musical training. It is one of the joys of all parents that their children are given at least a sufficient amount of musical instruction so that they know some of the rudiments and have a little appetite created for further progress.

Two years ago a prominent eastern statesman sat beside me at a Chamber of Commerce luncheon. After the high school orchestra of some forty pieces had played several numbers, he leaned over to me and said, "What do you have to pay such an orchestra to come and play here for thirty minutes?" I replied, "This is just one of our eight high school orchestras and of course comes that we may see the real achievement of our youth." He said, "Why, I supposed by the grade of music and the perfection of rendition that this was a commercial orchestra." We are genuinely proud of such an achievement as that. Such has been the interest of business men in this artistic development that even they have caught the spirit and, as you have opportunity to note here today, we are one of America's few cities that can boast of a group of business men who are associated together musically for the purpose of singing goodwill and high ideals into our own and other commercial groups of the Northwest. I, of course, refer to our friends of the Chamber of Commerce Chorus.

I am sure I am within the bounds of truth when I say you can rest assured the Chamber of Commerce and business and professional men in general will stand aggressively behind any movement for the betterment of educational conditions as long as they believe it is within the bounds of economic safety and reason.

From my connection with the Chamber of Commerce and my knowledge of the business interest of this city, I assure you that the coming of your great convention has been anticipated not only for its economic and advertising value, but even more so because of the great ideals for which you stand, and because we are whole-heartedly in accord with these lofty purposes. We know we shall be greatly benefited and trust you may feel repaid for your visit here.

RECOGNITION OF MUSIC EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS—A NECESSITY

GEORGE L. LINDSAY, DIRECTOR OF MUSIC EDUCATION, PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

We hear on all sides the opinions of business, political, and social leaders who readily assert that good music is the greatest force in socializing and uplifting the lives of every race and creed. By choosing music and cultural pursuits as motivating factors, our adult population is earnestly trying to create high standards of right living. It is the duty of the school administrators to know the need of the times, to use proper instrumentalities, and to face issues of national and world-wide importance by preparing the boys

and girls in their care to envisage life and the part they must play as future citizens in carrying the torch handed down to them by those who gave their all that democracy might live. There is greater need today for the ameliorating influence of good music in the schools, homes, business, and social world than ever before.

Modern education is not complete without a mass and individual development of an articulate common language with which to express and satisfy the pent-up emotions of the people in their inherent love of nature and man. The surging emotions of an active people must be released into natural channels of expression. We must not fail to counteract the flood-tide of modern jazz and all that the term implies. We must turn again to the fountain-head of culture, as did the Greeks of old, and look to music and the fine arts to fill the lives of children and adults with wholesome "hobbies" and recreation which will make for deeper, fuller living.

The fact is well established that the study of music in the public schools is of an importance at least equal to that of any other subject on the program. Many great teachers, from Plato down to Dr. Eliot, have declared that the use of good music is the greatest moving force in the life of a people; that the study of vocal and instrumental music develops mental alertness and calls for a complex response of coordinated powers which no other subject affords. When we look about us and observe the rapt attention that is given to the performances of our great symphony orchestras, choral societies, and grand opera companies; when we realize the part that music plays in forming the life philosophy of the people, through the influence of their own participation, or by listening to music recreated by the radio and reproducing instruments, we should pause and evaluate the phenomena of rhythm, melody, harmony, and tone color in its relation to life, if it be jazz with its burlesque of the good and beautiful, or real music with its inspiring uplift. It is the duty of the music supervisor and teacher to prove that the study and right use of music in school life will make an impermeable impression on the life of the school and community. This duty includes not only the obligation on the music educator to prepare himself to be an expert in the subject, but also to exploit the results of the school music activities developed under his direction in order to convince his school superintendent and board of education of the value of music.

We must combine all active agencies to support our plea for more music in the schools. We must maintain our contact with the National Education Association by maintaining a strong department of music in this Association. At Philadelphia, in the 1926 meeting of the National Education Association, a plea was made for music by Dr. Winship of Boston in a stirring address presented in a general session of the conference. At Dallas, in February, 1927, the superintendents had an illuminating experience in attending a concert given by the great National High School Orchestra of 266 players, assembled from 38 states for the purpose. Music was the theme of the Dallas meeting, and a resolution was adopted which will go far toward making music the motivation of all school activities and

in setting new standards for greater consideration of the rightful place to which it belongs.

This is an age of placing first things first, and in order that we may gain new courage and conviction in forwarding the project to which we have dedicated ourselves, let us remember the high place that music has held in the lives of all the ages. Plutarch tells us of the high regard in which music education was held by the Greeks, being the most fruitful form of education; a process for the development of creative power—power of expression, of initiative, and of appreciation.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

The Department of Music Education held a luncheon conference and a sectional meeting in the banquet room of the New Washington Hotel on Wednesday, July 6, at 12 o'clock. The luncheon was attended by 250 music supervisors and teachers who filled the banquet room to its capacity. The room was beautifully decorated with the lovely flowers of the Northwest.

Mrs. Francis Dickey Newenham, Public School Music Department, University of Washington, presided at the luncheon conference and introduced Frank E. Willard, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Seattle, Wash., who presented a toast: "The Chamber of Commerce and Education." A response to Dr. Willard's toast was made by Rev. J. Ralph Magee, member of Board of Trustees, Chamber of Commerce, Seattle, Wash. The Seattle Chamber of Commerce Male Chorus presented several lyric and comic selections throughout the luncheon. They were enthusiastically received and encored.

Mrs. Newenham called on Powell G. Fithian, Director of Music of Camden, N. J., to speak on the subject of "Hobbies." Mr. Fithian stressed the fact that he hardly knew what a hobby was. With him a very fine line—a mere gesture of a line—is drawn between his vocation and his avocation. He stated that his boys and girls are his work and his play, and it is difficult to tell just where one leaves off and the other begins. Mr. Fithian further said, "My vocation is putting things across and my avocation is the pleasure I derive from seeing them land. As with the sculptor and the block of granite—chipping off the rough edges and letting out the best there is in them, is both my vocation and avocation. Fellow teachers, we are in a glorious work. Do we fully appreciate and enjoy our opportunity?"

The luncheon conference was concluded by a group of choruses presented by the Grade Club Chorus of teachers of the Seattle schools.

Afternoon Session—Letha L. McClure, Director of Music, Seattle public schools, presented the president of the Department, George L. Lindsay, Director of Music of the Board of Public Education, Philadelphia, Pa. Mr. Lindsay greeted the members and paid tribute to Miss McClure for her splendid work as chairman of the program committee, and thanked her on behalf of the Department for arranging the splendid program of music presented to the general sessions of the whole convention. Mr. Lindsay turned the program over to Miss McClure who introduced an instrumental ensemble of selected pupils of the Seattle high schools. Several classical selections were exceedingly well presented by the ensemble. A girls' chorus sang several three-part choruses effectively.

Elgia Dawley, soprano and a member of the Seattle Civic Opera, presented two operatic numbers and was well received. Dr. P. P. Claxton, Superintendent of Schools, Tulsa, Okla., gave a talk on "Public School Music, Why and How."

Anyone who ever thought music was one of those so-called "frills" would have had a wonderful opportunity to hear from a "layman" in music, in no uncertain terms, statements very much to the contrary when Dr. Claxton gave his address at the music luncheon. Dr. Claxton feels that "Music is the most used and most practical thing of all. Civilization has marched to music. It is a universal language. People are stirred by music to do great things. It is consolation, inspiration, joy." He further said he felt that "material things are valuable only as we can subordinate them to the cultural," also that too many people are swallowed up in trade. Dr. Claxton said that music need not cost any more than any other subject if organized properly, with reasonably large classes as in the platoon system. In telling of the music in the schools of Tulsa, Okla., he said that out of the six hundred teachers in the corps there are forty-two trained music teachers. He further stated that he found it takes only one-half of one percent more to teach music effectively.

George L. Lindsay, Director of Music Education, Philadelphia, Pa., next addressed the supervisors and teachers on the subject: "Recognition of Music Education in the Public Schools—A Necessity."

The president, Mr. Lindsay, then took charge of the meeting and read a telegram from John C. Kendel, President of the Southwest Music Supervisors' Conference, sending greetings and expressing regret at his inability to be present.

The election of officers to serve during the ensuing year was held and the following were elected: *President*, Thaddeus Gidding, Director of Music, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Vicepresident*, Estelle Carpenter, Director of Music, San Francisco, Calif.; *Secretary*, Esther Sather, Director of Music, Everett, Wash.

Mr. Lindsay made a plea for the forming of a Northwest Music Supervisors' Conference and called on Miss McClure to speak on the subject.

Miss McClure brought up the question of organization of the music supervisors in the Northwest. A motion was made and seconded that a conference be called to discuss the matter. The time for the conference was set for Friday, July 7, at 10 o'clock, in the Oregon state headquarters in the Olympic Hotel.

A motion was made by G. F. Gaskins, of Portland, Ore., of formal approval and appreciation of the work of Letha L. McClure and her assistants in preparing all of the splendid music of the convention. It was seconded and carried.

A motion for adjournment was seconded and carried.

The Department of Rural Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION grew out of the Department of Rural and Agricultural Education which was authorized by the Board of Directors in 1907. See *Proceedings*, 1907:44-45. At the Chicago meeting in 1919, the Department was reorganized with three organized rural groups then existing—The National Association of State Supervisors and Inspectors of Rural Schools, The County Superintendent's section of the National Education Association, and the National Association of Persons Engaged in the Preparation of Rural Teachers—under the name of the Department of Rural Education. See *Proceedings*, 1920:279.

The Department meets twice each year, in February and in June.

The officers of the Department of Rural Education for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, N. Searle Light, State Director of Rural Education, Hartford, Conn.; *Vicepresident*, May Trumper, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Helena, Mont.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, Specialist in Rural Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*: Fred C. Fisher, Belleville, Mich. (Term expires 1928); A. F. Harman, County Superintendent of Schools, Montgomery, Ala. (Term expires 1929); Fannie W. Dunn, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City (Term expires 1930); Agnes Samuelson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa (Term expires 1931); G. C. Muerman, Southeastern State Teachers College, Durant, Okla. (Term expires 1932).

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1906: 716	1911:1365-1391	1915:1131-1161	1919: 281-289	1923:745
1908:1187-1217	1912:1365-1391	1916: 613-637	1920: 271-278	1924:651-715
1909: 953-993	1913: 801-812	1917: 599-615	1921: 523-617	1925:522-563
1910:1081-1108	1914: 877-909	1918: 271-295	1922:1099-1197	1926:536-600

SOME ESSENTIALS OF A STATE'S SUPERVISORY PROGRAM FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

MRS. KATHERINE M. COOK, CHIEF, DIVISION OF RURAL EDUCATION, U. S.
BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

BROADLY interpreted, everything concerned with the educational system, whether it be building program, school equipment, financing, or what not, conditions somewhat the quality of instruction. For the purposes of this discussion, however, improvement of instruction is interpreted as having to do primarily with what Dr. Moore has recently described as "the functional side of the educational organization" and is treated from the standpoint of improving the teaching technic.

Ultimately all administrative organizations and all administrative machinery must be judged in the light of their ability to improve the quality of the instruction rendered in the school systems over which they have jurisdiction. This is true whether the organizations be state, county, or city. Considering our devotion to the idea that education is a state responsibility, it would seem logical to expect that improving instruction would be universally accepted as a function of state education departments. Yet there are states in which apparently little concerted effort, except that very general in its nature, has been made in this direction. Indeed, the assumption of such work by a state administrative organization is in itself a sign of progress. When a state department definitely assumes the function of improving instruction, the first essential is the formulation of a state-wide program for such improvement; in other words, a state-wide program for instructional supervision definite in the objectives set up and the procedures advocated and thoroughly understood by all those who are concerned with carrying it out.

Emphasis on these matters might seem unnecessary were it not for the fact that experience indicates considerable waste in the functioning of the educational machinery due to the lack of such definite and accepted programs. Supervisors, hard-working and conscientious, go about their duties, seeing, of course, many things to be done, stopping occasionally to do what seems to them most necessary at the moment; and then going on to the next school or system, doing the same or a similar thing over again, with little at the end of the year to show for their work but mental and physical wear and tear. It is not intimated here that the time is lost or the work of no avail. It is believed, however, that there is uneconomical expenditure of time and effort because of the lack of a definite, organized, understood program.

While recognizing that lack of definite programs is the besetting sin of many rural supervisors, it is equally necessary to avoid the opposite extreme. Formal cut-and-dried aims and procedures, set, unchangeable programs, are even more disastrous to a state than on a local scale. Every acceptable state program should not only allow but plan definitely for the exercise of initiative and freedom in local plans and procedures. The

one certain, unchanging characteristic of a state plan is that it must provide for wide differences in procedures and be flexible enough to permit of additional ones to meet unforeseen emergencies.

Once the essentialness of a program has been established, consideration to details of its formulation should receive most careful attention. The first requisite is that it should be based upon a careful study of the situation to be met.

Every supervisory program should have at least two large aspects, one for immediate guidance based on immediate ends, the other a long-term, forward-looking program probably extending over a period of years, though the period over which either program extends is, of course, governed by the situation itself. The immediate program may be a program to construct a program. It seems unnecessary to say that the two should so fit each other that the immediate program both fills immediate needs and takes its place in the larger program, fulfilling its aims and objectives as well as its own. Both must be accompanied by very definite provisions for checking and evaluating their accomplishments. Besides definite, tangible procedures which they establish, both programs cast their weight for or against informal or rigid methods of teaching, for or against modern or traditional practice, and for or against definite or aimless organization of the local supervisor's work.

In states in which the organization provides for a state supervisory force with a state director of supervision in charge, county or other rural superintendents and local supervisors and principals, it seems logical to establish the general line of authority in supervision as—from the state superintendent to the state director of supervision and state supervisors, to the rural superintendent (county, district, parish, town, according to organization), to the local rural supervisor, to principals, to teachers. In states having county superintendents but no local supervisors, state supervisors must work through county superintendents, concentrating on the improvement of instruction, depending upon the superintendents in turn to work through their principals and teachers in carrying out the state supervisor's program.

A suggested plan showing the line of supervision responsibilities and authority and the allocation of duties among the staff is offered. It is not applicable in all states. It is suggested as applicable in some and adaptable in others:

(A) ¹*The state superintendent*—Establishes policies formulated with the cooperation of his staff. Is represented in the field by the director of supervision and state supervisors.

(B) *The state director of supervision and state supervisors*—(1) Carry out the policies of the state superintendent and act as his representative with local superintendents, supervisors, and principals, as they in turn work with principals and teachers; demonstrate with the teachers for the benefit of the local supervisor, focusing upon the professional needs of the local supervisor; assist in planning county or district programs or coordinating them with State supervisory programs and checking the results; provide certain minimum essentials which may act as

¹ See U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1926, No. 28.

unifying agencies for all counties or districts in the state; take the lead in co-ordinating the work of general and special-subject supervisors.

(2) Represent the state superintendent in relations with the local supervisors at the instance of the local superintendent. In this capacity the state supervisor acts more as a leader and guide and less as one planning definite procedures and checks on the children's learning; more as a training teacher for the supervisory officers in service and less concerned with local practice, more concerned with policies than with immediate plans and methods; assists in planning in-service training for teachers in the local system; assists local supervisors to plan for unity and variety of activities while avoiding duplication of material furnished by the state or gathered from other sources; suggests characteristics of legitimate community work for local supervisors, explaining the place, extent, and relation of such activities to school work.

(3) The state director of supervision and state supervisors act in an advisory capacity to the state superintendent, devising general administrative plans for promoting better supervision and better supervisory programs throughout the state. This advisory service may include setting up plans for differing situations, as supervision in districts having large schools with several teachers, supervision in districts having many small schools widely distributed; suggesting combinations of positions such as that of two or more principals in certain small districts, or, in certain instances, combination of districts, counties, or other units (having few schools and teachers) for supervisory purposes; determining supervisory needs of counties or districts where classroom visitation, demonstration, and the like, offer special problems, and setting up a program suitable to such conditions; holding state or sectional conferences or short courses for supervisors and superintendents for the purpose of discussing educational policies, and for giving general directions or demonstrations on such topics as "How to conduct a teachers' meeting," "How to analyze a recitation," "How to study classroom practice through stenographic reports."

(C) *The local supervisor*—(May apply to county or other rural superintendent, supervisor, or principal.) Carries out the suggestions of the state supervisors; interprets these suggestions in the light of local problems; unifies the county or district school activities and curricula; coordinates the work of special supervisors (if any), principals or other officers through whom supervisory officer works with teachers; conducts and advises concerning in-service training for principals and teachers; carries on continuing follow-up and checking of achievement programs among schools and teachers.

General and special-subject supervision—An economic and efficient state program for the supervision of rural schools will give first consideration to general supervision. A balanced curriculum in which each of the subjects in the elementary school course has its proper place as to emphasis, time distribution, and the like, is a primary objective of supervision. If the local system is one in which one supervisor only is employed, that supervisor should be a general supervisor capable of directing the teaching of both regular and special subjects, where special-subject teachers are not employed (as in the small schools); and of directing the special-subject teachers and coordinating their work with the general program of studies where special-subject teachers are employed (as in larger schools).

In the larger systems where special-subject as well as general supervisors are employed, the special-subject supervisors should be trained in principles of general supervision and in the supervision of their special subject or subjects. It is the function of the general supervisor (or superintendent if no such supervisor is employed) to coordinate the work of all supervisors, general and special. The dangers are that small systems unable to afford a sufficient number of supervisors may, in the employment of special supervisors, only sacrifice the general supervisory program; that the functions and objectives of the two kinds of supervision—general and special—will not be definitely understood; that a special-subject super-

visor of strong personality or aggressive attitude may promote his special subject at the expense of the general program; and that chaos will result in the mind of the teacher who tries to promote a balanced classroom program of achievement.

Having established the necessary immediate and long-term programs, the lines of responsibility and authority, and means of familiarizing all those who participate with the provisions and policies proposed, the state program should establish definite standards as to the quality of supervision expected and the qualifications of the supervisors to be employed. High standards of qualification for supervisors—whether through certification laws or regulations established by the state department of education, through state subsidization or nomination or selection of supervising officers, or whatever plan—should be established if results are to be worthy. In some states even ardent advocates of supervision are no longer encouraging local authorities to employ supervisors until they can raise enough money to pay adequate salaries to secure trained supervisors or until the sentiment of the people of the county, the county superintendent, and school officials generally, is such that work of a high professional nature is demanded and appreciated.

The next step in a state program is to set up definite, thoroughly understood objectives for both immediate and long-term program materialization. It is unnecessary to enumerate here the general objectives of professional supervision. It would be irrational to advocate the same immediate objectives for all state programs. They are dependent, of course, upon the situation. The important point is that they should be definitely set up and thoroughly understood and that all procedures advocated should lead toward their accomplishment. Both the scope and the purposes of supervision differ among states and within states and they change with the needs as our conception of what an adequate school is, changes. Teaching and supervision, and hence supervisory programs and their objectives, must be constantly adapted to the needs of a changing social order.

The state supervisor, in working with local supervisors, avails himself of progressive methods of education. He applies the results of scientific research to methods of supervision. Local supervisors must learn to classify their teachers into homogeneous groups as well as to give individual help when and in the way in which it is needed. Passing on to supervisors practical means of effecting homogeneous grouping of teachers is becoming a recognized duty of state supervisors. In many systems grouping teachers according to training or ability or success or combinations of these has been found effective.

One purpose of the state department of education, of which the state supervisor is the official representative among local supervisors and teachers, is to eliminate as rapidly as possible inexperienced, unprepared teachers. Certification laws or the regulations of state departments rigidly enforced are rapidly making it impossible for boards of education to employ entirely untrained, inexperienced teachers. Where local systems continue to employ such teachers, the state supervisor must assist the local supervisor in finding a way to deal with them.

Another important point of attack of the state supervisor's program is the improvement of teachers' meetings. Some means of evaluating teachers' meetings—some criteria other than opinions for the number, kind, and type of grouping—is an outstanding need in supervision. Holders of teachers' meetings still depend too much on securing persons who entertain rather than instruct. They seem to aim to please rather than to improve, or they have no professional objective. Misnamed "inspirational" talks, expositions of outworn technics, are still common in many teachers' meetings. Supervisors should judge programs for teachers' meetings by their power to effect better teaching.

It seems unnecessary to say that a state program should provide also for curriculum revision and investigation, for carrying on some experimentation and research, however simple in its nature such research may be. Current research concerning classification and promotion, retardation and the problem of over-age children, and studies now being carried on concerning the treatment of atypical children are all of special interest to rural school supervisors.

Systematic and continuous training in service of supervisors and teachers is not so much an essential of a state program as it is the purpose of such a program. Professional growth in service is a *sine qua non* of improvement in technic. The program must engage the interest and secure the cooperation of all teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents of the system, must organize all its resources, human and material, for the accomplishment of its ends; provide definite opportunity for individual initiative and means and directions for systematically checking and recording results of its activities.

REORGANIZING THE LOCAL SCHOOL UNIT IN TERMS OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC RELATIONSHIPS

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Shall the patrons of our public schools be allowed to send their children to school where they please or shall we definitely assign them to certain areas and then have them go to the school planned for that unit? Shall we allow a group of patrons to set themselves apart from any determined area and then organize their schools in such a way that they may capitalize on greater advantages of wealth or other special factors?

To allow individual patrons to withdraw from one district and go to another without some reliable check on the procedure may and often does cripple an organization which they themselves have helped to set up. Or again, withdrawal of some relatively small group may mean the financial handicapping of a school community which will be left without recourse from the standpoints either of money or of leadership. Once the damage is done, it may take years to correct it.

In 1924 I began a study of the factors which should determine local school district boundaries. The New York Survey had suggested the

community boundaries as determinants of the school district boundaries. The question that arose in my mind was, "How stable are the community interests in determining community boundaries?" In order to make the study specific and meaningful, I turned to my own state, Ohio, to determine the significance of the community factors.

My first step was to secure a map of each county school district of Ohio. (A county school district in Ohio is the county outside of cities and villages of 3,000. Such villages must vote exemption.) In 1913, Ohio schools were surveyed and a new code went into effect in 1914. So far as districting was concerned, the county board of education was given the power to district the county for school purposes. Since distribution of moneys depended in part on this districting, the boards were compelled to district in 1914. No change in school district boundaries within the county could be made without consent of the county board. A petition must be presented and a map filed. Patrons were able to stop transfers by a remonstrance of a majority. In certain cases, transfers could be made to another county without action on the part of the county from which the transfer was made, but with favorable action on the part of the receiving county. In some counties proper records were kept but in many no records were kept, at least by the superintendent of schools.

In order that I might know the exact condition of districting within Ohio in 1924, I requested that each county superintendent send me a map showing the local school district boundaries within his county. Since the evident principle was to allow transfers upon petition of the patrons in order to obtain better school advantages and since the board was given power to check any unreasonable transfer, this seemed an excellent point of departure. Two years had elapsed since the first districting. In response to my request, twenty-two out of eighty-eight county superintendents submitted maps showing the approximate or exact boundaries. Some replied that they had maps, but that it was impossible to send me their official maps. Thereupon, I secured state highway maps of uniform size and markings and sent one to each superintendent with specific instructions for marking the boundaries of local districts. Stamped envelopes were sent for return of the maps. At the end of a year and a half 66 maps had been returned.

At this point the study came to the attention of the joint legislative committee on economy and taxation of the Ohio legislature. After examining my materials they asked me to serve with them as a special investigator and then stated that they wished the set of maps completed. With their official backing, the set was made complete at the end of two and one-half years of requesting, cajoling and threatening. So far as I have been able to find, only one other state, Wisconsin, has such a set of maps.

While these maps were being collected, I began with the cooperation of graduate students in school administration in the Ohio State University

to study the influence of social and economic factors in relation to school districts already in existence and in relation to possible reorganization or regroupings. The first study completed was that of Superintendent D. A. Pyers of Rushsylvania, Logan County, Ohio.

Closely related, but subsequent to, Mr. Pyers' study, a similar one under my direction was made by Mr. Glenn Drummond, superintendent of schools of Logan County in which the territory of Mr. Pyers is located. In this case, the entire county was undertaken, which called for a slightly different procedure. He prepared working maps for each school district. Questionnaires were submitted to each teacher calling for practically the same information as in the other study. Each teacher located each pupil on the map by a key number. When the data were collected, lines were drawn to the center of greatest community interest. These maps we called "summation maps." They were all built again into one map of the county. The county board of education now has facts that enable them to know where patrons logically belong. If transfers are requested that are not in line with the indicated interest of the community, the burden of proof in favor of the transfer falls upon the patron.

There are certain areas in this county which need careful consideration. Union Township is very progressive in regard to school matters, but still has only one-room schools. There is no village in this area and consequently no point towards which these people tend to gravitate. The high school pupils go to West Liberty, Degraff, and Bellefontaine. The highways are excellent gravel roads, good the year round. These people can establish a central school with all 12 grades and no one can stop them under the Ohio law. The county superintendent is using this map to show the board and these patrons where the lines of division should logically be drawn so that when a change does come, the establishment of another high school can be prevented and the children can be transported to easily accessible, well-established schools.

In contrast, Monroe Township voted several years ago, against the advice of a former county superintendent, to centralize their schools at a point in the open country and the center of the township. This high school has had an extremely hard time ever since its establishment, even though the people are still enthusiastic over their school. High school teachers cannot be kept more than one or two years because of lack of social life. The township is very hilly and rough. There are two rich valleys, however, crossing the township. The richest is at the extreme south end. The lines show that these people are interested in West Liberty and not in a remote and not easily accessible hill top in the other direction. The constant pull is away from the school and in this fact lies the real secret of their constant difficulty.

Zane township, which is the next to the east, has already met the fate which Monroe township must meet. The people voted to centralize at

Middleburg, two and one-half miles from a strong center at East Liberty. The people in the extreme southeast corner decided to transfer to a village across the county line. The Ohio law allows this in spite of all that the county board can do. They took only a small area but it represented one-third of the total tax duplicate of the township. The school building at Middleburg is fast falling into disrepair and the high school has already been partially abandoned because of lack both of pupils and of money.

Another very pertinent problem shown here and which has been very evident in every study thus far made, is the influence of the city, which is in this case not a part of the county school district. The pull is definitely towards the city and yet the county and city are entirely separate.

Studies of six other counties have been completed. These represent counties of different character. One is Franklin County, lying about the capital, Columbus. Other counties were chosen to show rich or poor, strictly rural, and counties with small cities. From these studies, the investigation has reached out into county financial administration, establishment of high schools, effect of the city pull and other similar studies.

The conclusion which has forced itself upon us in each study that we have made is that the local districts as separate units should be eliminated and all the school affairs in a county should be under one board and one superintendent. The schools of the county could be arranged as social, economic and school factors determined.

My answer to the question of how to district is, "abolish the local district." This will apply except in the case of widely scattered population or where the civil organization will not allow. The board may then place schools where social and economic factors dictate. If local districts must be retained, then study out the social and economic factors and place them in definite form on maps of the county. Let these guide the school authorities in determining the boundaries of the local districts whether these be for taxation, consolidation or merely for attendance centers. The results will pay in greater satisfaction of patrons and in case of administration of the school.

The particular points which have been outstanding in the studies made, especially from the standpoint of practical use by county and local boards have been the following:

1. Small district "pockets," formed for selfish reasons can be eliminated.
2. Areas about cities have been made a matter of joint study by city and county authorities.
3. Transfers to avoid reasonable taxation for schools have been denied.
4. High school centers can be more definitely determined.
5. Points of consolidation are more easily found.
6. Transfers can be made with facts as the basis.
7. Both patrons and pupils have been satisfied, which produces much better results in educating the child.

OUTSTANDING NEEDS AS SHOWN BY A SURVEY OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE STATE

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In this study, a small high school is described as one situated in the open country or in towns and cities of less than 2500 population, maintaining at least two (usually four) years course of study, having enrolled 125 pupils or less and employing not more than four full time high school teachers for a term of 32 (usually 36) weeks. According to this description, there are 407 such small high schools in Kentucky, and with few exceptions, a larger percent of the student body comes entirely from the open country.

The Small High School Problem in Kentucky—The first authoritative report, after the passage of the Compulsory High School Act in 1908 (effective 1910) on the high school situation in the state, showed a total of 171 public high schools, 158 of which employed four teachers and fewer. The high school files in the state department of education showed, at the close of the fiscal year 1924, 407 small high schools. There has, therefore, been an increase, since 1910, of 157 percent in the number of small high schools in the state. The same report (1910) showed an enrolment in these 158 small high schools of 4527 pupils, while in 1924 there were enrolled in the 407 small high schools 17564 pupils—an increase of 313 percent.

The mandatory law of 1908 required that the first high school in any county should be established at the county seat. County board members, at that time, desirous of having a high school in their educational division (of which there were 5 in each county), made provisions for such instruction near their respective homes. Many high schools were established because small groups of people in a given community thought it more economical to organize high school instruction in a nearby center than it was to send their children away from home. As a result of such policy of establishing high schools, almost every conceivable inequality of opportunity for such instruction exists in the state. To illustrate briefly: Boone county has a high school for every 5 miles square and for every 280 families, while Edmonson county (16 miles square) has one high school at the county seat for 2266 families.

The small high schools in Kentucky are distributed throughout 115 of the 120 different counties. In the 5 counties omitted, larger high schools exist. Since 73.3 percent of the state's total population is classed, according to the Bureau of Census, as rural, it is to be expected that the larger percent of these high schools are located in the open country and in villages and small towns. Approximately 32 percent are in the open country and in centers of less than 100 population. Forty percent are in centers having a population from 100 to 500; 17 percent are in centers from 500 to 1000; 8 percent are in centers from 1000 to 1500; 1 percent are in centers from 1500 to 2000; 1 percent in centers from 2000 to 2500, and 1 percent in

centers of 2500 and over. Thus, it might be said that 94 percent of the small high schools in the state are located in centers where agriculture is the chief industry.

During this period of unusual growth in the number of small high schools, many buildings were constructed with but little thought of the future, and are indeed inadequate. The estimated value of all these buildings averages \$18,000, the average cost of equipment \$825, laboratories \$270, and libraries \$320. While the above data are estimates only, they do present a picture of the inadequacy of the facilities for high school instruction.

Facing these conditions in Kentucky, which are not greatly different elsewhere, and the fact that there is yet to be established in the near future at least 150 to 200 more such schools in the state, obviously the first outstanding need is—a cooperative county and state program of establishing high schools. Such a program should be based upon a county survey, locating high schools, as far as possible, in permanent centers, permitting their patronage area to transcend political boundaries whenever desirable; providing for some consolidation where necessary and some extension where it is needed.

Organization Problems—In most of the small high schools throughout the state as well as elsewhere the grades are housed in the same building as the high school, with one person as principal of both. The most common organization found in these schools, as shown by their program of studies, is the 8 year elementary school and the 4 year high school. Ninety-two percent of the 407 high schools included in this study are organized on this basis, while 8 percent operate on the 6-6 plan. The most common practice in the high school is the 8 forty minute period organization. The range in number of periods per day is from 5 to 10. The median number of periods for all is 7.7. The range in length of the recitation is from 30 to 50 minutes, while the median length of the recitation period is 39.5 minutes.

One of the most serious problems to be anticipated in the small high schools is the number and size of the classes. The data for 3802 classes in these schools indicate that the most frequently occurring or model class contains from 6 to 10 pupils. The range of the middle 50 percent is from 8.4 to 20.1 pupils. The median for the 3802 classes is 13.4 pupils. Thus, under the most skillful management and with the most limited program of studies, we must expect the cost of instruction in the small high schools to be relatively high.

This perspective of the organization problems in the small high schools of the state leads us inevitably to what appears to be the second outstanding need—a junior-senior high school organization—preferably on the 6-6 plan. Such an organization should make provisions for (1) larger classes, (2) departmental instruction, (3) promotion by subjects, (4) supervised study, (5) pupil guidance, and (6) a more adequate program of extra class activities.

Teaching Staff Problems—A report on the preparation of the 866 teachers in the small high schools contained in this study shows that (1) 47 percent of the teachers including the principal, are college graduates, (2) a similar number have from two to four years college work, and (3) only 5.7 percent have less than two years college work. Reports from 672 teachers further show that 55 percent have had four years or less teaching experience. The median teaching experience for all is 3.3 years. The salaries of these teachers range from \$700 for nine months work to \$3200 for 12 months work. Teachers employed for 12 months are agriculture teachers. The median salary for all is \$1196.

For convenience in presenting conditions as they exist with respect to the daily teaching load of the teachers in these schools, all courses in the program of studies have been grouped under the following subject heads: English, social studies, mathematics, ancient language, modern language, science, agriculture and home economics. Data from the daily schedules of 843 teachers show that the teaching load of 6 percent of the teachers is made up from courses in a single subject group; that the daily teaching load of 34 percent is made up from courses in two different subject groups; a similar number is made up from courses in three different subject groups; while the daily teaching load of 4 percent is made up from courses in five different subject groups. The median daily teaching load of all teachers reported is made up from courses in 2.3 different subject groups. Twenty-six percent of the 843 teachers teach six or more periods per day. The range in number of periods per day is from three to ten, while the median is 5.7 periods.

This picture of the teaching staff problems directs us to what appears to be the third outstanding need of the rural high schools—a more definite scheme for the preparation of high school teachers. Such a scheme would contemplate preparing teachers for certain subject groups or combinations of groups. This would mean, of course, that license to teach be issued only in these groups or combinations. Such a plan would require that the program of studies of the small high schools be organized in accord with certain groups, and that boards of education employ teachers for more definite fields of work.

The Principal's Responsibility—A study of the distribution of the principal's time is indeed interesting. Data from 272 of the principals reporting shows that 83 percent teach five periods or more per day. The median daily teaching load for all principals is 5.3 periods per day. Thus, the principal is primarily a teacher.

The principal is also a supervisor, responsible for the improvement of instruction in both the grades and the high school. Figures from 185 principals show that 55 percent give only one period per day to supervision, while 34 percent give two periods for supervision. The median for all is 45 minutes per day.

The principal is also the administrative head of both grades and high school. Data from 263 of the principals show that they spend from 36 to

80 minutes per day in administrative and clerical duties. The median is 58 minutes.

The principal, frequently the only man in the school, must of necessity assume the responsibility in certain extra class or pupil activities. Data from 231 principals shows that 67 percent devote one hour per day to such activities.

From the above obviously we meet the fourth outstanding need of the small high schools—a more specific scheme in our teacher-training institutions for the preparation of principals.

Curriculum Problems—For convenience in presenting the conditions as they exist with respect to the curriculum of the small high schools, all courses in the program of studies have been listed under the subject heads indicated above. Courses under each subject group are given in the order in which they are offered in the program of studies.

English—Ninety percent of the small high schools offer rhetoric and composition, 74 percent American literature, 52 percent English literature, 46 percent grammar and the classics. Thirty-seven percent of all pupils enroled in the high schools take rhetoric and composition, 19 percent American literature, 16 percent English literature, and 11 percent grammar and classics.

Social Studies—Social studies present a very interesting field for consideration. Of the 407 small high schools 67 percent offer ancient history, 44 percent modern and mediaeval history, 35 percent English history, 43 percent American history, 33 percent civics, $2\frac{1}{2}$ percent economics, and 4.4 percent sociology. Seventeen percent of all pupils are enroled in ancient history, 14 percent in modern and mediaeval history, 11 percent English history, 12 percent American history, 8 percent civics, and one percent in economics and sociology respectively.

Mathematics—The mathematics situation is not very different with respect to traditional practices. Ninety-nine percent of these schools offer algebra I, 54 percent algebra II, 71 percent geometry (usually plane), and 42 percent arithmetic. Thirty-three percent of the student body is enroled in algebra I, 14 percent in algebra II, 22 percent in geometry, 10 percent in arithmetic.

Ancient Language—Eighty-six percent of the schools offer beginning Latin, 66 percent Latin II (usually Caesar), 10 percent Latin III, and 3 percent Latin IV. Twenty-eight percent of all the high school pupils take beginning Latin, 14 percent Latin II, $1\frac{1}{2}$ percent Latin III, and less than one percent Latin IV.

Modern language—Only 9 percent of the schools offer beginning French, $4\frac{1}{2}$ percent second year French. Two and one-half percent of the student body take beginning French and less than 1 percent second year French. Two and one-half percent of the schools offer Spanish I, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ percent Spanish II. Less than 1 percent of the students take Spanish I and less than half of 1 percent take Spanish II.

Science—Forty-eight percent of the schools offer general science; 21 percent biology, 25 percent physics, 6 percent chemistry, 9 percent physical geography, and 6 percent physiology. Twenty-one percent of the student body takes general science, 7 percent biology, 5 percent physics, $1\frac{1}{2}$ percent chemistry, 2 percent physical geography, and approximately 2 percent physiology.

Agriculture—Eleven and one-half percent of these schools offer farm crops, $6\frac{1}{2}$ percent animal husbandry, 8 percent soils, 4 percent farm management, and 4 percent general agriculture. Three and one-half percent of the student body is enroled in farm crops, 2 percent in animal husbandry, 2 percent in soils, $1\frac{1}{2}$ percent in farm management and $1\frac{1}{2}$ percent in general agriculture.

Home Economics—Nine and one-half percent of the schools offer home economics I (usually foods), 6 percent home economics II (usually clothing); $1\frac{1}{2}$ percent home economics III, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ percent home economics IV. Of the pupil enrolments $3\frac{1}{2}$ percent in foods, 2 percent clothing, and less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ percent in home economics III, and IV, respectively.

From the above it may be said that the subjects offered in the small high schools of Kentucky, as well as throughout the country, are four years of English, four years of Latin, four years of history, and four years of mathematics. By any reasonable interpretation of the above data, one is led to conclude that the small high schools in general are under the influence of the college preparatory concept of the function of a high school. Almost without a single exception the supposedly college preparatory courses occupy the most prominent place in the curriculum with respect to pupil enrolments. In but few instances are there any attempts made to adjust the curriculum to the needs of those who are to become the farmers and home-makers of the community served by the high school.

From the above it seems inevitable that the fifth outstanding need of the small high school is—a reorganization of the curriculum. Such a reorganization should be based upon certain fundamental assumptions, definite aims and objectives, and courses making up the program of studies should be organized into the curricula according to certain essential principles.

The small high school is a vital force in our secondary educational scheme. To make it most effective it is necessary that the entire professional staff view it sympathetically and understandingly. In conclusion, may I summarize briefly what appears to be the outstanding needs of the small high schools:

1. A comparative county and state program of establishing high schools.
2. A junior-senior high school organization, preferably on the 6-6 plan.
3. A more definite scheme for the preparation of high school teachers.
4. A more specific scheme in the teacher-training institutions for the preparation of principals.
5. A reorganization of the curriculum.

While the problem of finance is always with us, yet it is believed that much improvement can be made by organizing the small high schools as indicated above.

*AN ATTEMPT TO DEFINE A SCHOOL DISTRICT UNIT
IN TERMS OF CURRENT EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES
AND IN RECOGNITION OF CERTAIN ADMINIS-
TRATIVE ADJUSTMENTS*

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This report is based on a study of school conditions in a portion of Brown county, Kansas. There are 576 square miles of rich fertile land in the county which is located in the northeast part of the state. Thrifty native and foreign-born people settled the county just preceding the

Civil War. Hiawatha and Horton have populations of three and four thousand. There are ten cities and villages with five hundred and fewer people. More than 65 percent of the people lived in this territory in 1920, which is defined as rural by the United States Census Bureau. Almost 54 percent lived outside incorporated cities. The county had 2414 fewer people in 1920 than in 1900. The open country lost almost one out of five of its people during these two decades. Hiawatha and Horton gained about 16 percent. The smaller cities barely held their own. The people are engaged in general farming. The average farm with its improvements represents an investment of \$35,000, and the percentage of tenancy had reached approximately 45 percent in 1920. The facts pertaining to the schools here presented are for the school year 1922-23.

The area covered in the study may be roughly indicated by a circle, with Hiawatha, the county seat, as the center and with a radius of twelve miles. Hamlin, Reserve, Robinson, and Padonia are in the area. The early settlers, apparently, organized common school districts when and where needed in the development of the county. Each of these common school districts was operating an elementary school in 1922-23 separately and independently of all other districts.

There were twelve high school districts lying wholly or partly within the county. There are nine rural high school districts. Surrounding rural territory has been organized with each of the nine small villages into high school districts. There are evidences that gerrymandering has been done. Parts of the Padonia district are twice as far from Padonia as from Hiawatha. If a proposed rural high school district included no incorporated city with five hundred or more people, a majority vote carried the election. Careful planning of the proposed high school district boundaries made it possible for the small cities to carry the election by overcoming the farm vote. If a city of more than five hundred people was included, those inside and outside the corporate limits voted separately. If the rural high school district was organized, majorities must be had from both groups. Hiawatha, Horton, and Morrill, the only cities in the county with more than five hundred people, have not organized rural high schools. The law has encouraged the growth in the county of many small high schools.

Padonia, Reserve and Hamlin with 13, 21 and 27 pupils are classed in this report as small high schools. Robinson and Hiawatha had enrolments of 88 and 300. The costs of schooling in the small high schools were excessive. Sixty minutes of instruction for one pupil in Padonia came as high as 212½ cents. Four and four-tenths cents was the lowest cost per student clock hour in Hiawatha. The cost of the median among the eighty-nine subjects being offered the first semester of 1922-23 in the five high schools was 13¼ cents. The lowest cost in Padonia per student clock hour was just double the median. The average (medians) for the quartiles were 6⅔, 11, 21½ and 53 cents per student clock hour. The three small high schools purchased all the instruction costing 53 cents and

more than one-half that costing $21\frac{1}{2}$ cents. They received only 780 of the 120,240 clock hours with costs below the medium. The first yielded almost 23,000 more student clock hours of instruction than the other three quartiles combined.

The high costs of instruction in the small high schools were due largely to small classes and much teaching by high-salaried principals.

Each of the small high schools employed a principal and a teacher. Two of the three principals were teaching six, and the third five, periods daily. Six periods was a full teaching load for the regular instructors. The enrolments averaged approximately the same in classes taught by principals and by instructors. Almost half the instruction was given by the principals. Instruction under the principals averaged (median) seventeen cents more per student clock hour than under the regular instructors in the fourth quartile and ten cents more in the third quartile. The principals in Padonia, Hamlin, and Reserve were paid respectively 21.46 and 87 percent higher salaries than the instructors under them.

The costs per subject per pupil per year were high in these small high schools. English I cost \$105 per pupil per year in Padonia. A pupil could have taken both English II and III in the same school at a cost of only \$93. Padonia was paying more for instruction in English II and III than any of the other four high schools. Hiawatha was paying only three dollars more for training nine pupils in English I than Padonia was paying for training one pupil. Hiawatha was actually giving three pupils the three years of training in English required of each pupil in the Hiawatha high school for less than Padonia paid for the training of one pupil in English I. Hamlin had more than twice as many pupils as Padonia, but Hiawatha was giving English I, II, and III to three pupils for less than the cost of the training for one pupil in Hamlin.

Hiawatha paid approximately one-half the costs and received approximately three out of four student clock hours of the instruction. Padonia, Reserve, Hamlin and Robinson paid almost as much as Hiawatha, but had only one out of each four student clock hours of instruction to share among the four schools. Padonia used 2 percent of the instruction and paid 10 percent of the cost. Padonia paid 10 percent of the cost; Padonia, Reserve, and Hamlin received only $10\frac{1}{2}$ percent of the instruction.

An unsuccessful attempt has been made to disorganize the Padonia high school district. Operation of the high school has been suspended since 1922-23, although the levy in that year was only one and a half mills on the dollar. The Robinson district had no building in 1922-23 and was operated at a low cost. The high salary of the principal was the only expensive item in the budget. A new building has been erected and two additional instructors employed. The salary budget was 60 percent higher in 1925-26 than in 1922-23. The average of the annual school expenditures for the following three years was double the amount spent in 1922-23. The cost per pupil in average daily attendance had mounted

from 86 to 229 dollars. The school levy had climbed from 2.11 mills in 1922-23 to 5.48 mills in 1926-27. Robinson has pursued a conservative program and has not attempted strictly vocational training.

The increasing expenditures even in the small expensive high schools may reflect a consciousness on the part of their patrons that not all high schools are alike. Pupils in the upper grades and in the high schools in 1922-23 were planning to become farmers, skilled laborers and business men as well as to enter the professions. A relatively small percentage of their older brothers and sisters have or probably ever will complete a college course. The present small high schools are restricted to a single course meeting only the minimum requirements for college entrance. If the high schools prepare these pupils for the choices of life work which they have made, more varied types of training must be offered to them in the high schools. The people may in the future demand the type of high school that will meet the needs of the pupils and at a cost the public can afford, instead of accepting institutions named high schools notwithstanding the costs involved.

The elementary school situation must be treated briefly. Some districts are very small and none are large. The boundaries are irregular and the districts vary widely in valuation, enrolment, and school costs. The mill levies for 1922-23 are shown. The one-teacher schools are well housed. Their greatest weakness probably lies in the type of instruction offered. They are without close supervision.

It is doubtful whether transportation of grade pupils can be provided over the unimproved roads at a reasonable cost. The people simply will not vote for consolidation at this time. There is a proposed plan for re-districting. In this plan, the districts are larger and the number of schools fewer. Instead of penalizing the districts with large valuations by making them help support the weaker ones, each district is made as large as possible. No pupil would be expected to walk more than two miles. The high school busses would pick up grade school pupils and exchange them later on the route for high school pupils. A state highway runs north and south through District No. 3. Three or four high school busses would be routed over it and carry the grade pupils from the north to the school. A \$6000 building is within two miles and a \$5000 one within three miles of the school site. These could be used to house a two-teacher school. The school could be operated on a levy of one and a half mills.

The reasons are not obvious why grade and high school facilities should necessarily be provided on the same site. Small high schools are very expensive in Padonia, Reserve, Hamlin and Robinson. Provision of elementary, junior, and senior high schools meeting current objectives and practices among these schools would load the local communities with much heavier financial burdens. The transportation of all grade pupils in the proposed high school district to Hiawatha for elementary schooling may not be necessary or even desirable. No city school system does so. One high

school draws from several grade schools. Transportation would be difficult and its expenses would be enormous at this time. The people would not approve such a proposal. Until convincing data have been secured showing that the benefits received from one central grade school for the proposed high school district would warrant the expenses incurred, such an organization should not be effected.

Removing seventh and eighth grade pupils from the one-teacher schools will give the teachers more time to spend with the first six grades. Classifying the pupils in groups instead of grades for instructional purposes should prove advantageous. A carefully directed and supervised introduction of individualized instruction and the project method has possibilities for progress.

The type of schooling has been given first consideration in determining the proposed school units. The 6-3-3 plan of organization has proved acceptable in city schools and is being administered successfully in some rural sections. The success of the proposed organizations depends largely on the type of administration and supervision provided. One competently trained person should be responsible for the supervision of the first six grades and another for the junior and senior high schools. The former would have about fifty and the latter twenty-five teachers. The demands on each would consume full time service without any regular classroom teaching. Sufficient clerical assistance should be given them so that they might perform the highly specialized services which they alone in the system could perform. The proposed school units should make possible first hand personal supervision. The supervisors would not be compelled, as many county superintendents now are, to be content with talking over school matters with those who know less than the county superintendents, possibly a little more than the teachers, about what school supervision is all about.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN RURAL EDUCATION

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In fulfilling its function the secondary school in rural education has two major responsibilities. Its primary responsibility is to educate the pupil in terms of the common interests and activities of men today. In meeting this responsibility it continues the task begun in the elementary school of giving the pupil those elements of education deemed desirable for all in making for adjustment to our physical and social environment. It is that part of education promoting integration and the acquirement of those elements of knowledge, those abilities, habits, attitudes, etc., making for intelligent living under present-day conditions in the things that people commonly do. The second responsibility of the secondary school in rural education is to offer the pupil opportunity for developing his special abilities and aptitudes, interests, and purposes. The growing recognition of individual

differences and their importance, both from the psychological and sociological angles, demands that the secondary school serving a rural community give more serious attention to meeting this second responsibility than it ever has in the past.

Important as social efficiency is and necessary as it is to promote in secondary education social adjustment and a desirable degree of social solidarity, a responsibility of equal if not greater importance is the encouragement and development in each individual of his special abilities, aptitudes, and interests. Only by developing his special talents will the individual obtain the most from life and at the same time be in a position to contribute in the greatest measure to social welfare. What we really need to develop in this country are individualities possessed of social intelligence and habits, attitudes, and ideals of social service. For the rural community especially there are needed individuals who have social sympathies, understandings, and ideals but who have in addition special abilities and interests which can be capitalized upon by the community in promoting its general welfare.

In meeting both of its major responsibilities, the secondary school in rural communities needs to build up and maintain close relationships between the educational activities of the school and the life activities and problems of the community.

One's education gains significance, becomes vital and meaningful, as it ties up with past experiences and is related to present and probable future activities. Hence, the educational experiences gained in the school should be closely related to the life of the community. They should, however, not be limited to that life. Rightly organized and taught school subjects should reflect the civic, vocational, esthetic, and other activities of the community and should promote a more effective participation in those activities and a clearer understanding and appreciation of their characteristics and relationships. The utilization of the resources of the community insures the maximum of normality to the learning process.

Where the community is deficient in certain types of development desirable in modern life and where materials for promoting a broader understanding and appreciation of human affairs are needed, the school should make up these deficiencies or lacks and offer such educational experiences as tend to make for the richness and breadth desirable.

In fulfilling its function the secondary school serving rural people must meet insofar as possible the special educational needs of its community. To meet its primary responsibility, however, that of developing in all pupils those common and integrating elements of knowledge, and those habits, abilities, attitudes, and standards of living deemed essential to insure adjustment to the common demands of community, state and nation, its work should represent all significant phases of life to the extent that they are appropriate to children of adolescent age. Also, to give each pupil an opportunity to discover his abilities, aptitudes, and interests, and to help him to formulate his life purpose. This primary responsibility should be the main task of the junior high school or, when that is lacking, of the

first year or two of the four-year high school. The senior high school or the last two or three years of the four-year high school should afford insofar as the facilities of the school permit differentiated curriculums designed in each case to meet the special needs, both vocational and nonvocational, of the important groups in its pupil population. The nonvocational curriculums should be determined, beyond the common and integrating work still required of all, according to the interests and needs of the pupils pursuing those curriculums.

With minor exceptions all the boys and girls trained in the small high school go out into their communities or elsewhere with but little understanding or appreciation of the complex, interlocking social, economic, and occupational activities and problems of the present time. They go out usually with little or no background of school experience to enable them to select and utilize intelligently the elements of culture significant for the average person in giving richness to the daily affairs of modern life. Some are deploring the tendencies of secondary schools to expand their programs to include the so-called new studies and vocational courses. They plead for a restriction to what they term the fundamentals. In the main, those holding this view think of the traditional subjects, particularly those that have for generations met the preparatory requirements of pupils going on to higher institutions of learning, as the fundamentals. They seem to forget that the secondary school of the present should educate primarily for the present and the future and that the pupil population of the secondary school of today includes all social groups and a corresponding range of abilities, interests, and purposes. They forget that the demands of life are constantly changing and consequently, also, the essentials of successful living. There is need today for a new interpretation of fundamentals in terms of the demands made, not upon a select group, but upon the average run of people in the various duties, responsibilities, and enjoyments of their daily life. The most immediate and important educational needs of the large majority of people today are those growing directly out of daily life and its demands in terms of knowledge, abilities, attitudes, and ideals.

For the secondary school serving a rural community to perform its function effectively requires a knowledge of the community which it serves. It needs to know intimately the materials with which it has to work as to what their capacities for growth are, what they do outside the school, what they learn through social agencies other than the school, and their special abilities, aptitudes, interests, and purposes insofar as these have been formulated. It needs to know what percentage of its pupil population reaches each stage in the secondary school, why pupils leave when they do, what they do when they leave, and what the need in the way of education to enable them to live happily, helpfully, and productively in the places which they occupy. It needs to know as definitely as possible the demands made upon them and the problems they face. It should also know the numbers and types of children of secondary-school age in the community not attend-

ing school but who might be induced to enter if work adapted to their needs were offered. Finally, it needs to determine in the light of such facts the types of curriculums, subjects and subjectmatter content, the types of school government and of school organization best suited to serve the pupil population of the community in which it is situated.

There are many other large problems requiring scientific study before the secondary school can perform its function most effectively in rural education. Let us look at just one briefly. To reorganize secondary-school curriculums and to revise subject-matter content in terms of the actual needs of youth and modern society will require careful, systematic, continuous study. In developing a secondary education of a functional type in rural education that will utilize the educational resources of rural communities and correct lacks and deficiencies there will be necessary careful investigations of such communities. Especially will such studies be needed in regard to the activities of the people to discover the common needs and problems and those needing special emphasis because of shortcomings and other characteristics peculiar to communities. This will require analysis of the major activity groups in rural communities with attention to the attitudes, standards, and ideals now controlling such activities.

Every adolescent and every adult in every community engages, with a greater or lesser degree of understanding and effectiveness, in specific activities. Everyone is concerned with those things which make for physical fitness and health. Everyone engages in activities that may be classed as economic: first, as a consumer; and second, as a producer—a worker in an occupation. In a healthy society it is essential that each member be able to produce and thus carry in a desirable fashion his own economic load and an increment over. It is no less desirable that each should use intelligently the products of others in the way of food, clothing, literature, art, etc. All engage in activities that pertain to sociability—intermingling with their fellows for enjoyment and the other values derived from social contacts. All are in some degree intellectually active and the things they ordinarily think about and the problems requiring thought are related to and grow out of the other activities in which they engage.

In a civilization changing as rapidly as ours the demands of life are continuously changing. Hence, there is need of developing in the youth of today as never before the idea that education is a lifelong process only the beginning of which can under the most favorable circumstances be gained during the periods of elementary and secondary education.

From the study and analysis of human activities, characteristics, and problems as suggested it will gradually become possible to determine at any time more and more accurately the objectives of secondary education. From such studies in rural communities of the different types it will be possible to locate with reference to objectives special community needs. In the meantime, to be modified as the results of scientific study point the way, the author suggests that those in charge of secondary schools serving

rural communities might set up for purposes of guidance some such tentative list of objectives as the following based upon an empirical study of the major groups of activities suggested above:

1. To promote a normal physical development and desirable habits, standards, and ideals of health in each pupil.
2. To develop in each pupil a sense of responsibility as a member of a democratic form of society, and a desirable attitude toward the performance of civic duties.
3. To train each pupil through practice, so far as age of pupil and time make possible, to participate intelligently in activities promoting the welfare of the school group and the community as a whole.
4. To give each pupil training in sociability through appropriate opportunities while in school for engaging in group activities pertaining to sociability.
5. To give training for home life and parenthood, insofar as the age and the understanding of the pupil at each stage of secondary-school development make appropriate.
6. To give all pupils some knowledge of the occupational activities of modern society and their importance in social progress.
7. To give all pupils some training in the problems of intelligent consumption of the major products used in modern life.
8. To give pupils not going beyond the secondary school opportunities for vocational training in the major occupations of the community so far as the facilities of the school make possible and where such training is appropriate to the secondary-school period.
9. To encourage and stimulate each pupil to continue his education after his formal school life is ended by promoting through the exercise of his special abilities, aptitudes, and interests the development of abiding intellectual, recreational, and esthetic habits, interests, and desires.
10. To develop in each pupil open-mindedness, scientific habits and attitudes, and the habit of rational approach to problems through constant practice on problems related to life.
11. To promote through all the activities of the school the development of desirable habits, standards, and ideals of conduct.

In conclusion, the secondary school serving rural communities, if it is to be a genuine democratic institution, should give the opportunity for a liberal education, but liberal in the sense of a broad, sympathetic understanding and appreciation of the important and significant life activities of today. It should assist the pupil to become an efficient member of society by helping him to know himself and by equipping him in the most direct way possible to realize upon his inheritance, and to render his service, whatever it may be, to society. For many this will mean opportunities for vocational training. Its work in a particular community should be determined with reference to the significant activities of that community but should not be limited to them. Often it will need to supplement, enlarge, or redirect, some of the practices of a community through education in the light of the desirable trends in social and economic progress. Above all, through all its work, it should strive to develop, within the possibilities of each individual, resourcefulness, intellectual honesty, correct habits of thinking, and an open mind.

VALUE OF SUPERVISION IN RURAL CONSOLIDATED SCHOOLS

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The problem: Is there a need for supervision in the rural consolidated schools of North Carolina, and if so, what is its value? The term supervision as used in this report refers to the work of the professional assistant whose duties are chiefly supervisory and does not apply to the superintendent who is both administrator and supervisor. Since the primary purpose of supervision is to improve instruction, all other activities being only preparatory or contributory to this end, supervision will be considered valuable to the extent that it aids pupils to do better school work than they would do without it. Consolidated, when referring to schools, has several legal designations in North Carolina and no one common meaning. It can only be defined, roughly, as the enlargement of territory and the bringing together of schools.

Purpose of investigation—The study, which I have the privilege of reporting, was begun in the fall of 1924 for the purpose of determining, objectively, the effect of supervision upon the efficiency of the instruction in rural schools of North Carolina. The wording of the last codification of the school law made it expedient to obtain such data. Section 51 states that the county board of education may employ a supervisor or supervisors to aid the superintendent in supervising instruction provided the salary for the same is stipulated in the budget and approved by the county commissioners. The county commissioners naturally question the advisability of this extra expenditure unless the county superintendent and his board can give very convincing evidence that supervision is essential to effective teaching results. Although the results of Dr. Pittman's investigation in South Dakota and the preliminary report of the first year of the study in Indiana had been highly favorable for supervision, the division of supervision thought that local evidence, if such could be obtained, would help very materially in convincing these county commissioners whose financial support it is necessary to secure in order to extend supervision to the other seventy-six counties of the state. This number has since been reduced to seventy-one.

Since it was necessary to limit the scope of the investigation, it was restricted to a study of supervision in the consolidated schools for two reasons: First, because of the present state-wide consolidation program, and second, because the value of supervision in this type of school had not been determined and the need is not so generally recognized as for schools of the one, two, and three-teacher types.

Method of study—The equivalent group method was considered best suited to an investigation of this kind. Therefore, it was necessary to find two groups of consolidated schools that were practically equivalent in every factor of school efficiency, except supervision. The following

comparison will show that certain constant factors were practically equated in the selection of the supervised and unsupervised groups of schools.

1. All schools were modernly constructed brick buildings with one and only one teacher per grade.
2. Each school had a term of eight months.
3. (a) The teachers of the supervised group of schools averaged 1.12 years of college training; those of the unsupervised group 1.25 years.
(b) The average experience of the supervised group was 3.4 years, including one inexperienced teacher; while the average experience of the unsupervised group was over four years with no inexperienced teachers.
(c) Sixty-two and one-half percent, or $5/12$ of the supervised teachers and $7/12$ of the unsupervised teachers were teaching in the same school for second year.
4. The average enrolment per teacher was 30.1 in the supervised, while that of the unsupervised group was 33.9.

From the above comparison we see that, with the exception of the teaching load, whatever advantages there were accrued to the unsupervised group and for that reason need not have further consideration.

However, there were two other very significant factors that could not be so easily controlled in the selection of the groups—the acquired ability and the native ability of the children making up the two groups. A battery of educational tests and a mental test were used to measure these.

The data show that in the fall testing the difference in reading ability of the two groups ranged from 0 to .3 of a grade with an average difference of .1 of a grade in better reading achievement in the unsupervised group. The spelling ability ranged from .1 to a whole grade's difference with an average difference of .5 of a grade better attainment in the unsupervised group. As both groups of schools had been in session two months when the fall tests were given, the grade norm for fourth grade was approximately 4.2, the norm for the fifth grade 5.2, etc. The average reading ability of the supervised group was .9 and the unsupervised .8 of a grade below standards for the grades in which they were located. The average spelling ability of the supervised group was 1.1 grades and the unsupervised .6 of a grade below standard.

While the ability to handle the four fundamentals varied from school to school and grade to grade, the average difference in the ability of the two groups was zero. On the other hand, the average difference in problem solving was .1 of a grade in favor of the unsupervised group. The arithmetical ability of the two groups is better shown when compared with the norms for the respective grades. Both groups were exactly a grade below standard in computation, while the supervised was .9 and the unsupervised .8 of a grade below the standards for problem solving. In summarizing the educational status of the two groups we find that the average difference was .1 of a grade better preparation on the part of the unsupervised group. It should also be noted that the past achievement of both groups of children averaged practically a grade below the standard for the grades in which they were located.

As native ability of children is an important factor in determining their future progress, the National Intelligence Test, Scale A, was used to measure the intellectual caliber of the two groups. The raw scores were changed to the grades for which the average mental ages were equivalent. The difference as found ranged from zero in the fourth and fifth grades to .4 of a grade in favor of the supervised group in the seventh grade, the average difference was .1 of a grade greater potential ability on the part of the supervised group. The children ranked as very inferior by this intelligence test were excluded from the study for two reasons: first, to more nearly equate the two groups and second, because it is generally conceded that pupils with such low native ability cannot be expected to make a normal grade's progress within one school year.

From the above comparisons it would seem that for all practical purposes the supervised and the unsupervised groups of schools were equivalent. In the important factors there were very slight differences and such as there were tended to counteract each other in their favoritism to the two groups.

Results obtained—For the above reasons this study proposed to credit the supervision of instruction with the differences in the amount of improvement made by the two groups in such abilities as were measured: ability to read, to spell, to add, subtract, multiply and divide, and to solve problems in arithmetic. Because funds and time were limited for this study, tests were made in only those tool subjects, using grades four to seven inclusive in all subjects measured. The first tests were given at the end of the second month and the second series exactly five months later. The results obtained will be given by subjects with a very brief discussion of each.

The reading progress was greater in every grade of the supervised group. When the total average progress of the two groups was compared, it was found that the supervised group had made 2.52 times as much progress or 1.52 percent more progress than the unsupervised.

In spelling, which is a subject that is generally thought that anyone can teach, the difference is even greater. The average progress of the supervised group exceeded the average progress of the unsupervised group 182 percent.

Again in the fundamental operations in arithmetic, which is a purely drill subject, the supervised group made the greater progress in every single grade. The children where the instruction was supervised gained 2.65 times as much skill in rapid and accurate computation of whole numbers, common and decimal fractions, as did those in the unsupervised group.

In the improvement in reasoning, or problem solving in arithmetic, which is probably more dependent upon the native capacity of pupils, there was less difference than in any other subject. Yet here the progress of the supervised group exceeded the progress of the unsupervised 55 percent.

In summarizing the difference in the improvement of the two groups, it is found that the progress of the supervised group more than doubled the progress of the unsupervised group in reading, spelling and the four fundamentals. Out of sixteen differences, before the results for all grades

were combined, fifteen favored the supervised group. When all grades and all subjects were combined it was found that the supervised group had made $2\frac{1}{4}$ times as much progress as the unsupervised group, or, that it had made 126 percent more improvement than the unsupervised group. (These findings are corroborated by three scientific studies of the same subject in South Dakota, Michigan, and Indiana.) In the five months studied, 100 days, the supervised group received the equivalent of 138 days of instruction. On a basis of the same difference for the entire term of 160 days, the children of the supervised group did 1.4 grades work during one school year. (It will be recalled that the fall tests showed the achievement of both groups of schools to be nearly a year below standard, which would indicate that for the last few years prior to this study neither group had made a grade's progress within a school year.) If the compulsory attendance law required the completion of standard elementary grade work, on a basis of the difference in the rate of progress in the two groups, the supervision of instruction would mean a saving of 2.3 years to the children for work or higher education, and a proportional saving in the cost of instruction to the taxpayer. Put in other terms, for every dollar expended for supervision, Craven County, North Carolina, purchased \$7.92 worth of additional instruction.

Conclusions drawn—It is generally conceded that the mastery of the fundamental tools of learning is one of the objectives of the elementary school. The results of this study indicate that the supervision of instruction was certainly a positive factor in accomplishing this objective. Further investigation is needed to determine the degree to which this is true of the other important but less tangible aims of elementary education. However, within the limits of the experiment, it seems fair to conclude that supervision is a valuable means of improving the teaching efficiency of the consolidated schools; and that even if it only effected the results of the tool subjects, it would seem to more than justify its present cost to the state and to the twenty-nine county systems of North Carolina that are now employing a rural supervisor.

In conclusion, I would like to state that there is no tried method of improving instruction in the rural schools that will give quicker, surer, and more permanent results than adequate supervision of the classroom teaching. It has demonstrated its educational worth and monetary value in schools ranging in size from one teacher for all the grades in South Dakota to one teacher for each grade in this study in North Carolina. While it is estimated that successful business enterprises spend approximately 10 percent of the amount spent for salaries for supervision of the workers, the four studies that have been made of this subject in rural schools indicate that from 20 to 56 percent of the money spent for teachers' salaries is wasted for lack of supervision. A specially trained supervisor in each of the counties of North Carolina can be purchased for less than 2 percent of the amount now being spent for teachers' salaries. Can any state afford not to make such an investment for its rural children?

THE USE OF THE BULLETIN AS AN AGENCY IN SUPERVISION

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Supervision must be expert and abundant in order that the limitations of the teacher and the bias of the particular situation may not keep her from attaining desired educational results. The average territory over which superintendents have to travel is 1672 square miles. Under such circumstances all that can be expected of the superintendent is the annual visit. Careful study of reports of county superintendents throughout the United States reveals the facts that on the average 40 percent of the county superintendent's time is spent visiting schools; the average length of visit is from one to two hours; the average number of school buildings is 84 of which 65 to 77 percent are one-teacher buildings; the average number of teachers per county is 132. In counties where there is supervision other than by county superintendent, the average number of visits is 5.

Besides the actual situations just mentioned, another factor which modifies supervisory procedures is the academic and professional preparation of teachers.

Throughout the country, the teachers of rural schools as a group, are less well-equipped from the standpoint of both general and professional education than are the teachers of urban schools.

It is evident from the reports of the status of rural teachers in various states such as was given in the New York Survey by Professor Bagley, such as has been indicated in the Texas Survey, the various bulletins of the United States government, the study of the status of teachers in Wisconsin by the writer, and numerous other studies, that a relatively large proportion of teachers in one-room schools have less than eight years of elementary schooling; have had only two or three years of secondary education; very few have had any college training; about one half of them have had teacher training in high school; and that a very small proportion are normal graduates.

A careful study of the professional and general reading of rural school teachers made by Dr. Bagley revealed the fact that between ten and twelve percent of the teachers reported that they took no periodicals; relatively few teachers were members of state teachers' associations.

It has been repeatedly stated that the one-room rural school is the weakest link in our educational chain. Among the factors which produce this weak bond are the following: The immature, itinerant, inadequately trained, professionally isolated teaching personnel.

In 1920-21, 93.2 percent of all the rural school teachers in Wisconsin did not have two years of academic and professional education beyond the high school. About four tenths of the pupils in rural schools were taught by immature teachers. The average rural teacher seldom remains in one locality more than one year.

It is very evident indeed from the actual conditions of the rural school problem that some agency other than personal supervisory visitations must furnish the help which rural teachers need so badly.

It is evident also that some technic of supervision other than personal visitation must be made use of if supervision is to be effective in the rural schools in the country. The use of the supervisory bulletin is becoming increasingly important as an agency in supervision. For this reason an attempt has been made to classify 1522 bulletins issued by county superintendents and rural supervisors in forty-two different states. The purpose of this classification was to determine whether or not these bulletins were so constructed as to fulfill the requirements of effective supervision. The criteria used in the evaluation of the bulletins together with the frequency of distribution follows:

Tabulation of the Evaluation of Bulletins

I. Supervision must have a clearly and definitely organized program		Frequency	Percent
1. Does the bulletin keep before the teacher specific standards of attainments?.....	108		
2. Does the bulletin suggest devices and procedures for arriving at the standards?.....	59		
3. Does the bulletin deal with routine administrative matters?	1081		81
Total	1248		81
II. Supervision must be a cooperative undertaking of teachers and supervisors			
1. Does the bulletin contain devices which some teachers have tried out with success?.....	15		
2. Does the bulletin give reports of experiments which have been tried out successfully?.....	3		
3. Does the bulletin commend the good work being done?	32		
Total	50		3
III. Supervision should be democratic			
1. Does the bulletin encourage experimentation?...	25		
2. Does the bulletin suggest significant problems for solution and experimentation?.....	14		
Total	39		2
IV. Supervision must be scientific			
1. Does the bulletin describe completely the administration of tests to be used in measuring progress?	21		
2. Does the bulletin interpret the results of previous tests and compare these results with the standards for the various grades?.....	16		
Total	37		2

	Frequency	Percent
V. Supervision must center upon the improvement of instruction		
1. Does the bulletin suggest good technic of classroom instruction?	144	
2. Does the bulletin help establish good housekeeping?	42	
3. Does the bulletin set forth devices for the analysis of the recitation?.....	1	
4. Does the bulletin state the standards for judging instruction as a basis for self analysis?.....	2	
5. Does the bulletin refer to books and periodicals that throw light on:		
(1) Purpose and bearing of education?.....	1	
(2) Nature and process of learning?.....	5	
(3) Nature and function of method?.....	11	
(4) Nature and function of subjectmatter?.....	2	
6. Does the bulletin suggest how this material can be applied to classwork?.....	1	
Total	209	13

The total of the frequencies is 1583 and the total number of bulletins studied is 1522. Many of the bulletins were monthly papers and contained material which lent itself to classification under several of the principles which accounts for the fact that the total is greater than 1522.

A further attempt to classify these bulletins resulted in the following divisions:

Classification of Bulletins

Type	Number	Percent	Rank
Administrative	1189	.78	1
Inspirational	9	.005	7
Outlines of work	60	.039	3
Tests (standard)	16	.01	5
Examination questions	5	.003	8
Charts of test scores	12	.007	6
Supervision through related (club work) activities.....	2	.001	9.5
Instructional	171	.11	2
Teacher growth	56	.03	4
Follow-up	2	.001	9.5
	1522	.986	

The following conclusions regarding the value of bulletins as a supervisory agency suggest themselves to the author:

1. They are a means of solving or suggesting the solution of difficulties common to a number of schools at the same time.
2. They lend themselves to filing for present and future use.
3. They are a means of bringing the latest developments to the attention of teachers long before they appear in book form.
4. They bring about a better professional attitude toward the work.
5. They supplement the personal visit and conference.
6. They are a means of unifying the work in the county.

7. They are a means of bringing the county superintendent and her co-workers in closer touch with their teachers.
8. They are a splendid means of making "contagious" to all the teachers, the good things some teachers are doing.
9. They are a splendid means of informing the school boards of the work being attempted by the supervisory staff of the county. This tends to interest the members of the board in the work of the school and also tends to make possible better and needed equipment for the school, which, in turn, means better teaching.
10. They contain material which is valuable to teachers. This fact is verified by the replies of the teachers concerning the value to them of bulletins.
11. They are a means of bringing about better standards and higher levels of work.

It is quite evident that the proportion of administrative bulletins to the total is entirely too large. Many superintendents are practically doing away with the occasional administrative bulletin by providing information concerning all of the details of administration in a handbook issued at the beginning of the year. It is evident also that bulletins which induce teacher growth, research and experimentation, are most valuable and should be stressed where bulletins are used as an agency of supervision. The amount of training of teachers makes it obvious that detailed instructional bulletins must be sent out in great numbers since the teachers do not have an adequate academic or professional training sufficient to perform their work. It is the opinion of the writer that the use of the bulletin as an agency in supervision is in its infancy. A more detailed study should be made of it. Standards should be determined. Reports of experiments should be made available to all teachers, and an epidemic of new procedures being developed by teachers should be spread through the county by the use of the supervisory bulletin.

ZONE SUPERVISION

FRED C. FISCHER, DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF SCHOOLS, WAYNE COUNTY,
MICHIGAN

Zone supervision is a name given to a plan devised to bring supervisory help to rural teachers in groups, the teachers from each group coming from and serving a territory comprising from ten to twenty school rooms. This territory and group is called a zone, and the teachers are usually known as zone teachers.

The zone plan had its origin in the mind of Marvin S. Pittman, who is now director of rural education in the Michigan State Normal College at Ypsilanti. It was empirically demonstrated in Polk and Marion Counties, Oregon, as early as 1916-17, but was first scientifically evaluated by demonstration by Dr. Pittman in Brown County, South Dakota, in 1919-20. He reports some very interesting and almost startling results, bearing on the improvement of children and teachers of a supervised zone as compared to a similar group of an unsupervised zone.

Further demonstrations were conducted by the author in Michigan, be-

ginning in 1921, when one zone of ten rural schools, located near the Normal College at Ypsilanti, was organized. During that school year Dr. Pittman repeated the South Dakota experiment and confirmed the results obtained at that time. The zone plan of supervision is still continued for demonstration and practice work for student supervisors near Ypsilanti, Michigan, under direction of the rural education department of the normal college.

While few questioned the results of these demonstrations from the standpoint of experimental education, the plan could have little practical value until it had been successfully used under the normal conditions of a county wide program, administered by the county superintendent, with his supervisory assistants, who are responsible to him, and who conduct the details of the supervisory program without aid from the skilled expert, with a normal school supporting and encouraging the activities.

In 1924, after Oakland County, Michigan, had made provisions for the employment of helping teachers for rural schools, the rural education committee of the Michigan Education Association seized the opportunity of investigating the effectiveness of zone supervision of rural schools, by conducting a scientific comparison of results obtained during a year of work in the supervised county with that of a control group in an adjoining county which was unsupervised. This investigation is recorded by W. C. Hoppes of the state normal college in Bulletin No. 7 of the Michigan Education Association, entitled "The Value of Supervision in the Rural Schools of Oakland County." The investigation again confirmed practically all that had been claimed by Dr. Pittman in his original demonstrations. It is not the purpose of this paper to record the details or results of these investigations. They are simply a part of the history of the plan and may be studied by anyone who is interested.

The purposes of zone supervision are to provide:

1. Conditions for more efficient learning on the part of pupils.
2. Convenient, democratic, and effective teachers' meetings, and a higher degree of professionalization of teachers.
3. Opportunity for rural communities to become better acquainted with the rural educational program, and to have a part in the carrying out and enjoying that program with children, teachers, and community workers.

The major objective in every supervisory activity is the improvement of learning. The helping teacher's visit and the monthly zone meeting are the two most important means to accomplish this end. Each teacher in a zone is asked to give one Saturday each month for a zone meeting, held in one of the rural schools of her respective zone. At this meeting every month outlines of the work to be studied are given out, problems of the teachers are discussed, demonstration classes are taught, and the community participates in the meeting at the noonday luncheon and in the afternoon program.

During the month following each zone meeting the supervising or helping teacher visits each school in her two or three zones, and assists in

matters of organization, methods, community problems, etc. Each visit of the helping teacher involves a twenty or thirty minute period of work directly with the pupils in

1. Establishing an effective motive for work
2. Correcting faulty habits of study
3. Improving skill, and increasing knowledge of how to learn.

Pupils are taken into full confidence of the helping teacher as to what she is trying to do for and with them. Her work is always designed to emphasize her function as a superior teacher. In each school she must demonstrate good class management and good teaching technic. At each zone meeting the helping teacher does a piece of teaching to illustrate the program which she recommends to teachers. This establishes a professional sympathy and understanding between helping teacher and teacher. It begets in teachers a studious attitude towards the details of teaching technic and establishes standards and some degree of uniformity of procedure among different teachers.

The entire program of subjects for special emphasis is definitely planned in advance for the school year. Four or five subjects are chosen for special emphasis. For example, this year's program of subjects in Wayne County is as follows:

September—Reading

October—Citizenship and Civil Government

November—Arithmetic Problems

December—Handwriting and Spelling

For January, February, March and April, the subjects of the first four months are repeated with the addition of Music Appreciation in January.

This basis or organization is used because, (1) teachers teach reading, writing and spelling, not pedagogy or general psychology; (2) pupils are perfectly conscious of trying to learn these subjects, and can, therefore, be reached directly by the helping teacher during her visit to the school.

Dates and even the exact hour of the helping teacher's visit is announced in advance. It is a definite purpose to see each school and each teacher at their best. This establishes a close bond of sympathy and confidence between teacher and helping teacher. It fixes for both teachers and pupils an ideal, below which they are at other times unwilling to allow the quality of their work to drop. After a few months no teacher will attempt to deceive the helping teacher because, in the first place, there is no need at all for doing it, and, in the second place, any helping teacher can tell in a very short time the difference between sham and honest work.

Standards, objectives, and achievements in learning are specifically stated. Initial tests are scored and results discussed by teachers at the first zone meeting in the fall. Informal tests are provided each month. Pupils prepare during each month specific pieces of work for the helping teacher to see and to appreciate.

The social attitudes and standards of conduct of the pupils are made a part of the program. This is done through the organization and correct functioning of a Citizenship club in every school. Children have learned to greet the helping teacher, the county superintendent and other visitors in a manner as a host should greet a guest. Every child has his obligations to meet as a citizen of the school and performs his obligations with dispatch and correctness which would do credit to our older citizens.

The second objective, which relates to the development of the professional pride and ambition among teachers is brought about chiefly through the monthly teachers' meeting, but is also stimulated by means of theater parties, picnics, etc. Association of teachers who have the same professional interests and problems is conducive to increased professional selfrespect. Isolation is destructive to morale and ambition. Contact with co-workers is stimulating to pride selfrespect and professional consciousness. There is a social and personal pleasure aspect built into each zone meeting through the songs they sing, the general jollification at the dinner, and in the mutual enjoyment of the afternoon program that cannot be measured.

Cooperation of teachers with each other and with the helping teacher is expressed in many ways. They bring each other to zone meetings, they are all called upon to participate in the discussions, and each opinion or experience is treated with the highest regard. The opportunity for a teacher to teach a demonstration lesson before her fellows gives her pride and confidence in herself. In short, the professionalization of teachers under the zone plan has no end of possibilities.

The third objective of zone supervision relates to the development of a progressive public opinion. Interested parents and school officers are often invited to be present at the school during the visit of the helping teacher.

The afternoon session of each zone meeting is devoted to a program for the general public. This meeting is in charge of the elected officers of the zone.

In conclusion, it may be asked, "Is such a program effective? Does it pay? Does it produce results?"

Those who know the plan best after careful observation, testing, and checking are unanimous in saying that zone supervision has shown and is constantly showing these conclusions:

1. A capitalization of the energy, ideas, and knowledge of all for the benefit of each.
2. A steady improvement in teaching technic.
3. A certain improvement of scholarship among pupils of the school as well as a much higher morale and loyalty to their school.
4. A real comradeship among rural teachers through the opportunity of becoming better acquainted.
5. Better cooperation from school boards, and parents, and better equipped schools, through this cooperation.
6. A feeling among teachers, boys and girls, patrons, and school officers that the things they do well that are worth while are appreciated.

A TEN SCHOOL PLAN OF COUNTY SUPERVISION

LENA LATKIN, ASSISTANT COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT, PULASKI COUNTY,
ARK.

County supervision of rural public schools in Arkansas has existed in some form since 1907. Since the first day county superintendency went into effect county superintendents have been helping teachers in service to improve the quality of their instruction. They have carried the work in supervision along with their administrative and other duties. County school supervision separate from administration as a special field of service is less than three years old in Arkansas. Pulaski County is among the few counties of the state rendering service in this field to the teachers, children, and patrons of its rural schools.

In considering any plan of work, in a county having only one supervisor for its entire school and teacher population, many factors enter into the effectiveness of the work done by the supervisor. Chief among these are the teachers to be supervised, their training, experience, maturity, or lack of these; their number; the number of pupils per teacher; physical conditions of the school plant; the community in which the school is located, etc. To avoid scattering of effort, and in an attempt to make supervision more effective, the plan, which for want of a better name we shall call for the purpose of this paper "The Ten School Plan," was adopted.

Ten schools are specially selected, according to this plan, for intensive work during a period of three months. The schools are selected because of young, inexperienced teachers, old, "in the rut" teachers, because of some community project with which the teachers need help, or because of need for bringing the school up to standard.

At the beginning of the second year it was considered wise to use the first six weeks and the last six weeks of the school year for a round of general "get-to-gether" visits to all the schools before starting again on the "ten school plan." The county would in this way be covered generally through at least two visits per year to every school, and would be covered through the "ten school plan" in a period of three years.

During the two and one-half years this plan has been in operation the plan has been varied from only once. It was decided that the ten schools selected at this time, instead of being given intensive work covering a period of three months, be given a week's intensive work each. This does not mean that every minute of every hour of the five days was spent in the school. It does mean, however, that most of the time of five days was given to helping the teacher improve her instruction of the children. In one instance the time was distributed over a period of two weeks between two schools.

Visiting in the ten specially selected schools varies from at least a half hour to a whole day, on an average, once every two weeks, during the period of three months. These visits, as a rule, are followed by a discussion of plans and methods, conferences as to better ways of presenting material,

with definite suggestions as to how and what to do under given conditions. Perhaps a paragraph in some book is assigned to some teacher for reading, perhaps a home visit is decided upon as a help in solving a problem of discipline.

The teacher or teachers in these ten schools are asked to help initiate four conditions in their schools as a background for their work:

1. That a medical inspection of every child in the school be made.
2. That a modern health crusade be carried on as part of the school work.
3. That a school improvement association or a parent-teacher association be formed if there be none.
4. That a boys' and girls' agricultural club be formed wherever possible.

Supervision in the county as a whole and including the ten schools has assumed a number of aspects or phases: Visiting, group meetings, demonstration lessons, monthly letters or bulletins, testing, reading circle work, helping to establish libraries, enforcing of better school attendance, and the continued organization of P. T. A.'s.

First, the demonstration and visiting. Demonstrations have been both formal and informal. Four one-hour periods of demonstration were given at the September county institute, rural children being used in the classes. They were children in the first, second, and third grades. The in-between-recitation periods were most carefully provided for in this demonstration. More than fifty recitation periods were taken charge of by the supervisor at the request of the teacher during the first year, because she felt the need of help. At times formal lesson plans were prepared the day before and used in the school next day, plan in hand. At other times the supervisor has taken charge of the class as the need arose. Demonstration through visiting of other schools by the teacher was carried on the first year in a very limited way.

This fall, with the cooperation of our directors, the program of visiting for the teachers as part of the supervisory plan has been much more definite and helpful. One day in the early fall was set aside as a day for visiting and observing the work of expert teachers in the city schools. The teachers were divided into groups visiting the primary, intermediate, etc., or any special subjectmatter classes, such as reading, language, and music. A second day, two months later, was set that teachers might visit the schools of the county. Seven schools were selected for visiting. Teachers of one room schools were assigned one room schools for visits.

The two county-wide visiting days were followed by a county-wide faculty meeting the next morning in the office of the superintendent, and thoroughly discussed. They have proven of value both inspirationally and practically. The teachers visited were notified in advance of the visit to be made and the teachers who did the visiting were later found by the supervisor to be using the methods which had been observed.

Reading comprehension tests have been given in sixteen schools. In six of these, they were given in both October and in April. In the other ten schools, they were given only in April. Graphs were made of the findings and follow-up work was done with the children in each school. The range

was from 0 to 99. The median was from 16 to 49. The median should have been 50 if the school was up to standard. In several instances, where children made high grades, they were recommended for promotion, especially if they were over age. The tests proved conclusively that they are a worthwhile measuring stick; that they can be used to rouse interest in reading; and that they are decidedly worthwhile in helping the teacher to realize that she must improve the quality of her instruction. Language tests, as part of an improved language teaching program are being given this year.

In raising standards of teaching for the county through the ten school plan the county as a whole has profited.

Patrons all over the county show a willingness to buy equipment and books lacking before the ten school plan went into operation. There is an increased interest in school attendance as shown by the keen competition for the office attendance picture each month. There is an increased interest in schools shown through the visits of the patrons to the schools and to the county superintendent's office. The local newspapers not only willingly give space, but ask for contributions concerning our schools. While much of this interest is undoubtedly due to the consolidation program being administered by our county superintendent some of it also is due to the supervisory program as carried forward in the ten school plan.

PROMOTING INTELLIGENT USE OF THE TEXTBOOK

EDGAR ELLEN WILSON, COUNTY SUPERVISOR, HENRIETTA, TEXAS

The good that can be accomplished through the use of the textbooks is unlimited, but how far short of their real purpose they do fall in our rural schools. They are not being used in such a manner that the aims of education which are to be conceived in terms of economics, civics, domestic efficiency, goodwill and happiness are being realized by the average boy and girl.

Too often the teacher depends entirely on the textbook for her source of material. She feels that she has done her duty when she has mentioned or has pupils to mention every bare fact between the covers of the book, using the method of asking the questions at the end of the chapter and assigning the next chapter.

One of the chief criticisms offered is that the teaching that is being done consists largely of lesson hearing that is requiring pupils to recite on materials that they have memorized from the text and often with no direction on part of the teacher. The teacher must prepare the pupils to study the text intelligently and economically. Unfortunately the assignment, which is the very secret of successful instruction, is frequently ignored or slighted by teachers. Before the teacher can make intelligent use of a textbook, she must be well acquainted with it herself. It is impossible for a teacher, who does not know the advanced-phases of her subject, to do much more than follow the book. On the other hand, the teacher who has any field of thought and research within her grasp can give to her

class much more than any textbook can possibly furnish. Further, the fact that a teacher is a scholar will change her whole attitude toward the subject that she is teaching, and will react favorably on her attitude toward the class and the attitude of the class toward her.

When the teacher has an adequate understanding of the text she is teaching, she must then decide on the proper emphasis to be given the various topics that it contains. The teacher should rearrange the materials in the textbook by selecting the more important facts and bringing the secondary and minor facts into relation with these. In making the assignment, the teacher should attempt to clear up any points suggested in the text in which the child is likely to have any difficulty in understanding. This she can and should do by making lesson plans before she comes to school.

A fairly good index to a teachers' skill is her ability to make smooth connections with the text materials, which is but another way of stating the teachers task in the preparation step: arousing interest, recalling old knowledge and developing an aim.

Books do have the advantage of presenting in a permanent and readily accessible form information that is important for the pupil to obtain. This information is usually accurate and it can be secured if books are properly used in relatively brief space of time. On the other hand, books are often so constructed both in respect to subjectmatter and to form that they are not suited to the needs of particular classes and individual pupils. They too often lack the interest that oral instruction with its emphasis on personal elements possess when such instruction is properly given. And they are often over logical and give too little to personal interests. We know that the pupil must have some motive for studying the printed page, or some interest in its contents, if he is to give it the attention that is necessary for the assimilation of the matter presented.

Most of our textbooks are conceived and executed on logical, not psychological, principles. Our present texts are full of laws, rich in information, theories, principles and other such matter but after all lacking in "human interests," especially the sort that might appeal to the country boy and girl. Now, do not think from this that the textbook should be discarded entirely, or that none are good, for the good qualities far out weigh the faults.

Textbooks should be used as a help and not a hindrance to the teacher. Children's interests largely center in basic human concerns, which can often be appealed to, in arousing interests in subjects of the school curriculum. Arouse through the textbook interest in a vocation, in home life, in conditions and problems of one's local community, in the social group to which the child belongs, church, race, and economic class.

Let the teacher use the text to develop the interest of the students, to cultivate new ones, along desirable lines, to lead the child to solve problems which have not been attempted before, and to suggest new methods for their investigations.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL VALUES OF RURAL TEACHERS

BLANCHE A. NAGEL, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
OLYMPIA, WASH.

Teachers in aiding to produce economic and social values discharge a three-fold responsibility, to the community, to their profession, and to themselves.

I shall consider these responsibilities in turn. In giving a broad community service, teachers know that the "old order changeth" and the day of the one-room school district is rapidly passing, as sections become better settled and pioneer conditions no longer exist. The call to reorganize, to consolidate, to standardize, is heard everywhere and is everywhere arousing constructive interest among school patrons to provide the best equipped school systems, the best trained teachers, in short, the best schools possible, including junior or intermediate, and senior high schools, with a broad and enriched curriculum adapted to neighborhood needs.

Reading, writing, and arithmetic will always be essentials in class room instruction, but current events, subjects of hygienic, vocational, social, cultural, and spiritual values must have an important part.

School and community needs can only be met by working along lines whose foundations are already well laid. New achievements should only be attempted when they bear on the welfare and life of the community. Whatever in a particular section is outstanding in the way of industry—dairying, fruit growing, canning, stock raising, lumbering, fishing, attractive scenery—should be featured in the schools and through them the homes reached, that communities may be roused to build on what they have already done, and to use what they already have at hand.

Boys and girls with such guidance will become better developed in character and ideals and better trained for useful citizenship. The backward and indifferent as well as those naturally public spirited will be afforded an opportunity to serve and increasing economic and social values will result from this directed effort. Related school and community projects in keeping with such a program of growth could take shape along these lines:

Community projects—1. Use of school buildings as evening recreation, social and educational centers.

2. Social gatherings for the entire community, entertainments, socials, community sings, lecture courses, etc.

3. Equipment and supervision of school yards, public playgrounds, or park spaces for play.

4. Use of same after school hours and during vacation.

5. School athletic leagues for boys; for girls.

6. Manual training; home economics, broadly interpreted as home making.

7. Directed vacation employment, school gardens, credit for home work.

8. Provision and supervision of vocational opportunities for boys and girls.

9. Activities of parent-teacher associations.

10. Other organizations or clubs to do active child welfare work.

11. Inspection and supervision of commercialized amusements, dance halls, skating rinks, pool halls, theaters, motion pictures.

12. Improvement of appearance of the home town, vacant lots, streets, public buildings.

Community Surveys—Again, rural surveys may be worked out dealing with the local water supply, disposal of wastes, milk supply, and related phases of an intensive health program, rural libraries, abolishing illiteracy, fire protection, and police efficiency in the interest of good citizenship. These surveys could be developed as joint school and community projects in citizenship training.

Community welfare—The relation of the community to its environment, the dignity of rural life, the dependence of the people everywhere on the soil and on rural occupations for their sustenance, the services of cities and foreign countries as trade channels, the importance of the family, of the state and other institutions to the individual and society, the right of wealth, the problems of crime and poverty, the service and injury of immigration, are other vital subjects which may be featured as having important economic and social values for blending into community interest and ever enlarging community vision.

Three recognized weaknesses in public school systems—But with all of our achievements in educational development, teachers know there are three weak places everywhere in our public school system, to be pointed out and to be remedied. These three weaknesses are: First, too many small one-room school districts; second, careless or lax enforcement of the compulsory attendance law; and third, need of equalization fund to supplement financial school support already provided, thereby insuring an adequate budget for needy districts.

Remedies—The remedy for the first weakness—too many one-room schools—is to reorganize these weak districts into stronger units. The second difficulty—lax enforcement of the compulsory attendance law—can only be overcome by steady effort on the part of every resident of the community, as well as by the authorities whose duty it is to see that every child who is able and fit to be in school attends every day. The third need—that of providing an equalizing fund—can be met only through legislative action, as has been taken in a number of states.

The legislatures of Washington and Montana passed such a measure by legislative action last winter. Washington, after several years' effort, succeeded in getting a vote of over four to one in both houses, favoring creation of such a fund, amounting approximately to \$375,000. This measure was later vetoed by the governor. Montana was more fortunate and an equalizing fund of \$400,000 is available in that state as supplementary aid to Montana's needy districts.

With reorganization of pioneer school districts into larger units, a nation-wide program of consolidation and standardization of rural schools and disorganization of those whose attendance falls below a prescribed minimum, is being steadily developed.

Question of form of administrative and taxing units—Much thought is being given to the form which this generally accepted larger administrative and taxing unit should take, since the single district unit is no longer regarded as effective in providing adequate school facilities.

Shall it be the consolidated or community unit now being formed generally throughout the United States, and retaining a measure of local control. Shall it be the county unit with its county board, or shall it be the state unit with one board governing everything from the kindergarten to the university? Here in Washington, in common with many other states, we believe in the consolidated school and its advantages—the community unit in fact—for the resulting increase in economic and social values.

Last year thirty-five new consolidations were made by people themselves voting their smaller districts into larger and stronger units, in the interest of better and more efficient schools and broader community development.

Superintendent F. S. Thompson, under whose leadership this large district has steadily progressed for the past fourteen years, since its organization, makes this comment on the increased economic and social values built into the community because of consolidation:

There were originally 21 separate schools maintained in this territory. These 21 schools have become so welded together through this process of unifying and centralizing that now there are but six schools including the three community centers at Morton, Mineral, and Randle. All three centers have modern and ample equipment and efficient school plants with gymnasiums and teachers' cottages.

A four-year accredited high school is located at Morton, the largest of the three centers in this territory. Some high school work is done in each of the other centers. Fifteen buses are used for school transportation purposes. Care is taken to employ only well qualified and efficient teachers, who work under the constant supervision of the superintendent. A high quality of work results and a strong community interest has been built up about the three centers. Over eight hundred people took part in the last community day celebration, which included as an important feature, the annual graduation exercises.

Standardization—Closely following in the wake of consolidation is the nation-wide effort to standardize school systems. Teachers, as torch bearers of education in any program of standardization, recognize in this marvelous age of scientific investigation and new discoveries that intellectual growth and progress are breaking down so-called established precedents. A number of states, Washington among them, use a standard rating plan. Here five objectives are outlined—building, equipment, grounds, community activities, and school. A standard plate is awarded such schools as meet prescribed requirements. Michigan, Vermont, Kansas, Colorado, and Washington are among the states having this plan of award.

Second responsibility of teachers—to profession—What shall rural teachers do to discharge their second great responsibility—that to their profession? The first duty of paramount importance should be to give hearty

support and loyal cooperation in furthering the work of the local, county, state, national and international education associations, remembering that all have an essential part in the success of the whole. Effort should be made to coordinate, through constructive work and sympathetic understanding, local programs with the seven well defined objectives of the National Education Association, which are: Sound health; worthy home membership; mastery of the tools, technics and spirit of learning; faithful citizenship; vocational effectiveness; wise use of leisure; and ethical character.

Responsibility to further educational movements—It is important that every teacher have an intelligent understanding of the vital, forward-looking movements in education, that they may enlist the support of strong groups to aid in solving problems related to teacher welfare, and because of the very nature of the work of teachers, to the conomic and social values of society itself as a unit.

The goal which was set only a few years ago of a minimum salary of \$100 a month for any beginning teacher has become a reality in many sections. Washington has a large number of districts with no salary less than \$100 and similar reports from other states are common. Teachers' contracts are important, with the goal ahead in all consolidated school districts, as is already true in many of payment on a twelve months' basis instead of payment for a nine or ten months' term; professional advancement through attendance at institutions of higher learning; extension work and contact with professional literature—all are important factors which teachers are recognizing for their economic and social values.

Third responsibility of teachers—What shall teachers do to discharge their third responsibility—duty to themselves?

To succeed greatly, teachers must be leaders. As leaders they must have, first of all, good health, which inspires right attitudes toward work and toward life in its many phases; ambition to grow and gain and give; confidence, courage, faith, joy, and the daring to do will be other essentials in their struggle for success.

Remember, there is no more important or precious privilege than that of being a teacher, with a part in fitting young people for life's duties.

As torchbearers, keenly alive to opportunities for advancement, let rural teachers find their best economic and social values in earnestly striving to relieve, in part at least, the dragging weight of monotony common to rural districts.

Let the greatest service be as "bread cast upon the waters"—to help the people help themselves, to discover their own latent capacities and skills.

THE PROFESSIONAL WELFARE OF THE RURAL TEACHER

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The first question which arises in the discussion of this topic is one of fact. Do the rural teachers as a class today possess any professional standing? Dr. Bagley, in describing the rural teacher of New York state, in

accordance with recent surveys which he has made, stated that she is a young woman, twenty-three or twenty-four years of age, who began teaching at the age of nineteen, a farmer's daughter of a family of five or six and the family income not exceeding \$1000. She is a young woman who had had eight years of elementary schooling, four years of high school, and, during the latter part of the high school period, she was a member of a teacher training class where she reviewed the common school branches, studied the rudiments of psychology, school law and school management, observed classwork twice a week for a year in the local elementary schools, made two or three visits to neighboring rural schools and had ten days of practice teaching in one of the grades of the local schools. Dr. Bagley, through investigation, also disclosed the fact that out of some thousands included in his investigations eight or nine percent only are members of the New York State Teachers' Association and out of 2500, three only had the courage to admit that they were members of the National Education Association. The situation may be better in some states and in others it is undoubtedly worse than it is in New York. Can we say that the two or three thousand rural teachers have advanced far enough in professional training to merit the rank of professional teachers?

With all the acknowledged improvements in the rural schools, why has the rural teacher not become more truly professionalized? What are the influences which prevent professional teachers from seeking the rural schools? It is conceded that the rural teacher who lives up to the opportunities and responsibilities of a leader in the community must have had better preparation and higher professional skill than almost any other teacher in the public school system. What are the forces which hinder the professional advancement of the rural teacher? The first hindrance is the economic status of the rural teacher. Any of you who have been concerned with directing teacher training schools have often been confronted with the question of advising young people who are wavering between the rural and the city teaching field. You must tell them that the same money, time, and effort will prepare them to teach in a city school where the job is easier, the attractions are greater, and the compensation larger. What can you do, honestly? The farmer's son and daughter are confronted with the same question. If it is a temporary job that is desired, the answer may be in favor of the rural school. If the student, however, is looking forward to a profession, he can hardly accept the rural school except as a stepping stone.

The second obstacle to the professional training of rural teachers is the condition of the job. This handicap is so well known that it is not necessary to describe it. The conditions can be improved if there is present the desire on the part of the people of the community and the necessary finances with which to make the improvements. Again the economic situation is the limiting factor.

The third handicap is found in the low standards which the public demands for the teachers in the rural communities. Much has been done to raise the position of rural teachers in the minds of the rural communities, yet, take the country as a whole, it still remains to persuade the rural districts that a professionally trained teacher is necessary and is worthy of her hire.

The fourth obstacle is the never ceasing competition with city schools. The city schools offer manifest advantages in companionship, in social opportunities, in simplified tasks, in salaries. From the standpoint of the profession as a whole, we cannot wish that this competition be stifled. It is the competition between schools and communities that alone saves the public school teaching profession from the monotonous deadening and leveling effect of a socialistic monopoly.

The fifth factor is undoubtedly the indifference of other classes of teachers. The city teachers, the administrators, the institution, the professors in our colleges and universities view the rural school situation and the plight of the rural teacher with only mild sympathy which is almost akin to indifference. My plea today is for an awakened interest in the rural teacher and her professional standing by the profession as a whole. The heart of this rural teacher and rural school problem is economic. It is tied closely with the agricultural situation. At present, agriculture is just emerging from the worst period of deflation and depression that the agricultural industries of the United States have ever known. Agricultural bankruptcies during this period have increased six fold. Millions of people have left the farms for the cities each year. Mortgages on farms in a few years increased 132 percent. National taxes have been reduced since the war but the smallest part of this reduction has been in the farmers' taxes. In 1922 United States taxes dropped \$1,302,000,000, but the farmers' taxes in that same year were reduced but \$31,000,000.

According to the best students of the agricultural situation, the reason for this is found in deflation and in the fact that the farmer is selling his produce at a smaller advance above prewar prices than he is required to pay for the things he has to buy. In 1922 the farmer received for his produce 22 percent above prewar prices and at the same time was paying 72 percent above prewar prices for the things he consumed. Closely connected with the rural school situation is the fact that in many of the states 30 percent to 40 percent of the farmers' taxes go to schools and the largest item in the school budgets is the teacher's wage. The future of the rural teacher cannot be improved faster than the economic condition of the agricultural community is improved. If the teachers of the United States are interested in advancing the vocation to the ranks of a profession, we must be interested not only in the welfare of the rural teacher but in the welfare of the agriculturist who sustains the rural teacher.

The professional welfare of the rural teacher demands that there be a change of emphasis; that the teaching profession, the great National Educa-

tion Association, the state organizations, the universities and colleges, the normal schools shall unite in calling the attention of the American people to the vital influence of the economic foundation of our rural schools. What effect has the low professional standard of rural teachers upon our whole profession? We long for the day when the American public shall recognize the profession of teaching as a job worthwhile; as one that requires special skill and ability. We desire the day when the public will be as careful in consigning to our care the minds and souls of their boys and girls as they are today in consigning to the medical profession their children's physical bodies. The open door at the base of this vocation is letting in through the rural schools thousands of amateurs each year who are a menace to the whole profession. The professional welfare of the rural teacher should be a vital concern to the whole profession not only from altruistic reasons but in order to safeguard the rights and privileges of all others in the profession.

The remedies are to be found in the active cooperation of all educational and public spirited agencies. Part of the task belongs to the state departments that license the teachers; that educates the public; that administer to the rural schools. Part of the burden must fall upon the agricultural colleges which must labor to improve the economic condition of agriculture. The teachers' organizations, such as this National Education Association, must carry on problems of research, must furnish the facts for the campaigns of education which shall raise the public standards for the rural schools, which shall enlist the active sympathies of urban dwellers, which shall ultimately advance the professional standing of the rural teacher.

In my own state, I drive for miles across the great sagebrush flats; I climb the mountains and I find nestled perhaps beside some mountain stream, surrounded by beautiful spruces and pines, a little log hut and playing around it, I see little boys and girls out in the clearest sunshine God ever made, dabbling in the brook, fishing, picking flowers, looking up at the snowclad mountains behind them and I think what a glorious setting for childhood; what wonderful environment, reared with the blessing of fresh air, sunshine, health, happiness, beauty—out in God's great out-of-doors.

Their fathers and mothers come from the East; their fathers and mothers are conversant with cities and libraries and schools, but these little lads and lassies—who shall lead them? Who shall open their eyes to these vistas? Who shall open the doors that they can enter upon the realms of music, philosophy, literature, and history and become partakers of the world's great store of knowledge, intelligence, and beauty?

There is one person to whom we should look and that is the school teacher. Therefore, you and I, by our very altruism, by our loyalty and allegiance to the profession of education, without which we have no business to be in the profession, ought to be interested in an altruistic way in the welfare of these rural teachers.

THE STATE'S FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY TO ITS RURAL SCHOOLS

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Certainly the one-room rural school, which is even yet the sole medium through which more than fifty percent of the potential citizenry of the state receives its training, is of sufficient importance to consume the entire time allotted to this paper. If methods of administration could be changed arbitrarily and the county unit system universally adopted or, even consolidation in smaller units, effected to include all of these schools, the problem could be solved with comparative ease, but they persist despite nearly a quarter of a century of effort to eliminate them.

The inherent conservatism of the rural citizen, which makes him averse to change and very suspicious of any movement which seems to rob the community of control of this institutions, coupled with the natural barriers which are found in so many of the sections of the country and the poor roads, will continue to make these schools one of the major educational problems of the states of the union, and as such they must be recognized.

One looks in vain through the various studies of school finance for any existing system which wholly equalizes either the educational opportunities for the child or the taxation burden for the local district. One or two significant facts stand out, however, which seem to point the way to better and more hopeful things—namely, that those states which make provision for generous state aid more nearly reach the goal of equalization. In Delaware a generous and definite state budget is provided, based on what seems to be intelligent study of the state's educational needs. The size of the state seems to the writer not to be a significant factor. Adequate and thoroughly coordinated educational machinery for education in both state and county would make it just as easy to administer such a plan in a large state as in a smaller one. It seems clear that our goal financially should be adequate state financial support well administered.

The patch-work character of the laws governing school finance in practically all of the states reveals a total lack of fundamental principles as a basis for such legislation or even the hint of a constructive policy of any kind. We are discouraged to find the ghost of the census enumeration basis for apportionment—a method whose "complete abandonment" was advocated by high authority still haunting the school laws of thirty of the states in one form or another, and so thoroughly alive in at least ten of them, after nearly a quarter of a century of agitation for its abandonment—that "ghostly" qualities cannot be well attributed to it.

A review of school legislation in any individual state of the union for the past twenty-five years reveals a patch-work process that is wonderful to behold. In no instance do we find a piece of such legislation which seems to have been thought through to its ultimate completion in function-

ing. We wish that we might feel that this patch-work policy with respect to school finance legislation were on the wane, but a review of proposed educational legislation for financial betterment in 37 of the 43 states of the union, whose legislatures met in biennial session the past winter, reveals the same patch-work characteristics except in two, where it was proposed to tap "new sources" for school revenue. There were practically as many plans proposed as there were states involved. There can be no question but that it is this make-shift policy with respect to school finance that is responsible for existing financial inequalities in the rural schools and not the inability of the respective states to bear the financial burden. While the ability varies greatly if we accept wealth as a measure of economic ability, and the sacrifices for education must of necessity be greater in the poorer states of the union, careful studies reveal the fact that there are none so poor that they cannot take care of their schools much better than they are now doing. The evidence is rather that none of them are exerting their fullest capacity in this endeavor. Dr. Seligman, in discussing state taxation in his "Essays in Taxation," says: "It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that public resources are in themselves inadequate. The fault does not lie with the social income. National prosperity is great and growing, and the increase of wealth and social income is proceeding unchecked. Were our state and local resources marshaled and organized for fiscal purposes, as is done by the national government, the embarrassment would soon vanish. We all know that in normal times there has never been the slightest difficulty in securing a revenue for national purposes, which should be, not only abundant, but on the whole satisfactory to the community. We know equally well, however, that what has been so successfully done by the national government is very imperfectly accomplished by our state and local governments. The wealth is there, but the method of tapping the resources has become unsatisfactory, lopsided, and unequal."

To the initiated several obstacles stand in the way of the application of the remedy proposed by Dr. Seligman, sound though it be. Prominent among these are (1) opposition of the selfish interests, representing a large part of the wealth of the state, (2) the machinations of the self-seeking politician, (3) the almost inherent indifference of the public to matters of state, (4) and finally, the most serious of all obstacles, when it comes to attempting betterment of educational conditions, is the indifference of the members of the educational profession to the educational welfare of the state as a whole.

We find individual members interested in those things which pertain to their specific fields, but in few, if any, instances do we find members of the craft who have caught the vision of the oneness of the educational system with respect to objective, relationships, and interdependence. To this we must attribute our failures and not to the activities of selfish interests, designing politicians or the failure of an indifferent public to meet

its obligations. Until we develop this conception of our work and realize that the security and prosperity of one field is absolutely dependent upon the other we can hope for but little at the hands of legislators or laymen and our efforts will continue to be futile. I covet for the profession an *esprit de corps* akin to that which is found in the medical fraternity; that fine ethical appreciation and understanding of the purposes and objectives of the great work which the profession represents, which prompts specialist and general practitioner alike to fly to the defense and support of the work and the profession and its standards wherever and whenever they may be attacked, and to present a solid front against foes from without or disreputable member within the ranks. It is undoubtedly this professional unity and understanding which has enabled this profession to overcome the selfish interests which have opposed its efforts for general social welfare, while with the same weapon it has put to flight the wily politician and made an indifferent public its ally. In short, my plea this afternoon is for the development of an educational statesmanship with a vision of its great task an understanding of the purposes, objectives, and principles governing the task, and a willingness to stand or fall by them. Securing this all other things will be added unto us.

CAPITALIZING TEACHING POWER THROUGH SUPERVISION

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The problems of supervision throughout the country vary in localities because of geographic, social, and educational conditions. To institute a program of supervision it is most important, first, that a state agree upon large objectives of supervision; second, that it establish an organization to attain these objectives; and third, that it articulates all the phases of the organization that will conserve and release the teachers' instructional abilities.

In the growth of supervision the large objectives have carried with them the idea of teacher growth and assistance to the teachers without a clear analysis as to the phases of growth or specific activities in which supervision can assist the teacher.

With the increased research to determine specific teaching tasks (job analysis) it is becoming more possible to set up specific objectives or elements of teacher growth and teaching aid. The organizations at present which claim our attention because of their organized work based on an analysis of the job have been determined largely by the foresight of forward looking administrators on the one hand and the amount of money available on the other. Some of the leading states who have done this are Maryland, North Carolina, California, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Connecticut.

The operation of the present organizations emphasize assistance to

teachers in the form of materials such as bulletins on the teaching of special subjects, suggestions for celebrating special days, setting up goals of achievement in various activities, etc. Teacher rating is another definite objective of present organizations. The modified program will not discontinue this emphasis in teacher growth but will also emphasize the need of capitalizing each individual teacher's possibilities for a distinct contribution at her particular task.

The greatest asset which the supervisor has in taking charge of a group of teachers whose happiness and growth she desires lies in the potential qualities for unusual growth which each individual teacher may possess. Into the entire group each year is inducted a group of new inexperienced teachers who have just chosen their profession and although they come with meager knowledge of the real job of teaching they do bring that which prompted them to choose the profession, plus some training, their youth, hope, and naturally a desire to do a commendable piece of work. Up until this point they have more or less been the center of effort in the elementary school, high school, and largely in the normal school although an attempt is made in the latter instance to direct the student's attention to needs and interests of children. Under the program of education now in existence, we have developed great zeal because of our philosophy of education and psychology in guarding the child so as to conserve all his possibilities for growth and release any creative ability he may have. The young teacher is made suddenly only a means to an end. Will not the supervisor who sees the potential qualities for growth in her teachers and who opens up every avenue for each teacher's individual growth eventually do most for children?

Too few supervisors in both our counties and cities are equipped to do the type of work which will release the creative possibilities of teachers in the manner that will urge them to carry on a program of education for children. To capitalize teaching power it is necessary for the supervisor in addition to having a thorough knowledge of the teaching of children and organization of the school, to have also a knowledge of how to do diagnostic constructive work with teachers. The cry for better prepared teachers is constantly going over the country; let us add to this another cry for better prepared supervisors. What qualifications can states set up so teachers may be protected from a superficial type of supervision which wastes effort through carrying out imposed tasks? The supervisor who considers the school a place of selfrealization for both the children and the teacher must have, in addition to an excellent preparation for instructing children, also a philosophy of life and education that will function in her experience of human relations so the teacher with her potential qualities for growth may find opportunity for individual development. We have insisted the supervisor know psychology of learning and childhood. Let her knowledge of psychology be one that operates constructively in her relations with adults. Courses in supervision in colleges should prepare supervisors to meet the needs of youth in the teaching profession. Con-

structive supervision work done with the incoming teacher makes it possible gradually to discontinue the work as the teacher finds herself and develops through her own initiative.

How are the normal schools in the country educating teachers to meet a dynamic type of supervision? At present in too many situations a wide gap still exists between the normal school and the actual teaching situation. If normal school instructors would, each year, actually spend some time visiting the students who have just gone out it might help them to really understand and see the problem before them. How much of the theory advocated and taught actually functions in the teacher's relations with children? Until normal schools can actually put the philosophy and psychology they hope to see function in their product into practice the teachers will not be ready for constructive supervision.

The same is true of the supervisors. How many supervisors both county and city really have a comprehensive understanding of what is done in normal schools to educate the students they are going to work with? Possibly the best instruction of children anywhere in our country, with the exception of a few experimental schools or outstanding public schools, is done in the laboratory field of the normal school. Would it not pay the supervisor to spend some time each year in the training institution from which she expects to draw her teachers? Supervision which capitalizes teaching power should continue and enlarge upon what was begun in the normal school.

After all the problem that finally confronts the supervisor is that of the actual job. Under the present system in most states the number of teachers to the supervisor makes the office type of supervision in which the supervisor meets the needs of teachers through sending out materials with an occasional visit for inspection and rating the most effective. Such supervision will never, however, release actual teaching power to any great extent. To do this frequent personal contacts are necessary in order that teachers and supervisor may know each other; in order that supervisors may collect the necessary data to analyze each school situation. Such supervision will necessitate the reduction in the number of teachers per supervisor and also a reduction in the territory the supervisor may cover. In the classroom the supervisor should be a welcome guest naturally inducted into the group of teacher and pupil.

Office supervision tends to standardize rather than vary and individualize children's growth. What we need is variation with sufficient standardization of requirements and office help to assist the group that will never do great constructive work. The supervisor who finds the particular teacher's individual interest, then give her all possible office help in phases of work that will release her to carry on her own professional line of endeavor will develop teachers.

Promotion and the desire for it in teachers is natural and must be recognized by supervisors. Can supervisors see in teachers opportunities for growth outside of the prescribed line, or must it necessarily be from classroom work to supervisor, to county superintendent, or to viceprincipal, etc.?

It is in connection with teachers' and children's special abilities that the special supervisors can and should function. Specialists should be within call at all times. The general supervisors who are prepared to diagnose teaching situations and promote and find special interests can constantly direct teachers to specialists and through them the individual teacher can secure the particular help she may need. Few states have found it possible as yet to develop their program of special supervision in counties.

Rural education and city education are not so different. Each and both center around the education of children. Each and both demand a highly skilled and efficient person to assist them in living more effectively and happily, but above all children in the country and the cities need teachers who themselves are doing a creative thing in their work with children. To so supervise that this may be the outcome requires of the supervisor a task most human, most diagnostic, and far-reaching. Such a supervisor must have time and ability to do more than rate and hand out material. Her creative work lies within her teachers and she will gradually release them to continue their own search for growth.

The young people who are entering the profession today have come up through our public schools since the war. They have been reared in an environment very complex and possibly over-stimulating, but they for actual protection have learned to choose what is necessary to them. They are awake to new values and are selecting well. We have taught them in the past ten years to experiment, to carry out individual interests, to assert themselves, and so their very education demands a new and varied type of supervision. The youth movement in middle Europe is one of the most significant trends of the ages. Although not organized in like manner here, youth is making itself felt distinctly. They will not fail to put over their program of education and we can not fail them. Imposed standards will not be accepted. We need their point of view as they need ours and only together can we really achieve in the field of education.

The objectives in supervision based on social, geographic, and educational conditions must be set up by each state so it may take the next best step. An organization constituted that their objectives may be obtained is of equal importance; but in the final articulation of all phases in the field of supervision for the education of children, the individual teacher becomes the dynamic force of greatest power and it is her effort, her energy, her health, her interest, and her happiness which must be capitalized in an effective program of education.

TRAINING COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS FOR BETTER WORK IN INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

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The need for training county superintendents for better work in instructional supervision is readily recognized by anyone at all acquainted with the personnel of these offices. Quite generally these officials are elected as members of a political party and are required to have only those qualifications common to all public officers. All too often they seem to owe their positions not to qualifications suited to the supervision of teaching, but to such human appeal conditions as old age, poverty, the support of a family, or that intangible thing called personality.

Occasionally some ambitious, well-trained young people enter the field only to be forced out later by low salaries. Always there are a few mature, efficient workers with the true missionary spirit who (to paraphrase Will Rogers) think that the home children should be educated even if they are not Chinese. Perhaps the greater number have been successful rural or grade teachers and have very little more training than the teachers whom they supervise.

The difficulties of the state supervisor of rural schools are well matched by those of the county superintendent. She also faces a multitude of administrative, executive, and supervisory duties conditioned by a large territory, insufficient office help, and poorly trained teachers.

Because of these many handicaps the problem of rural school supervision becomes one of training people in service under rather trying and uncertain conditions. Nevertheless, nothing is gained by an "It can't be done" attitude. Some workable methods have been found. Montana uses in the main four types of work. These are visits with the county superintendent to rural schools, an annual county superintendents' training course, teachers' group meetings, and aid in special projects. These are named in the order in which a new county superintendent usually experiences them.

Within two weeks after the county superintendents take office the state rural school supervisor begins a round of visits to all of the new ones in her territory. One of the things that she always tries to do is to visit a rural school with the new official. During this visit the state supervisor temporarily assumes the duties of the county superintendent and tries to give helpful suggestions to the rural teacher. After the visit the total situation is carefully analyzed to the degree that seems profitable. This general procedure is followed in all later school visits.

Shortly after the new county superintendents have been visited, a convention of all the county superintendents of the state is held. This short course lasts for about ten days. At this meeting many problems connected with the country schools are freely discussed. Among the topics pertaining to instructional supervision given at the various meetings are found some dealing with questioning, assignments, seat work, program mak-

ing, informal tests, and standard tests. In some cases these subjects are accompanied by demonstrations of actual procedure.

The state department of public instruction has charge of this training convention and plans all of the work. The programs are so arranged that there is a continuity of work from day to day of the course. A few big topics determine the selection of subjectmatter for most of the talks. These are given by members of the state superintendent's staff and by state leaders in school work. Several times the training course has been fortunate enough to have a prominent educator from outside the state present for a part of the work.

The next type of supervision that all county superintendents meet is that of teachers' group meetings. Although these are planned primarily to give direct help to the rural teachers, they give much indirect training to the county superintendents. In this work a series of one-day meetings are held. Each rural teacher attends one. An attempt is made to have enough meetings in each county so that the teachers present at each meeting number not more than twelve or fifteen. This small group gives a fair assurance of free discussion. It is the writer's experience that a much larger group than this will usually keep the more timid teachers from asking questions.

The program is planned in general by the state department. These workers chose some important topic for major emphasis throughout the state during a period of at least two years. Besides the subjects chosen by the state there are others selected by the county superintendent. A sample program will give a good idea of the work for one day.

- 9:30-10 Directions for observation and discussion of demonstration lessons
- 9:40-20 Primary language demonstration lesson
- 10:00-30 Discussion of demonstration lesson
- 10:30-10 Intermission
- 10:40-20 What the county superintendent's office can do for the teacher. (Selected and given by the county superintendent.)
- 11:00-60 The teaching of oral language
- 1:15-25 Demonstration in intermediate or upper grade study lesson
- 1:40-30 Discussion of demonstration lesson
- 2:10-40 Reading as a factor of study
- 2:50-10 Intermission
- 3:00-20 Membership in the Montana Education Association (Selected and given by the county superintendent.)
- 3:20-40 The teacher's use of diagnostic tests (Selected by the county superintendent and given by the state supervisor.)

If the state supervisor can stand the strain, the best results are usually obtained by having her teach the demonstration lessons and lead the discussions. If she does these things, she will work throughout the day except for the two twenty-minute periods taken by the county superintendent.

Both before and after the meetings the state supervisor and the county superintendent talk over the reactions of the children and teachers during the meetings, methods of teaching, and any special questions asked by the

county superintendent. In this way a very full day of training is given and often purposes are crystallized that direct some of the supervision work for months or even years at a time.

A fourth type of training is that of giving aid in special projects. These special projects originate either with the state department or the county superintendent and are of many kinds. Many of the county superintendents are trying to work out plans for obtaining a high type of school work at their county meets. Several are interested in county wide informal tests. Some are training their teachers to keep helpful lesson plans. A few are trying out regrouping the children in a country school on the basis of the results of standard tests. At least one has for two years been doing some special supervision work with groups of teachers. In time she hopes to have some teachers so well trained that they may become the leaders of other groups.

In all of these projects the state department stands ready to help to the extent of its available time and ability. In the beginning this assistance usually consists of rather detailed suggestions. Later it takes the form of answering questions and calling attention to helps that are newly available.

These four means visiting rural schools with county superintendents, giving annual training courses for them, holding teachers' group meetings, and giving aid in special projects are the main ones used in Montana for training county superintendents in instructional supervision.

But perhaps the most important question is not, "What is done"; but is, "What do the county superintendents really get from it all?" This they can answer for themselves. To obtain these answers a questionnaire was sent to each county superintendent with the request that she list under each of these activities the big values that she had received. The answers received were stated in both general and specific terms. In order to save space these statements have been reduced to a generalized summary.

From the visits to rural schools made with the state supervisor the county superintendents gained the following:

1. Confidence, given them by the knowledge of what to look for in a rural school
2. Some ability to see the most in the least time
3. A better idea of how to check programs, especially of how to distribute the teacher's time among the grades
4. A better idea of how to judge a recitation
5. A procedure for criticizing constructively
6. A desire to help the teacher rather than to find fault
7. A realization that only a few points should be emphasized at a time.
8. A method of improving instruction by demonstration teaching
9. A clearer understanding of things learned in methods courses, of how to put theories into practice.

As a whole the county superintendents expressed the opinion that they had gained the most from the county superintendents' training course. From it they received the following:

1. An aroused professional attitude
2. Renewed interest and enthusiasm

3. An inspiration to do one's best
4. Stimulation from contact with others in the same work
5. A beginning realization of the value of growth
6. A knowledge that most of a county superintendent's problems are common to all counties
7. A better understanding of the work in the state department and a knowledge that its members are eager to help the county superintendents
8. Greater freedom in asking the state department for help
9. Selfconfidence, because of gaining a general idea of supervision
10. Definite help in many specific problems
11. Supervisory material so organized that it could be passed on to others
12. Better plans for teachers' group meetings
13. A conception of the value of classifying the teachers of a county so that the county superintendent may know who needs the most help
14. A plan for working out experimental projects first with experienced teachers, and a plan for later making supervisory assistants of the most capable
15. A knowledge of how to help young teachers get a start
16. A list of the best of the new professional books for teachers
17. A program for the use of standard tests
18. Information on giving informal objective tests
19. Instruction in applying general principles to classroom procedure.

From the teachers' group meetings the county superintendents obtained the following:

1. Facts concerning important changes in methods
2. Greater ease in starting work when it was introduced by the state supervisor
3. A bringing before the teachers of facts that the county superintendent wishes to emphasize
4. Ways of meeting and working with teachers
5. The knowledge that supervision is now less formal but more vital than formerly
6. The psychology of building upon the knowledge and skills that children have
7. Means of encouraging professional reading among teachers
8. Ways of illustrating certain principles of teaching by means of demonstration lessons
9. Methods of obtaining responses from primary children
10. Better idea of what primary children should do in oral language
11. Methods of drawing each child into the recitation and keeping him interested yet using only the best suggestions given by the pupils
12. Besides these listed a long count of rather detailed ideas for teaching the school subjects.

Since the special projects differed in the various counties the learnings were different. Only a few county superintendents gave statements broad enough to apply to many projects. Some of the typical statements were:

1. Not to hesitate to ask teachers to do the thing that will help
2. How to carry out a testing program, beginning with getting the teacher and the public interested and going on through the various steps to the remedial work and final testing
3. What to put into tests for scholastic meets
4. How to select the most helpful seat work
5. How to have purposeful drills.

These gains and no doubt many more have been made possible by the four types of training named at the beginning of this paper. Montana believes that through them the quality of instructional supervision by the county superintendents has been very noticeably improved. Nevertheless greater improvement is desirable and possible.

Because of the large territory covered by each supervisor in Montana, progress in training for supervision must come largely through a shifting of emphasis in the types of training now in use and the discovery of adoption of better or supplementary types. Perhaps the first effort should be made toward enlarging the field of aid for special projects. After this has been done, it would seem possible to have those county superintendents who are interested in the same projects form a group for mutual help. No doubt some who have had successful experience in certain projects would help a new group make plans. In order to assist in these activities the state department could act as a clearinghouse for new ideas or for new work in old ideas.

After progress has been made along these lines for which some foundation has already been laid, it would seem advisable to consider thoroughly whether Pittman's plan of zone supervision has any desirable elements for state supervision. This plan is fully explained in Pittman's book entitled *The Value of School Supervision Demonstrated with the Zone Plan in Rural Schools*.

THE FARMERS' SCHOOL AND COOPERATION

THOMAS H. GENTLE, DIRECTOR OF TRAINING SCHOOLS, MONMOUTH, ORE.

Twenty-five years ago, most of the American farmers who are now forty years of age were leaving the upper grades of the rural school. To what kind of influences had they been subjected? What was the dominating idea which was kept prominent in their minds in these schools? A bit of history will answer both questions.

At that time there were probably 150,000 one-and-two-room country schools. These were presided over by about 250,000 teachers, one-half of which had no professional training whatever. Two hundred thousand of them had not even completed high school. Sixty-six and two-thirds per cent of them did not remain longer than one year in the same school. Only a negligible number of them believed themselves to be earning more than they were paid. Those who did believe it had left and gone to the city schools. Many of them were not country bred and intended to return to the city as soon as they had secured teaching experience. Practically none of this vast army of instructors had formulated any well-thought-out view of life—they possessed no educational vision which might have enabled them to forecast the future for which they were to prepare their pupils. They did not conceive the school as functional or dynamic. On the contrary, they believed it to be a static institution. Their conduct of the school was individualistic. It was not social. The socialistic was taboo. They

conducted no socialized recitations, but quite on the contrary forbade their charges to work together. Only upon rare occasions did the school organize its resources to accomplish a desired objective. Did two or more pupils pool their interests in a lesson and attempt to study their problem together, if the lesson provided any, then promptly the teacher separated them and ordered that each work alone. Even on the playground the individualistic point of view was maintained with more or less rigor. Many of the games most played by the country children were designed to exploit the individual rather than the class or the group. When these rural teachers gave advice to their pupils it was to the end that each should study hard that he might prepare himself to do something better than live in the country.

It was not, however, wholly in and about the school that this outstanding individualistic atmosphere prevailed when our present-day farmer went to the little red school. The standard of achievement in the community where he lived was highly individualistic as an end in itself. The man in the neighborhood who could mow the most grass in a day, bind the grain station quickest, chop the most wood in a given time, plow the most corn in a day was the most admired and the most worthwhile. When farm machinery, however, came into more common use the above kind of hero lost his prestige. Then a new one sprang up. It was the individual—mark you, always the individual—who could drive the best deal in a trade. It was the man who could market his livestock or his grain to the best advantage. In fact it was the man who, although he might use rather tricky methods to accomplish his purpose, always came out best in a trade of any kind.

The boy in the average home of the time was urged by his parents to emulate these standards of achievement. No one pointed out the greater necessity of learning to work in close and sympathetic conjunction with others. The slogan was individual competition—not group cooperation.

I have now brought to your minds the social environment of the youth of the farmer alluded to in the beginning. I realize that I have done so too briefly and too dogmatically. To the oldest of us, however, much of what has been said is but the account of what we have lived.

In these times much is being said in the press, on the platform, and in the country town forum—the grocery store—about the unfortunate condition which has developed in American agriculture. It is undoubtedly true that many factors have conspired to bring about the present status. Some causes have worked in greater degree than others. I do not know that I can point out all of these. I will risk a trial. Although a farmer myself for the past twenty-five years, I do not hesitate to place the principal blame for the agricultural situation on the farmers themselves! Few will admit the charge. But I insist that I am right and further, if any extensive recovery to agriculture occur, it will have to come from the farmers themselves!

What is it, then, about the farmer which works such havoc to his vocation? It is this: He has not adjusted himself to the new social conditions of the day. This lack of adjustment is especially great where cooperative conduct of agricultural affairs is called for. He fails herein because of the lack of early training. Of this fact there is abundant proof in the history of every attempt at cooperative action in rural affairs.

President Roosevelt's country life commission of 1909 gave as its first great requisite to the improvement of farm conditions, the ability of farmers to pool their interests in order to hold their own with the organized business life about them. The attention which this commission succeeded in arousing in the problem of cooperation has brought about great changes in the past fifteen years. This progress will be much accelerated as the older farmers retire from active direction of affairs. They cannot learn group conduct. They are still and always will be more or less suspicious of their neighbors. The hope lies in the youth of the country community.

It may be urged that there are scores of successful rural cooperative enterprises today. Let this be granted. I have made a brief study of the members of some of these. The Tillamook Cheese Producers Association of Oregon is and has been highly successful for many years, but its members are very largely Swiss. Nothing more need be said. The Hood River Apple Growers Association is known the country over for its highly organized cooperative system. But the members here are for the most part of urban training. They have retired to the life of the orchardist. They are not typical country people at all. The case is similar with the great poultry and fruit cooperative organizations of California. Their membership is not indigenous to the soil. It is for the most part urban in training and life view.

What must be done with the farmers' school to render it functional in this important matter of teaching cooperation as well as other essential qualities?

1. Get rid of the one-teacher school as fast as possible through consolidation.
2. Locate the new school in a rural environment.
3. Give the school adequate financial and moral support.
4. Select teachers of country breeding who are specifically trained for their work.
5. Establish a reasonable tenure of position for the rural teacher, a graduated salary, and a pleasant lodging apartment.
6. Provide a course of study which will function in rural life.
7. Give as good supervision and administration to the rural school as to the best urban school.

These seven suggestions seem to me to be fundamental. There are yet others. Singularly the greatest objection to them will come from those whom they are intended to benefit. Improvement will come, however, as the young farmer with his modern view of life gets control.

*SECRETARY'S MINUTES**Dallas Meeting*

The first session of the general meeting of the Department of Rural Education was held Tuesday afternoon, March 1, in the auditorium of the City Temple. The following program was carried out:

The Rural Secondary School

REORGANIZING THE LOCAL SCHOOL UNIT IN TERMS OF SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC RELATIONSHIPS. C. C. McCracken, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

OUTSTANDING NEEDS AS SHOWN BY A SURVEY OF THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS OF A STATE. G. I. Barnes, Kentucky State Department of Education, Frankfort, Kentucky.

IMPROVEMENT OF HIGH SCHOOL FACILITIES THROUGH COORDINATION. Thomas Smart, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kansas.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL IN RURAL EDUCATION. E. M. Ferriss, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

The papers were of unusual interest on the subjects treated and each was followed by a short discussion and questions from the floor. Mr. Smart's paper was illustrated with slides.

The Department of Rural Education met again Wednesday afternoon at 2 P. M. in the auditorium of the City Temple. An audience of between two and three hundred was present. The program follows:

The Supervisions of Instruction in Rural Schools

CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION. Ellsworth Collings, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

A STUDY OF THE VALUE OF SUPERVISION. Maycie Southall, State Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina.

SOME SUGGESTIVE PRACTICES IN SUPERVISION:

FOLLOW-UP WORK THROUGH THE USE OF A SUPERVISORY BULLETIN. C. J. Anderson, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

ZONE SUPERVISION. Fred C. Fischer, Wayne County, Michigan.

FIRST AID TO THE YOUNG, INEXPERIENCED TEACHER. Lena Latkin, Little Rock, Arkansas.

MAKING TEACHERS' MEETINGS EFFECTIVE. Edgar Ellen Wilson, Henrietta, Texas.

AN EVALUATION OF THESE PRACTICES IN THE LIGHT OF PRESENT-DAY CONCEPTIONS OF SUPERVISION. Charles A. McMurry, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

Dr. Collings, who had been unexpectedly called home, was unable to appear. His paper was read by A. M. Ruggles, of the University of Oklahoma. It was followed by questions and discussions from the floor.

Maycie Southall, of the state department of education of North Carolina, followed with an illustrated paper on the value of supervision in consolidated schools in North Carolina. This paper also elicited considerable discussion and many questions.

Owing to the recent illness of C. J. Anderson, his paper was presented by President Butterworth. F. A. Ford, of Louisiana, substituted for Miss Latkin, who was unable to be present. The remainder of the program was given as printed.

Dr. McMurry, in evaluating the practices in supervision as presented, called upon several members of the department from the floor. Dr. McMurry said that a good supervisor must be a good demonstrator, must know how to prepare and conduct good teachers' meetings, must maintain happy relations with the teachers, must have reinforcing materials and provide enriched outlines.

Mr. Foote spoke of the value of lesson plans in supervision.

Mr. Frost said that the next step in supervision would be finding a means of evaluating the instruments of supervision.

A business meeting was held immediately following the program. Mr. Foote, chairman of the Committee on Resolutions, presented the report of that committee. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the section concerning consolidation be eliminated. With this exception the report was accepted.

Several county superintendents asked that a county superintendents' section be provided next year. The matter was referred to the Executive Committee and the incoming president.

Dr. Burnham then gave the report of the Committee on Nominations. The following were elected as officers for the coming year: *President*—N. S. Light, of Connecticut; *Vicepresident*—Miss May Trumper, of Montana; *Executive Committee*—Fred C. Fischer, of Wayne County, Mich.; Dr. Fannie W. Dunn, Teachers College, New York City; A. F. Harman, Montgomery, Ala.; Agnes Samuelson, State Superintendent, Des Moines, Iowa; J. C. Muerman, Southeastern State Teachers College, Durant, Okla.

A. F. Harman, Chairman of the Committee on Changes in the Constitution, presented the report of his committee. The principal changes suggested were: reducing the Executive Committee from fifteen to five members, giving it power to formulate plans and policies of the Department; providing two classes of members, active at two dollars, sustaining at five. After explanation and discussion the changes were adopted as reported by the committee.

Adjourned.

Seattle Meeting

The Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association met Tuesday, July 5, at 2 P. M., at the First Methodist Church in Seattle, May Trumper, vicepresident, presiding.

Mrs. Blanche A. Nagle, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction for Washington, gave the first address. She began her talk by saying that teachers must be torchbearers, and gave this quotation: "I am Education that enlightens the world and gives weight to hand and brain. I banish ignorance, discourage vice, disarm anarchy. Thus, I have become Freedom's stronghold, the hope of youth, the joy of age. The school is my workshop in which I stir ambitions, stimulate ideals, and forge the keys that open the door to opportunity. I am the source of inspiration, the aid of inspiration. I am irresistible power." This showed the torch which teachers might bear aloft.

Dr. A. G. Crane, president of the University of Wyoming, gave the next address, his subject being "The Professional Welfare of the Rural Teacher." He said that he wished especially to make a plea for a change of emphasis. He agreed that Mrs. Nagle knew the problems, but he wished to ask the question, "have we a profession of teaching?" He felt that we have not yet a profession that will rank with the old established professions. Dr. Bagley, of New York, was quoted as saying that the average teacher of that state was a young woman of 23 or 24 who has lived on the farm, began teaching at 19 with little real training. It was noted that in New York only about 8 or 9 percent are members of the New York Education Association.

M. O. Poulson, the county superintendent of schools at Beaver, Utah, was scheduled to speak on "What the County Unit Plan of Administration can accom-

plish for Rural Education." As he was not present the next address was given by Bernice McCoy, Assistant Professor of Education of the University of Idaho. Her topic was "The State's Financial Responsibility to Its Rural Schools." She said she wished to present a résumé of what had been done, rather than to try to give new ideas of what might be done. She stated that the inherent conservatism of the rural citizen, coupled with the barriers naturally there, such as the poor roads, made the rural situation a great problem.

This closed the formal program of the afternoon, and the chairman declared the meeting open for discussions. She mentioned that many were not interested in administrative problems, but that the teachers must be, to solve these problems. Since Mr. Poulson was not present to discuss the county unit plan, Miss Trumper suggested that it would be of value to hear from any who were familiar with this type of administration.

Mr. Pope, county superintendent of schools at Santa Barbara, California, said that he did not feel that the low salary of the teacher was due to the condition of the farmer. To prove his point he told of surveys which had been made which showed that the rural school was richer than the city one. He asserted that the rural school was rich in proportion of children to assessed valuation, and that the reason we do not have higher salaries is that the people are not educated up to paying. He mentioned that in California the minimum salary is \$1450. It was stated that if there is an economic problem for the farmer it might be solved if all would stand together for collective marketing, and that all should stand together for better salaries. A gentleman from Arkansas said that these conditions were not true for Arkansas, that there the urban schools had five times as much behind them as the rural schools. He felt if the taxes were more equitably divided between the city and rural schools it would do away with the idea that it was a promotion to go to the city schools. Mr. Martin, of Alameda County, California, also took issue with the speaker from Santa Barbara. He said those conditions were not true in an average county, but only in one of great oil or mineral wealth. He showed that the percapita cost was \$290 in rural schools, as compared with \$75-80 in city schools. A recent piece of legislation in California was very wise, as it compels the state to accept responsibility with the county. He was applauded when he said that we "should collect wealth where it is, and spend it where there are children." Mr. Ditmore, county superintendent at Mankato, Minnesota, next had the floor. He felt that it is not so much an economic condition as that we needed a change of emphasis, and said that the farmers who did not spend money for schools spent it for luxuries. He asserted that a county superintendent with weak rural teachers was weak, and needed to get other teachers; that the farmers would pay for good teachers if they could be convinced of the need. Miss McCoy then said that she was sure the rural school financing was the cancer that was eating at the heart of American life. She also remarked that the rural situation was too often pigeon-holed, while as a matter of fact it was worthy the attention of every teacher, even to the university. Some one from Montana said that in Montana the richest districts were those of the city. Mr. Pope, of Santa Barbara, again took the floor, declaring that if these people who had spoken would divide their assessed valuation by the number of children they would be surprised to find how rich the rural districts were. A county superintendent from Oregon said the only solution was the county unit plan with compulsory division of wealth. Mr. Reynolds, of Texas, next spoke, saying that the problem differed with conditions in different sections. Texas has recently adopted a budget system to help those who help themselves. The state furnishes six months of free schooling, but each district must have a tax of 75 cents on \$100 valuation. Thus, a longer term and better salaries are assured. They encourage consolidation, and also industrial work; to help in the latter each school may have \$300. A gentleman from Iowa pointed out that while assessed valuation might be greater we were forced to consider the income and not the valuation. A teacher from Colorado said that the public were badly educated, that they were

willing that the roads be kept up from state and federal taxes, and that while the tax for the roads might be only 6 mills, while that for schools was 8 to 20 mills, the roads actually got five times as much from independent sources. She also stated that we must arouse the city people as well as the rural on legislation for the rural schools, and that one great trouble is that the rural teachers do not know how to play politics, and should be organized as well, for instance, as the classroom teachers. Mrs. Nagle again made the point that the teacher should carry culture to the rural school and community, taking advantage of help from the federal department of education and state extension departments, that we need to find all sources for inspiration and take it to them. Miss McCoy also pointed out that we lose sight of our main objective if we do not remember that the child is the center. Dr. Crane said that statistics showed that taxes had gone from 10 percent in 1913 to 33 percent in 1921 in Ohio, Indiana, and Wisconsin, and that when a man had to pay out so much of his income he had to be a tightwad. Others spoke to show the low returns which the farmer gets for his work. Mr. Pope maintained that what was needed was more brains to work out the most interesting educational problem of the nation. A superintendent from Canada said that the best way to look forward was to look backward and see what had been accomplished, that when we are working close to the problem we feel discouraged, but when we get away the cloud lifts. A teacher from New Mexico gave his opinion that we were not educated away from the idea of cheap teachers. He went on to tell of the advantages of the county unit plan, as it drew support from all and gave it where needed. The chairman, Miss Trumper, closed the meeting and the discussions for the afternoon by saying that she was sure we all felt hopeful, in spite of all, that the problem would be solved. She said that she did, or she wouldn't stay in the work, but that we need leaders.

The Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association met Wednesday, July 6, at 2 P. M., at the First Methodist Church in Seattle. Miss May Trumper, vicepresident, presided.

A motion was made, seconded and carried that the department convey to Mrs. Macey Campbell our deep appreciation of Mr. Campbell and his wonderful work for rural schools, and that we also extend to Mrs. Campbell our deep sympathy.

It was decided that a copy of the motion should be sent to the Iowa Journal.

Dr. C. C. Swain, president, State Teachers' College, Mayville, N. D., was to have delivered an address on "America's Debt to the Rural Teacher." He was unable to be present and had asked Miss Harper, state superintendent of North Dakota, to give the address. She used his notes. Miss Harper said that not long ago we were all paying tribute to the Unknown Soldier, then she read van Dyke's tribute to the Unknown Teacher. She declared that it was not the thing to learn, but what we yearn for that counts, and then read the poem, "It's the Teacher."

Miss Trumper said that she was sure Dr. Swain would have been pleased with his substitute. She then introduced Miss Halberg, of the Maryland state normal school at Towson, who spoke on "Development of the Teacher Through General and Special Supervision."

Miss Halberg showed how it was possible to capitalize teacher power through supervision, and that though conditions differed in different sections, this program would usually work: Agree on objectives, settle on large objectives, and articulate all organs to bring this about.

Luella M. King, state rural school supervisor of Montana, was next on the program to speak on "Training County Superintendents for Instructional Supervision." As she was unable to be present, Miss Mable Turner, of Billings, Montana, read her address.

Superintendent Thomas H. Gentle was the last speaker on the program. His topic was "The Rural School—A Teacher of Cooperation."

Mr. Gentle said that if he gave his speech as prepared it would seem a review of the others which had been given; this seemed to prove that the same problems

were to be found all-over. He said that the teachers were here, the pupils would be here, but it was the farmer who would get in the road and make difficulties in solving the problems of rural education, which would not be solved until we could train the young farmer, and then wait until the old ones died off or moved to town and spoiled the schools there. He emphasized that the people in the city were better in cooperation than those in the country, that the farmers are too suspicious of each other.

This address closed the formal part of the program, and Miss Trumper announced that the meeting was open for discussions, these having proved such a valuable part of the previous day's meetings.

A teacher from Arkansas said that he felt the papers had been very good, especially where they had shown that the problem was not an economic one, but one that depended on the personality of the teacher. He urged that the teacher be rural-minded, as many had failed because they were not "one of us" in the minds of the country people. A rural teacher from Washington gave the opinion that the reason teachers did not want to go to the rural work was not a financial one, but because the standing of rural teachers was not good, and because of a lack of tenure. Another teacher said, referring to Mr. Gentle's talk, that the young farmers must be educated to these ideas, or it would not better conditions to have the old farmers leave! Mr. Dickey, county superintendent of Alleghany county, Pennsylvania, stated that he felt there was only one solution to the problem, and that was consolidation, that teachers will not go where they must teach 8 or 10 grades when they could teach only 1 or 2 and that teachers will not go where conditions are as they are in rural communities. He also made the statement that rural schools and rural teachers were no better than they were 25 years ago, and was met by a storm of protest from practically all present. A superintendent from Lake county, Illinois, said that he did not feel that consolidation would solve the problem in all cases, that there should still be one-room schools in isolated communities. Miss Swenson, of Washington, brought out the point that very often the lack of standing of a rural teacher is due to the fact that she does not respect herself. Miss Hardy, a rural teacher from Wisconsin, said that she had chosen the rural field not as a stepping stone, but because she liked that work and felt that there lay her greatest opportunities. The fact was stated by someone in the audience that we do not want all the farm children to stay on the farm (someone else had deplored the fact that many were leaving), but that rural teachers should pay more attention to vocational guidance and help the country child to see where he could best fit in. The county superintendent of Delta, Colorado, told of interesting surveys that had been made in her district. Mental tests were given, followed by others at the end of the year; then graphs were made showing advance or the reverse. When these graphs were shown to school boards they always wanted to know "why," if they were not as good as some other, and then were willing to do what was necessary to bring their school up, whether better teachers were needed, or fewer pupils for each teacher. Mr. Morrow, of Bradford county, Pennsylvania, said that he felt there were three sides to the problem: Surveys should be made, then programs based on these surveys made, then the programs followed! Miss Trumper summed up the discussions by saying that we had different viewpoints which had been most helpfully brought out, but that she was sure we had one objective—the good of the boys and girls. She named the following points as having impressed her as worthy of especial attention: the value in maps and charts and pictures showing the real condition in counties, and said that these should be displayed on the walls in county superintendents' offices so that visitors would make comparisons, a per teacher valuation, rather than census, taxes placed on larger divisions, state support so rich districts can help with poor ones, good tenure laws, and better trained teachers. The meeting was then closed.

**The Department of School Health and Physical
Education**

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION was known as the Department of Child Study until July 13, 1911. See *Proceedings*, 1911: 870. The Department of Child Study was created at the Asbury Park meeting, 1894: 40. In July, 1924, the department was merged with the Department of Physical and Health Education under the name of the Department of School Health and Physical Education. See *Proceedings*, 1924: 96.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, James E. Rogers, Director, National Physical Education Service, 315 Fourth Ave., Ashland Building, New York City; *Vicepresident*, Margaret Bell, Director, Department of Physical Education for Women, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Florence D. Alden, Director, Department of Physical Education for Women, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.; *Executive Committee*: Ethel Perrin, American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York City, (Term expires 1928); N. P. Neilson, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Sacramento, Calif., (Term expires 1930); Melville Stewart, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Charleston, W. Va., (Term expires 1931). The Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1893: 615-678	1902:737-759	1909: 745-789	1915:971-995	1921: 517-523
1895: 944-950	1903:817-847	1910: 921-949	1916:681-699	1922:1085-1099
1896: 893-937	1904:803-843	1911: 905-939	1917:521-535	1923: 744-842
1897: 870-916	1905:755-781	1912:1141-1153	1918:339-359	1924: 637-651
1898: 929-959	1906:711-713	1913: 667-695	1919:315-323	1925: 577-598
1899:1064-1097	1907:925-951	1914: 683-721	1920:311-323	1926: 600-624
1901: 758-771	1908:999-1047			

THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY ATHLETICS

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IT is obviously unnecessary to stress the need of any community for recreation or athletics among school people and especially the physical education section of such a gathering. From the smallest or the largest industrial community to the most exclusive and fully equipped estate of the wealthy, there is need in each human life for that which can be gotten through participation in such activities. There is most certainly a real universal need. Interests which bring communities together are of tremendous value to the individual and the nation. There is a real need in most communities for more "getting together" because since the advent of this automotive age in which we live, families and smaller groups have become more selfcentered, capable of entertaining themselves. It is easier to go great distances and plan social and recreational occasions in small groups of ones own choosing. This I believe has created a greater need for again rubbing shoulders with all classes of people, where the young people of rich and poor enter activities as rivals and often as teammates. It is being proven that the most common and appropriate meeting ground for better understanding of casts and classes is on the athletic field, floor, and playground.

Surely the activities which hold within themselves the accomplishment of such an important thing as this for society are meeting a great need and we have but to observe to find such a need all around us. It is easy to assume from superficial observation that most everybody is having sufficient entertainment in these crowded days, but a closer investigation proves that some sections of society are starving for wholesome interests of a recreative nature which will not cost them excessively.

Are public schools responsible for the promotion of community athletics?—This, of course, is a question that could vary with conditions to be found in the various types of communities. If I am not mistaken we are in the majority committed to the idea that the school should try to meet as many of the outstanding needs of a given community as is consistent with their equipment, location, and most of all their personnel. The increased use of school buildings for various groups and interests is an example of the change in viewpoint of the use of and responsibility of the school. However, it seems to me that relationship between the school and community whether in recreation or other channels should be looked upon as an opportunity rather than a responsibility. The whole value of such work can be measured somewhat by noting the tremendous growth and interest in the parent-teachers association organization. Many schools approach the recreation and athletic needs of all their constituents through committees of the parent-teachers association. It thus becomes a simple and enlarged program of new branch of the work of parent-teachers association.

People are experiencing a real bond of fellowship in the parent-teachers associations. Nothing will further this good work more than the promotion of an all around community athletics program with the same community organization backing up the work.

What might we not say of the moulding of public sentiment to support the whole school program by the popularizing use of school gymnasiums for various health building classes for middle aged and community leagues for the younger people. The modern gymnasium with especially first-class basketball facilities is capable of being used every night in the year and is always at a premium. To my mind this is one of the most important services that can be rendered to a community.

It has been my privilege to observe the maximum uses of several large school gymnasiums in this manner. The results have always been satisfactory where the organization has been proper. There is seldom difficulty in getting leagues or special events to accommodate all who wish to participate. It seems people are waiting to be asked to get into these activities. It is also not a hard task to secure the necessary cooperation for the many detail jobs in conducting such programs.

Methods—The most important consideration in the conduct of community athletics is not the branch of activity which is adopted, important as that may be. I feel that the method used in working through the program is of vastly greater importance. Wherever you find competition you deal with the emotional life. The method of procedure which is the fruit of your organization is the element which will make or break the whole plan.

Here is where experience is needed, especially when it comes to conducting live-wire young men's basketball and baseball leagues. Such matters as eligibility, officiating and protests must be covered by rules well chosen. Such regulations for leagues must be iron-clad. They can be secured easily as they are almost as standard as constitutions. A spirit of good sportsmanship within all activities, especially where the officials are working without pay is the element for which to work. Giving responsibility to representatives and committees of various kinds who are responsible for their own people is a splendid way to keep harmony. Democracy will work very well in the conduct of all these activities.

HEALTH—AN OBJECTIVE OF EDUCATION

WALTER H. BROWN, M. D., DIRECTOR, MARION COUNTY CHILD HEALTH DEMONSTRATION, SALEM, ORE.

One of the striking developments of the last decade has been the widespread interest in public health. Since this involves the daily life and habits of the whole community, the schools have come more and more to be considered as the most important agency in influencing the health practices of both the individual and the community. The public seems pleased with what appears to be a new discovery—the importance of health. It has

become a habit to turn to the schools for the promotion of any new project that appears desirable in community life. In this case it is seldom realized that the public schools have been working away for many years in an attempt to influence the health of children. It must be admitted that our methods have proven frequently to be unsound and our aims consequently have not been realized. No one recognizes this better than the educator. For this reason it would appear to be worthwhile for us to examine frankly the ways in which the school has tried to contribute to the health of children in an effort in determining their values. By this process we may be able, as specialized workers, to contribute more effectively toward a complete health program. No attempt will be made to discuss these efforts by various groups to realize health in a school program in the order establishment or relative value.

Let us start with the medical group, for it is in this field that I am most at home and can speak with the greatest frankness. May I begin by saying that I believe that the medical man has made a very valuable contribution to school health. Further, that he has an increasing function in the school. On the other hand, the medical aspects of a school health are only one small part of a whole school program, one of whose outcomes should be health.

But the medical man has made commendable progress since he accidentally got into the classroom in Boston a long time ago. You will remember that he was first called into the school to assist in the emergency of controlling communicable disease. It was a sort of a rescue job or helping to put out a fire that was disturbing the school machinery. This was and is one of his valuable services to school health.

The emergency of epidemic diseases opened another interesting field for the physician in the school. He was accustomed to see the application of the science of medicine to those persons who came to him complaining of illness. In searching for communicable diseases in the schools he realized for the first time that many of these apparently normal children were suffering from physical handicaps which were of vital importance to their health. Out of this realization has grown all of the activities and agitation for the discovery and correction of physical defects, which seem to bulk so large in many of our so-called health programs. It is not my desire to underestimate the importance of these activities nor to advocate any lessening of our efforts to secure the removal of the physical handicaps. I merely wish to make clear the point that the discovery and correction of physical defects is only one small part of any school health program that aims to function in the lives of all of the children. We must focus our attention on health, not on disease and defects.

Fortunately, the medical group interested in school are rapidly realizing the logical outcome of the two previously mentioned activities. They know that it is necessary to provide for the proper protection of the child from communicable diseases and to afford him the opportunity for freedom from correctible physical handicaps, but they also realize that these alone will

not assure him of that measure of vigorous health of which he is capable. This will require the focusing of attention upon health promotion in distinction to disease prevention. This realization has led to the logical conclusion that health can be attained only by an educative process. If the medical man attempts active personal participation in classroom work he steps beyond his own field. Slowly but surely he is beginning to see that in this newer and higher development of school health his larger contribution can come through making available for the teaching groups the treasures of scientific medicine.

Our effort to realize health through medical inspection has made a measurable contribution toward progress, but it has failed to secure a full measure of health for children because it is only one part of the influences which must be brought to bear upon the life of any individual who is to attain such a fundamental condition as health.

We pass next to our efforts to attain health through physical activities or physical education. It would be entirely out of place for me to attempt to trace the evolution of the physical education group in its relationship to the schools. You are more familiar with it than I can hope to be.

It may not be amiss for me to voice my great appreciation of the large and vital contribution which this group has been and is making to the health field. Your group were the pioneers in attempting to influence the health of school children through physical activities. It has been a most interesting experience for me to trace the evolution of your group for my own information. This interest has become more intense and practical as I found how you had gone through an experience quite comparable in many respects to my own group. Of more immediate importance is that your leaders had come to approximately the same point in their thinking that we have, namely, that health was more than mere physical fitness.

It is gratifying to learn how fully the leaders of the physical education group have come to see where their plans have proven inadequate to assure the highest health for all of the children. For we now know from our experience that they must fail because health is not merely a matter of physical activities, however fundamentally they may be conceived. To me the analysis of these facts points inevitably to the same conclusions arrived at by a consideration of the medical activities in the school health program, namely, that health cannot be realized for all of the children without an actual integration of all the activities of the specialized groups within the school, not to mention the real cooperation with the home.

This presentation would not be complete if we did not consider the prolonged and almost universal effort to influence health by means of instruction in physiology and hygiene. It is needless to discuss how ineffective in the lives of children much of this instruction has been. We know that the mere imparting of health knowledge contributes imperfectly to health even though the knowledge is essentially sound. So much of the past instruction was based upon knowledge that could not possibly function in the life of the child that it is small wonder that health instruction, as such, has contributed so little to health. However, the picture in this field is

changing. Just as the medical and physical education groups have gradually broadened their viewpoint and improved their technic, so the classroom teacher has peeped beyond the wall of a hard and fast curriculum into the effects of her teaching in the lives of the children. The result of this excursion beyond the four walls of the classroom has been the discovery of the possible assistance which the specialized groups can render her in attaining the goals toward which she is directing her work.

This completes our brief survey of the evolution of health education in the schools. Each of the specialized groups have contributed toward progress. It would be begging the question if we did not face squarely one of the serious results that has grown out of our method of approach. Too often the specialized groups have attempted to attain their ends independently. The time has come for us to look at this problem squarely and work out an actual correlation of our possible contributions to the attainment of health as a real objective of education.

The first step in this process is a willingness upon the part of each group to see beyond the boundaries of their own speciality. The second step would appear to be a realization that health is an objective and not a subject of instruction. For some strange reason we have acquired the idea that we can instruct or inspect people into health. Unfortunately, all of us have been wrong. By the very nature of what health is, it must be lived to be learned. This means that what should primarily be given to the child is hygienic training and not instruction. The whole discipline of the school should be so ordered as to develop habits of healthful activity. Rote, memorization, and formal practice will not build in these finer character traits which are such an important part of health. We must find a way—all of us together—to interest the child in living these traits zestfully to the end that they will be favorably conditioned toward them. Manifestly such a conception of health as an objective of education takes it entirely out of the classification as a subject of instruction. It will depend largely upon incorporation in the daily life of sound practices relating to nutrition, exercise, cleanliness, fresh air, sunlight, mental poise, and similar fundamentals. The size and complexity of the problem seems overwhelming. Nevertheless, there are an ever-increasing number of school systems where it is in operation. It can be done wherever there is a recognition of true value of health and a willingness to work patiently and open-mindedly. It seems desirable to include one more suggestion. I feel that we should examine and perhaps revise our concept of "health."

In attempting to understand physical and mental life, man has been studied necessarily by the analytic or rather the synthetic method. Anatomy has sought to disclose his various parts and describe the size, form, and relation to one another. Physiology has sought to define the functions of these parts or organs. These methods cannot really discover or reveal to us the meaning of the organism as a whole. For the living human being is more than the mathematical sum of his several parts. But it is unfortunately on this point of view that we have built our concept of health.

All too frequently, even today, health is conceived as a mere negation—an absence of sickness. This has been the natural consequence of our approach to health through the study and treatment of disease. It is gratifying to note that there are definite signs of a newer and better idea of health which is based upon a positive conception.

With the rapid development of interest in health, we are hearing more and more about “normal” people. Many efforts are being made to define this term. They may be illustrated by the one proposed by Seham: “A normal child is one who is free from physical defects and nutritional disorders; possesses stable nerves and good emotional control; equipped with well functioning senses, especially sight and hearing; rebounds with vitality, energy and enthusiasm; and good social adaptability.” This is a useful conception, but a broader and more satisfactory one can be found in *Health and Disease*, by Sir W. Leslie Mackenzie—which may be summed up in a consideration of the objective and subjective signs of health. He defines that person as healthy who exhibits objectively a readiness to act without external stimulus; who has capacity to act for long periods without fatigue; and who has a regularity in the daily physiological cycles of appetite, muscular action, excretion, and sleep. On the subjective side, he has a feeling of satisfaction and ease in activities with a general feeling of well-being; who is free from the sense of effort and environmental oppression; who is not oppressed by work; and who is free from inner uncontrollable moods or tempers. In brief, this person is able to maintain his physiological normals at their highest potency. This also involves on the part of the individual a knowledge about his own organism if he is to have a useful, usable concept of what constitutes health. This concept will only become worth while if the individual is willing to pay the price. And the price of health is for man to be master of both himself and his environment.

· THE ADMINISTRATION OF HEALTH EDUCATION

GEORGE H. BLACK, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL,
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Educational workers are now quite definitely agreed as to the aims of any health education program for public schools and for higher educational institutions. It seems to be conceded also that the term health education does not really define the whole scope of this particular educational unit and doubtless the general aim of what is popularly known as health education must now be interpreted as including the promotion of all agencies for the conservation of human efficiency and human life.

Many factors, coming directly either from industrial life or from ordinary environmental changes surrounding children today, have resulted in our decision to include accident prevention in this division of educational work, and these same factors have indirectly called attention to the necessity for greater emphasis in the field of play and recreational activities, especially for vacation months, and to the desirability of an enlargement

of the playground facilities and free space available for play in order to keep children out of city streets. Suggestion of the importance of this emphasis is found in the following summary based upon a report on deaths and injuries from street accidents to children 6 to 16 in New York City, March 1 to December 31, 1923:

	<i>Killed</i>	<i>Injured</i>
Crossing streets not at crossing.....	184	3,583
Crossing streets at street crossing.....	40	1,274
Playing games in the roadway.....	56	1,865
Running off sidewalk into street.....	31	677
Stealing rides on vehicles.....	19	431
Roller skating, coasting, etc., in roadway.....	11	207
Bicycle riding carelessly.....	10	522
Collisions of vehicles.....	3	622
Jumping on or off cars, etc., in motion.....	1	147
Other causes	19	504
Falling over obstacles or into excavations.....	1	145
Climbing trees, poles, fences, etc.....	66	227
While at play.....	7	155
Other causes	302	10,425
Totals	750	20,784

A glance at this summary shows the need of added emphasis in the field of supervised recreational activities. Health education workers, therefore, must not forget that a death from accident is as final as is a death from disease and probably also a greater tragedy.

There are in particular three main groups of workers most directly charged with the responsibilities connected with health education. These are:

1. The activities and physical development group—including all types of physical education workers, recreational leaders, also kindergarten leaders, playground directors, scout leaders, etc.

2. The scientists, including especially the food and nutrition specialists and the home economists, the biologists, and the psychologists.

3. The diagnosticians and treatment-specialists, which include physicians, biochemists, bacteriologists, nurses and psychiatrists.

Thinking particularly of the administrative problems involved, we note that there are but few social or political units of territory in our country that would not have within their boundaries some or all of the above types of workers. The chief need, therefore, is for leaders and these leaders should be teachers or other educational workers. These leaders must be not only good organizers but interpreters and coordinators. Such leaders should be by training preferably teachers with some insight in educational administration. To be successful coordinators they must be, if not specialists, at least trained workers in some unit of the health education program.

What shall be the method or the approach in such service? It should be not a classroom approach placing our faith wholly in a course of study for children of different grades. Its machinery must, however, include a

well adapted course of study appropriate to elementary, to junior, and to senior high school. The method used here must be analogous to that used by the workers trained for social service, and the teaching where done must have recourse to the "project teaching technic." The fundamentals of the method to be used therefore will be:

1. The general philosophy back of the social service worker.
2. The scientific approach typified by the best procedure today in medical science and practice, namely—scientific diagnosis must always precede prescription—health surveys must precede health projects.
3. The instruction must be undertaken as a project achieving, first, what is essential, and adding to this later what is desirable.

The county superintendent could assume responsibility for all children in districts having no high school organization. Either by planning in advance of appointments for the year or through selection of a known qualified teacher in the group, a leader could easily be designated to act as organizer and coordinator of the three types of workers referred to above. A series of conferences could be arranged for the purpose of clarifying aims, and of formulating the details of an inter-community health education program. This work when undertaken would be continuous from year to year even if the personnel should change from time to time and inevitably would be extended to include parent-education and home-participation with the school's program. Misunderstandings would be supplanted by cooperative efforts and even the children and the homes in remote communities could easily be reached by a permanent and continuing service organization. A similar type of organization could be adapted to smaller towns and cities in any county in this state and the leadership and number of workers available would keep pace with the increasing density of population. The lists of references published in the Report of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education could well be taken as a basis for a good library for these service units organized for the promotion of health education in outlying communities.

There should be some specialist in health education provided as a health consultant either by virtue of appointment or other type of designation by the state whose services would be available to all unit leaders. These designated specialists should be persons trained from the educational viewpoint as well as prepared in a special field.

In short we wish, through this work to become less and less conscious of health and more and more conscious of the joy of efficient living. We do not desire to add to schoolroom tasks—rather we desire to remove interferences which make tasks out of what otherwise should be pleasurable opportunities for self-development, self-expression, and the enrichment of life.

THE RELATION OF HEALTH EDUCATION TO SOCIAL SCIENCE AND ENGLISH

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Realizing that an understanding of the local community health needs and those of the individual child are basic to any type of health curriculum, a group of rural teachers set about to improve, step by step, the health conditions of their various schools and communities. These schools are rural training centers in a consolidated system cooperating with and under the supervision of the Washington state normal school at Bellingham. The teachers also recognized the fact that, if any health program is to function, it must have the hearty support of the school, the home, and the community and that the final test of such a program is the degree of desirable differences in conduct that it effects. To rely upon a mere knowledge of proper health habits is a fallacy. The child must not only know certain facts about health, but know when he needs them and he must be willing to practice them.

It was the plan of these teachers to begin with the habits already formed and to lead the children gradually to see that health is not solely an individual matter but concerns the community also. It is a thing to be done, not just talked about. It involves the social as well as the physical.

The logical approach was by means of the hot lunch as the communities believed in its value. It was more than two years before all accepted the policy of a community fund to be used for all children. Previously each child bought his own lunch and those needing it most were denied its benefits. Here was an opportunity to learn about various food values. The hot lunch had its usual ascribed social values but was unattractive when eaten with dirty hands. Sinks were installed when the need became more apparent. It was then that the most important health habit had its real beginning. Water was heated and placed in each of two small tea kettles. To one was added liquid soap. The children lined up at the sink where first soapy water and then clear water was poured over their hands by certain other children. Soon children felt miserable when, for some reason, their hands could not be washed. Many parents have reported that their children have been more careful about washing before meals at home although in some cases there has been no apparent improvement.

Feeling that at least some of the retardation in the first grade is due to physical handicaps and realizing the value of socializing the rural beginning child, the teachers planned a special day in the spring when all of next year's class could be present to see what school is like and to learn what physical defects could be overcome before they entered school.

Some of the outcomes in the terms of social growth as related to health education and English are:

1. An opportunity to enlarge the children's environment and to know their community better.
2. An opportunity to cooperate in showing hospitality to others.
3. The writing of real invitations and the acceptance of responses.
4. Learning to mail real letters.
5. The feeling of joy that comes from doing something for those less mature and capable.
6. Sharing food, pleasures, and properties with others.
7. Cleaning and making the schoolroom attractive for guests.
8. Reading and dramatizing for a real and appreciative audience.
9. An interest on the part of parents to help with a health program.
10. An opportunity to show the necessity of being physically fit for entering school.
11. An opportunity to stress cleanliness in some individual cases.
12. A friendly attitude toward new children at school.
13. Much discussion of plans and acceptance of only desirable ones.
14. An opportunity to see the need of helping others form desirable health habits as well as to practice them one's self.

We must keep in mind that health education must spread to the community if healthy living is to become a practice of the children in whom we are interested. Since school progress is dependent upon the physical condition of children, they must be guided in forming specific habits, gaining adequate knowledge, and creating desirable attitudes toward healthful living. These may be arrived at through life situations and are not the result of formal teaching in periods set aside for the teaching of health education. If health is an objective, not a school subject, then all subjects of the curriculum, all activities in which children are engaged should make a wholesome contribution toward healthful living.

HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE COLLEGE

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We begin, at Oregon Agricultural College, with physical and medical examination upon entrance. The reason for this procedure needs brief mention—first, the desire to place the student in a type of activity which will be most beneficial to her, second, to detect defects which can be remedied, and third, to aid in the development of the ideal for a yearly examination. This portion of our program is itself defective and we hope that the next few years will see corrections in the form of (1) a more thorough and detailed examination than is now given; (2) a closer checking on the correction of defects; and (3) provision for re-examinations for every one—at least one each year.

The student next encounters the health program in the physical education requirement. Each freshman woman finds that she must take some form of physical activity for four hours each week; and, in her sophomore year the same. Upper class women must have two hours each week. The department offers a varied program of athletics, tumbling, and dancing.

From these the student makes her own selection of activities with the following exceptions:

1. Every student must pass an elementary swimming test by the end of her sophomore year.
2. Each freshman must take two hours a week in a course which we have called "physical education practice."

The work in this course is divided into three sections. In the first, particular attention is paid to posture—the development of a posture ideal, methods of correcting common faults in posture, and a knowledge of exercises which develop a subjective control of the muscles controlling the customary weakness of position. Special emphasis is given to the feet—and to the proper mechanics of walking. The first ten weeks of work might be thought of as a prolonged discussion of the habits of walking, standing, and sitting with opportunity for criticism of each individual. Results are tested in an objective way with the aid of the silhouette photograph and foot prints. Shadow pictures are taken at the beginning and the end of this section of the work. Foot prints are taken also. These prints are dated, cut into standard notebook size and kept with the health index notebook, of which I shall speak later.

In addition to the work on posture and feet, exercises which may be helpful for constipation and dysmenorrhea are learned. These, too, are printed and added to the notebook.

The second and third sections of the freshmen required work are more directly planned to aid in the acquisition of physical skills which are concerned with the control of the body with reference to objects in the environment rather than with subjective control.

Aside from these courses—the swimming and the physical education practice—a student may choose what courses she pleases during her college course.

The student next encounters the health education program in the course in hygiene given during the second term of the freshman year. While this course is in the department of physical education, it is really given by faculty members from several departments. The nutrition staff has given splendid cooperation—with the talks on balanced diets and selection of foods. Tables of approximate energy value of common foods are given the group for the notebooks and every girl keeps a record of the food eaten for one day. Additional lectures are given by bacteriology department, by the psychology staff on mental hygiene, and by the pharmacy staff on the use of home remedies.

One feature of our work with which the physical education staff has been especially satisfied is the provision for individual conference. During the past year each freshman had a ten minute conference with an instructor at least once each term. This has made possible a personal contact with the students which is so often lost in large colleges. We have been so pleased with the results of these conferences that we hope to arrange meet-

ings with every student next year. Our tentative plan is to continue the work with the freshmen as we did during the past year. Each instructor who has a section of students in the course required of all freshmen will meet her students individually once each term. This will give the freshmen opportunity of becoming acquainted with three members of the department during her first year. During the last three years, one conference a year will be arranged and the same instructor will meet the girl each year. This will mean that each student will know that someone is interested in her personal problems—and it will mean that some instructor will be making an effort to know every girl and to aid her in realizing health. These conferences are our effort to apply health principles to the individual case.

Immediately after each conference, the instructor notes on the medical examination record card her comments regarding the girl, what is her estimation of the student, what are her strong and weak points, and what special advice has been given. Through these comments, accessible to the staff only, the health conferences are tied together, and each may be a part of a progressive development. It also means that the medical examination record card is brought from the files once a year and progress noted.

In order that there may be some means of measuring developments and of interesting the student, we have been using a notebook which we have called the "Health and Efficiency Index." In this we keep records which are indications of physical condition. These notebooks are a basis for part of the discussion in each health conference—and by the advice given regarding improvement, it is hoped that each student will realize that she alone is responsible for weaknesses.

The first page of the book is a record of illness up to date. Here is kept not only those periods in which the illness was severe enough to require absence from school but also slight colds and headaches and other indispositions. We hope in each case to develop the tendency to look for the cause of illness.

The second page of the notebook includes a record of weight—taken each month and a record of the condition of the skin—noting clearness and color. The weight is taken by the individual; the skin condition is noted by the instructor and is checked only at the time of conference.

Organic tests make up another page. Here are included a pulse record before and after exercise, and a record of lung expansion and capacity. These will be compared with the records for the group in order to give the girl an opportunity for rating herself in comparison with her classmates.

A posture record appears on the next page. This is analyzed in detail that the student may know where correction is needed and that, on succeeding examinations, an estimation of improvement may be made. A silhouette is made preceding each conference and this, too, is dated and placed in the notebook.

A page for the checking of physical skills follows. With this as a basis,

the instructor attempts to guide the student in the selection of activities which she does not know.

A habit record page comes next. The student is asked to check this one week in each term. It may not be filled accurately, but it serves its purpose in reminding students of the daily habits which are vital from the health standpoint.

In addition to these pages, the health notebooks contain material already mentioned—shadow picture, foot impressions, exercises for control of muscles for posture and foot correction, exercises for dysmenorrhea and constipation, tables of energy value of common foods, and the girl's record for one day in terms of calories.

Additional ideas for promotion of health interest have been suggested—among these are a comparison of the houses in which students live, from the standpoint of freedom from illness and the publication of this list in the school papers. Another suggestion has been that a record of the girls' physical condition for the four years be sent to the college appointment office for use as a reference when the student is seeking a position.

In brief, the health education program consists of a medical examination upon entrance, a four year physical activity requirement, with special emphasis upon subjective motor control, a lecture course in hygiene, the personal supervision of each student by a member of the physical education staff, and the keeping of a health record in the form of the health and efficiency index.

ASSISTING THE TEACHER IN SERVICE TO DO HER PART IN THE SCHOOL HEALTH PROGRAM

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The classroom teacher holds a strategic position in the modern school health program. She is in a position to inspire her pupils with an appreciation of what health means, to guide them in securing needed information, and to influence them in applying these principles in their own lives.

In this democracy we have accepted as our ideal for every child the highest development of his personality—physical, mental, moral, social, and spiritual. In reaching our goal we are placing a great responsibility upon the teacher in service. As she helps build the lives of her pupils she needs the sympathetic cooperation of parents and has a right to expect skilful guidance by educational and health officials, the privilege of modern equipment, as well as the provision of healthful environment for herself and pupils.

That the sympathetic cooperation of parents is important goes without saying, and it is most encouraging to see how much greater understanding exists between the parents and teachers today than ever before.

In our more advanced communities parents are definitely assuming the responsibility for having their children given thorough medical examina-

tions and for having all defects corrected when possible. In one school where this is being done the parents and teachers are meeting together to discuss such further steps for the development of the health of the school child as desirable habits of eating, sleeping, exercise, rest, and cleanliness. In progressive communities where medical examinations are made at school, the parents are present and talk with the physician, nurse, and teacher about the needs of the pupils as revealed by these examinations, and about the best ways of providing a maximum development for each child.

Even though the teacher does not have the wholehearted support of the parents, she still feels her responsibility toward the child to the extent that she does everything in her power to secure such cooperation and to fit the child for his school life. She realizes that an effort to have the pupil as nearly physically fit as possible is well worth while. In some places where the medical service is not adequate, the teachers themselves are making the physical inspections of pupils. The assistance that the teacher gets in this type of work varies from the most backward rural sections, where she struggles almost entirely alone, to the fully developed city system where the physical inspection which she makes is directed by a well organized staff of physicians, nurses, and specialists.

There are well established ideals for this important phase of health work but the practice varies greatly. We agree that every child should have regular medical examinations from the time of his birth, and that all physical defects should be corrected as soon as possible; that the parents and teachers should be present at the annual health examinations of school children; that the physicians and nurses should be responsible for the thoroughness of these examinations; that the parents and teachers should make use of this information; and we are encouraged by the progress that is being made in reaching this goal.

In building up positive and constructive school health activities physical directors and health supervisors are giving definite suggestions to teachers. The department of physical education in this city is offering the teachers three types of help—inspirational, informational, and practical. Traveling teachers, sent out by this department, share their ideals of health with the teachers, express appreciation of the fine work done, give definite information through courses of study, supplemented regularly by mimeographed sheets, and help in analyzing the situation as it is, sometimes demonstrating the principles which they are advocating.

The most effective help is being given teachers in school systems where the home economics teachers, physical directors, physicians, nurses, and general supervisors are familiar with the work of each other. In one city they meet together each month to discuss common problems and go over all material in courses of study distributed to the teachers.

Teachers are asking for definite concrete suggestions for solving problems that arise daily, and for material that appeals to the imagination and stimulates thought. All over the world they are seeking help from school

administrators, supervisors, nurses, physicians, parents, higher institutions of learning, and from other organizations, both public and private. This call is being answered through personal and groups conferences, educational meetings, correspondence, radio, courses of study, textbooks, supplementary material, school equipment, extension courses, summer schools, leaves of absence for study, and practical school health work done under the direction of college faculty, for which college credit is given.

In the cities where the superintendents recognize health as the first objective in education and make provision for school health work in their budget, their daily schedules, their equipment, and in their staffs, the results in the lives of the children show the effectiveness of this type of help to teachers.

Neither health nor educational authorities are prepared to answer all of the questions teachers are asking, but they are aware of the need for further knowledge. Teachers are making such demands for help that one organization alone sent out more than thirty-five thousand letters in answer to requests last year. Many questions raised in these letters cannot be answered because the information is not available. Research groups are endeavoring to ascertain the relative importance of certain scientific facts, the relative value of various pedagogical methods, and the influence of environmental factors.

Far-seeing teachers are studying the fundamental principles of living in relation to the child's desires and ability in order to help him in securing more complete control of himself and environment, freeing himself from fear of disease and accident. When people, today, can sit on the edge of the crater of our largest volcano and watch the flowing lava rise without fear of danger because they understand the laws governing its action, we realize the importance of knowing the principles of living in banishing fear from our lives.

Rapid progress is being made but more assistance is needed. The successful teacher cares about the welfare of her pupils and is demanding more help in developing the personality of the child as a whole.

The health of the children of today and the future generations depends to a great extent upon the aid we give the classroom teacher now.

THE PLACE OF RESEARCH IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

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A review of the field of physical education today gives us much to be happy about. More and more the administrators of educational institutions are recognizing the values of this work. Supervisors are being added to school systems and increasing budgets are supplying new facilities for more extensive programs. The public as well as the superintendents and principals recognize a wonderful change in spirit and vigor of the student

body whenever a good physical department gets into action. Particularly do we hear praise for the corrective and remedial exercises which open a new vision and a more abundant life to the boy or girl somewhat handicapped.

Notwithstanding those achievements which do honor to the leaders in this great movement, there are some elements that are causing dissatisfaction and very earnest questioning. Physical educators have not agreed on whether formal gymnastic organized programs are better than informal recreational game programs, nor has it been decided that large muscle activities are the only elements to be used if successful, nor have we all acquiesced in the belief that the exercise from large muscle activities will produce health. If we extend our questioning to any field we find ourselves bound to discover our lack of unity in fundamentals.

That we have these disagreements is not at all surprising and it is not my purpose to explain or defend them. Differences of opinion are not a reason for worry but are, if honestly supported, the stimulus for work in the hands of scientific researchers which may lead us to better understandings. I am, then, taking an altogether neutral ground and am interested only in mentioning the fact that we have faults, in order that I may discuss the place of research in our field of education.

The physical education of the future must meet the individual needs. Mass performance is not giving universal satisfaction. Yet what are to be the elements of this new physical education and how are these new methods to be built to handle such a program?

Today we hear a great deal about the absorption of all our energies by the competitive teams, and, that those who need exercise the most get it the least. All this may be true and yet a greater extension of our programs and the inclusion of 80 per cent or 90 per cent of all students does not mean that we are headed for success or that we are on safe ground.

Many of our administrators are sure that we should spend more time with those who have minor defects, let the strong and healthy manage for themselves. Yet again, even if we stick by our objectives, even if we have an inclusive program for all; and even if we have a well organized and well equipped corrective department, we are still subject to error and may be guilty of unscientific proceedings.

There are those who feel that physical education and health education are identical or that a good sound regimen of exercise leads to a good sound body. Disease cannot exist in a robust strong man! With all the defects which such an argument presents even if we include the health objective and plan our work with this in mind, are we sure then that our scheme is sound?

If we are to answer these questions put to us in any sort of adequate

way, it means the encouragement of those physical educators who possess the scientific background for such work. Many of the common slogans have yet to be tested by experiment and the results carefully checked. In the field of tests and measurements a knowledge of physiology, psychology, and mathematics is necessary. Much erroneous and unchecked data are published in our literature because the figures have not found their way through the hands of a statistically trained investigator. The application of physiology to our field of physical education is yet to be made. The English physiologists, such as Hill, Lucas, Adrian, are doing a splendid work in the field of pure physiology. Their researches on lactic acid, oxygen debt and the limits of muscular exertion are foundations for anyone interested in training of athletes and the records to be made in athletics. Other fields in physiology may be equally as fruitful. What we need are physical educators who are also physiologists!

And so in the field of administration we must find those who are willing to experiment—not to be doing something different—but to obtain a true picture of the situation, keep careful records, eliminate all factors but one to be tested, draw careful conclusions.

Any branch of education can be scientific only when it has a sufficient body of experimental data to formulate laws that operate in that field. Is physical education a science? Those who hold such an ambition must not expect to shine by reflected glory. Physical education must stand on its own principles or else be recognized only as a name with no claim to a place in the education family.

Physical education is complex. It uses biology, physiology, chemistry, psychology, education as its tools. Its researchers must be prepared in all these fields. The natural sciences today have grown to their strength because of two types of workers—the teacher and the researcher. It cannot be held that physical education is solely a practical study, that there is no place for the theorist and experimenter. True enough there are situations that demand the practical man. The playground requires some one who understands the problems of the playground and yet there may be also a place for some experimenter on that playground, who has a new idea to try out. It is only when the spirit of research gets into our philosophy that a practical result can be achieved.

Our schools of physical education are our great hope. Here in contact with researchers in other fields is the finest training ground for a new crop of scientifically trained investigators. Eventually, there will be in our field as in others, the worker who is known for his productiveness, his studies, his research. He may always be known as the theorist, but under his guidance will come the accumulation and sorting of a large body of facts that will lend themselves to formulation of new laws and principles which will solidify our claim to the science of physical education.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

President—Melville Stewart, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Charleston, West Virginia.

Vicepresident—Mary E. Gross, Director of Department of Physical Education and Hygiene for Women, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

Secretary-Treasurer—Florence D. Alden, Director of Department of Physical Education for Women, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.

The first session of the Department of School Health and Physical Education was held Tuesday afternoon, July 5, in the Y. M. C. A. auditorium.

The President called the meeting to order shortly after 2:00 P.M. He gave a brief history of our department and then turned the meeting over to the secretary as the presiding officer of the day.

The program was as follows:

SCHOOLS AND COMMUNITY ATHLETICS

W. A. Kearns, Director of Athletics and Physical Education, Oregon State Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oregon.

MEDICAL ASPECT OF SCHOOL HEALTH

Walter Brown, Director of Child Health Demonstration, Salem, Oregon.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF HEALTH EDUCATION

George H. Black, President, Washington State Normal School, Ellensburg, Washington.

ATTITUDE OF SCHOOL PROCEDURE HOME ECONOMICS

Effie I. Raitt, Professor of Home Economics, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

SOCIAL SCIENCE AND ENGLISH

Orpha McPherson, Supervisor of Rural Education, State Normal School, Bellingham, Washington.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Jane McGownd, Instructor in Physical Education, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington.

Each paper was followed by a free and interesting discussion. The session was broken by a brief recreation period led by Mr. Kearns. About 150 were present.

The second session was held Thursday afternoon, July 7, at the same place.

The president called the meeting to order at 2:00 P.M.

The following program was given:

HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE COLLEGE

Ruth Glassow, Director of Physical Education, Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oregon.

ASSISTING TEACHERS IN SERVICE

Pauline B. Williamson, Head of Department of Bureau of Education, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York City.

THE PLACE OF RESEARCH IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION

John F. Bovard, Dean of the School of Physical Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.

STATE ATHLETICS IN MARYLAND

William Burdick, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Baltimore, Maryland.

As the program was not quite so full at this session there was more opportunity for free discussion. Many interesting points were brought up and threshed out by the group. About the same number were present.

Business meeting—A business session was held Thursday, July 7, 1927.

The nominating committee, consisting of William Burdick, chairman, Florence Alden, and W. A. Kearns, submitted the following report:

President—James E. Rogers, Director National Physical Education Service, Playground and Recreation Association of America, New York City.

Vicepresident—Dr. Margaret Bell, Director of the Department of Physical Education for Women and Assistant University Physician, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Secretary-Treasurer—Florence D. Alden, Director of the Department of Physical Education for Women, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon.

New Member of Executive Committee—Melville Stewart, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Charleston, West Virginia.

President asked for nominations from the floor. It was moved, seconded and carried that the report of the committee be accepted as read.

Dr. Black made the following motion:

That the president appoint a committee charged with the responsibility of finding the best executive technic for bringing to the children in the classroom adequate physical education.

The meeting was adjourned.

The Department of Science Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF SCIENCE INSTRUCTION is an outgrowth of a State Department of Natural Science Teachers which was organized at a meeting of the Colorado State Teachers' Association in 1894. See *Proceedings*, 1895:951. It was first known as the Department of Natural Science Instruction.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Hanor A. Webb, Professor of the Teaching of Chemistry, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.; *Secretary*, Francis D. Curtis, Professor of the Teaching of Natural Science, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich. This Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1895: 951-959	1902:759-790	1909: 789-829	1915:995-1029	1921: 663-667
1896: 937-968	1903:847-897	1910: 949-969	1916:699-751	1922:1239-1267
1897: 916-959	1904:843-897	1911: 939-993	1917:535-557	1923: 843-861
1898: 959-985	1905:781-827	1912:1153-1195	1918:295	1924: 753-775
1899:1097-1118	1906:719	1913: 695-717	1919:289	1925: 598-609
1900: 592-609	1907:951-959	1914: 721-773	1920:305-309	1926: 624-636
1901: 771-803	1908:965-999			

AN OUTDOOR MUSEUM—ABSTRACT

FLOYD W. SCHMOE, PARK NATURALIST, MOUNT RAINIER NATIONAL
PARK, WASH.

SIXTY miles from Seattle is a great outdoor museum whose millions of natural history exhibits cover more than three hundred square miles of "floor space." All these interesting exhibits center around one big display which can be seen for a hundred and fifty miles! This is Mount Rainier, America's greatest mountain, and the natural history museum which includes it is Mount Rainer National Park.

Mount Rainier is not only our greatest mountain, but strange as it may sound, it combines at the same time one of the finest examples of vulcanism to be found in the country and an equally fine example of glaciation, for it is the largest of the entire series of old volcanoes which form a "chain of fire" from Mexico to Canada along our west coast, and also carries the largest system of active glaciers to be found in the United States.

Unlike some museums the government in its national parks has not stopped with merely exhibiting the things of interest found within its borders. A small museum of the conventional order with labored specimens, reference library, and information service, serves as a "card index" to the big outdoor museum which is the park itself.

Here also are given daily illustrated lectures on the national features of the park, free nature-guide field trips are conducted to acquaint the people with the story of the mountain, its glaciers, forests, and other trail-side displays, and nature bulletins are prepared for free distribution.

THE SECOND MILE IN TRAINING TEACHERS IN NATURE STUDY

KARL HAZELTINE, PROFESSOR OF NATURE STUDY AT THE SAN JOSE STATE
TEACHERS' COLLEGE, SAN JOSE, CALIF.

As I was coming up on the train I saw a sign at a dangerous crossing which read, "The greatest safety device is a careful man." At this time, when people are becoming alarmed about our civilization, and the more pessimistic are predicting its decline, and the optimistic are turning to the teacher for guidance, we may well say that the greatest safety device civilization has is a trained child. Any program which is forward looking must begin with the child.

In representing the teacher training institutions at this meeting, I am primarily interested in those who will teach the nature work to elementary school children. Proper teaching along this line is more important today than it was a generation ago. When our fathers wished to know how a bird built they could go out and find a robin's nest or the home of an oriole. Today many children are unable to get this information so readily. In other days children learned much along this line from reading or from

parents around the family lamp in the evenings, but today we have the movies.

The fundamental tool subjects are being stressed. Children are being taught utilitarian facts which will make for better opportunity for advancement along economic lines. Our schools are producing better doctors, keener lawyers, more skillful artisans and more efficient laborers. This is as it should be, but we must not neglect the more inspirational side of the child's nature. We must equip for proper use of leisure time. Each one should have a worthwhile avocation as well as a vocation. Nature training will give a wonderful chance for relaxation and never ending enjoyment. Accurate observation stimulating careful thought will develop independent ideas which will result in a lasting interest in Nature. This is what nature study should do.

If we agree as to the advisability of this type of training we must consider the child's source of knowledge—the elementary school teacher.

In looking forward there are certain things one must consider as we enter the second mile in training teachers in nature study. First, there must be a solid foundation of science. We must not allow one to cover his lack of knowledge with fanciful tales any longer. Some people spend the later years in life readjusting falsehoods taught them in youth.

The teacher must be interested in things and get the child's point of view. Psychology is important. Professors can tell us about the synapses and complexes, but who can tell why boys have marble or top or ball seasons? Yet these mean much to them and seem to be just as necessary and important as do spring or summer. There is much difference in a biological study of an organism and a nature study viewpoint, but both should be scientific and truthful. The teacher should be imbued with imagination so as to be able to "suppose things" with the child. This imagination if properly directed will give an impetus to the child's desire to acquire scientific facts for himself.

The teacher should be trained to follow a scientific procedure in developing the nature work. The knowing how to observe accurately is essential. The senses of sight and hearing are extremely important to a nature teacher. After a thing which is interesting has been observed we train our teachers to record it. With this done he is required to form some hypothesis as to the way and wherefore of what he has seen. After forming his scientific guess he should experiment or observe further until he is able to accept, modify, or reject his hypothesis. A series of nature study observation cards will do much toward increasing the first hand knowledge of nature study teachers.

If the teacher is to go the second mile there are other things to consider. We must develop a certain technic. Minimum requirements must be determined and a flexible course of study must be constructed. We must have courses which will teach nature study as such and not depend upon the other science teachers to do our work. There is a place for a specialized

nature study course as well as geology, chemistry, or hygiene. Basic science training is essential, but does not constitute nature training. The properly conducted field trip is essential. We should study animal life as far as possible in its natural environment. We should follow those who are at the forefront of nature teaching and gain from their experience. I know the teacher training institutions will gladly accept the challenge and will so educate those teaching our children nature study so that they as teachers will go the second mile.

NEED IN RESEARCH IN ELEMENTARY SCIENCE TEACHING

FRANK A. SIPE, INSTRUCTOR IN BOTANY, OREGON AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE,
CORVALLIS, ORE.

Probably no characterization of modern life is more generally accepted than the often heard statement that this is "an age of science." The immense advances made in our material civilization during the past few decades, most of them traceable directly to certain specific discoveries of scientists, have made this assertion selfevident to everyone. We know immensely more about the laws of nature than did our ancestors, and what is more important, as far as our material advancement goes, we are learning how to control the forces of nature, as a result of our knowledge of nature's laws.

An examination of recent investigations reveals a constantly increasing tendency to include some kind of science in the elementary school curriculum. But it also reveals another thing, which I think we as scientists should take to heart. And that is, the almost total lack of careful research that will answer the specific questions of the educator as to what should be included in this science curriculum, and how it should be presented.

In most of our common school subjects there is a constantly increasing body of research material, the aim of which is to indicate to the school administrator the exact status of the particular subject; just what the subject should aim to give the child in the way of valuable habits and knowledges, and how and when to present it.

But such research is noteworthy for its absence in elementary science. To the trained scientist this situation represents a distinct challenge. Science has become the dominating influence in modern life, permeating our every day thinking and acting with a thoroughness hardly yet realized. Educators are asking how to organize this mass of subjectmatter, so that it may become an integral and functioning part of the curriculum. Since education is a process of adjustment to environment, and since our environment is becoming more and more a product of man-controlled forces of nature, it is evident that our educational system should devote definite time and energy towards enabling the developing child to acquire familiarity with this environment.

I feel very strongly, that our greatest need just now is well directed research that will fix more definitely and firmly the exact status of elementary science in our educational system. Such research should be carried out by persons with good scientific training, both in the fields of pure science and in educational science, and with intelligent understanding of the problems and outlook of childhood. It is greatly to be hoped that there will be those who will be fired with a real zeal for research in this field, and that at some of our great institutions, students may be encouraged and urged to start some real investigations in this almost virgin territory. Such investigations, if of genuine merit, will certainly be welcomed by educators who are facing the practical problems of adjusting the curriculum to meet the needs of the social order now evolving.

NATURE EDUCATION THROUGH MOTION PICTURES

WILLIAM L. FINLEY, DIRECTOR OF WILD LIFE CONSERVATION,
AMERICAN NATURE ASSOCIATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Since education is knowing life itself, the better knowledge we have of the world about us enables us to live a life worth living. Contact with nature may come in a limited way in the classroom, but with better results in contact with the out-of-doors itself. Since it is not always possible, especially in the cities, to bring children in close touch with the various phases of nature, the still and motion picture cameras have become important educational factors.

The aim of American Nature Association, which I represent, is to stimulate public interest in every phase of nature and the out-of-doors, and it is devoted to practical conservation of the great natural resources of America. It seeks to find an essential place for nature study in every school and in every American home. Clean, healthful outdoor recreation is a key to good citizenship.

What are some of the practical problems to be accomplished in nature education, especially in the Pacific Northwest?

1. A very large part of the timber of the United States is in the Pacific Northwest. This is a valuable resource which we are cutting and destroying, without adequate reforestation.
2. The fishing industry is another of our valuable resources, yet we are destroying the great runs of salmon, not only by over-fishing but by the poisonous pollution of our streams.
3. We are draining some of our greatest marshes and lakes, destroying the homes of wild birds and fur bearing animals, and losing their recreational value.

In the first case, the forests that cover our mountains are of value in a commercial way when trees are turned into lumber. It is difficult to adjust the relations between the man who builds up a prosperous business and gives employment to many citizens, and say what his duty to the people as a whole is when he destroys a forest. The forests of the mountains conserve our soil and water supply, matters of vast importance to the

commonwealth. Should not those who cut the forests be responsible for the planting of trees and growing new forests?

In the second place, the rivers that rise in the high mountains, flow down across the valleys and enter the sea, have many services to perform. The water may be used for drinking, for the irrigation of arid areas to produce crops, for the development of power to advance industry, and to produce fish as a food supply for our people. As a nation we are interested in the practical uses of our streams so they will serve the greatest number for all time, yet we are the most careless and destructive people in the world. Mills and factories have been allowed to dam the streams, and irrigation companies have been allowed to take the water in ways that destroy vast numbers of fish. Towns, cities and manufacturing plants are permitted to dump their filth and sewage into public waters, killing fish life, and destroying their value for recreational purposes. One of the greatest crimes attendant upon our civilization is this pollution of public waters.

And lastly the swamps, ponds and lakes that dot our country from one end to the other are often of value in building up wild life resources, yet promoters have drained these in hundreds of places. Where valuable agricultural land is developed we cannot find fault, yet in many places drainage has proved utterly worthless, and as a result the ancestral homes of many birds have been destroyed until some species are on the verge of extinction. Since these areas are of value to the public in producing fish, furbearing animals, and wild fowl, and for recreational purposes, they should not be destroyed unless it is definitely proved that the results that accrue will be of public benefit.

The public as a whole must be taught to protect and enjoy its natural resources. The problems are those that can only be solved with education, and in this the motion picture camera has proved of lasting value.

THE CHAINS OF PROMETHEUS

BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG, MANAGING DIRECTOR, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
FOR MEDICAL PROGRESS, NEW YORK CITY

While every increase of knowledge means an increase of power, it means also an increase of sorrow. This is not to say that ignorance is bliss, or that wisdom is folly. It is only to recognize that knowledge does inhibit action, does dampen enthusiasm, does increase the burden of care. It is not necessary to defend knowledge, or its modern equivalent, science. But it is necessary for us to understand something of its nature and its limitations, of its dangers and its implications, as well as some of its concrete products and applications.

When Prometheus stole the flame from heaven he not only embarrassed the gods. He conferred upon man the most precious of gifts, and set the pattern for all subsequent revolutions.

Consider fire. At one time this was an innovation, and a violation of the normal and divine order of the universe. For thousands of years, then, to play with fire meant not merely to incur the known risks of a partially controlled force, but it was like hunting wild beasts at the risk of getting killed. Throughout the ages countless eulogies have been pronounced in praise of fire, its virtues have been widely extolled, and it was earnestly defended against its enemies.

Today, this strange force has become assimilated into our daily lives. We no longer fear that a wide distribution of strike-anywhere matches will increase the temptation to commit arson. Although the destruction due to fire amounts to hundreds of lives and millions of dollars in property every year, even children today accept fire as part of nature and of the orderly routine of life. We have become so thoroughly habituated and indifferent to the presence of fire that friends and foes alike have all but forgotten Prometheus.

The fire of Prometheus comes, then, to be considered a matter of course, and a valuable gift from on high. If now we accept the benefits of this wonderful process of oxidation, we must recognize also that, like every other advantage, this gift has carried with it serious dangers, whether we consider the material benefits of fire in the concrete, or the spiritual benefits that are symbolized by the torch.

There are two points here for our consideration. On the one hand there are the unquestionable risks and dangers inherent in every form of force. The ancients had no practicable steam engines, but neither had they boiler explosions. You discover that mushrooms are good to eat, and that is clear gain. You discover only later that there are mushrooms and mushrooms; then there is wailing and sackcloth. That is to say, there is the danger of knowing, but knowing too little. On the other hand, there are the capacities for understanding and control and utilization inherent in the spirit of man. We can learn to distinguish one mushroom from another, we can learn to use steam without boiler explosions. That is to say, there is the hope of clear vision and deeper insight. Whether in any given case mastery or disaster will be realized, or how much of each, constitutes the whole issue between fear and superstition and inertia and reaction on the one side, and science, vision, enterprise, and progress on the other.

Every new instrument whereby man has increased his control of natural forces has carried with it the possibility of destroying both human life and the things we value. The revolutionary thought or device often does violence to the things of the spirit as well as to our material possessions. Every innovation must meet the resistance and active opposition of a certain portion of the population.

To all people the familiar way of life, the customary, appears as the natural. An attempt to obtain uniform practice, for reasons which seem to be good and sufficient to those who have studied the problem, is sure to be met with resistance. Now it is strictly in accord with human nature to

acquire habits, as we may call them for short; but it is also in accord with human nature to resist every pressure to change habits. All of us, however, will admit that it would be highly desirable for other people to adopt our customs.

The customary and familiar are not only natural, but they accord with common sense. If we find peoples with different customs, it is evidence that they are queer. With certain peculiar sects, respect is indicated by covering the hair; yet we consider it common sense for the male of the species to manifest respect for persons, monuments, churches, or symbols by removing the headgear. In any case, however, it seems to be common sense to do as we have always done.

Any demand for a change in customs or usage is resisted by us not on the ground that we do not like to change our habits, but on the ground that the new proposals are in violation of common sense. That is to say, we are inert because we are inert, and we rationalize our inertia because our intellectual vanity requires justification of our conduct in terms of reason or sense. In many cases, also, the demands and proposals of innovators are offensive because they presuppose knowledge which is not shared by all, that is, knowledge which is not common; and we cannot help resenting the insolence of those who set themselves up as superior.

Closely related to the rationalization of our accustomed behavior and values as being natural and in accord with common sense is the sensitiveness of the personality to any invasion from without. We insist upon our natural rights; we are all strong for personal liberty. Without searching too closely into the nature and sources of these rights, and without determining critically the sanctions of personal liberty, we are satisfied that our rights do somehow coincide with what is natural and proper. But personal liberty turns out very often to mean no more than our insistence upon our right to continue to do as we have always done.

In the absence of knowledge impulses find free play without inhibition. It is this that constitutes the happiness of the infant; it is this that makes the idiot cheerful. It is the inhibitions of painful experiences, the inhibitions of conflicting impulses, that make knowledge and thought possible. And with every new addition to our knowledge and thought there appear new inhibitions, new obstacles to doing what we feel like doing.

Science comes to be wicked because it threatens our liberties. To the degree that scientists are permitted to influence our customs and our laws, to that degree are we beset with regulations and restrictions and interferences with our natural—that is to say, our habitual—modes of life, with our happiness. It is for these reasons that science has become anathema, for those who do not understand its methods and its aims.

In making application of the younger sciences, those that have emerged from a study of organic processes, the public is not so well prepared to renounce and to cooperate. People who pay rent can see why the building of tenements and the installation of plumbing should be regulated by law;

but they cannot all see why established industries should be regulated by law as to hours of work, or as to output of smoke and noise, or as to sex discrimination. Pedestrians can see why the state should restrict car driving or the erection of bridges to those who can demonstrate some degree of skill and proficiency in these arts; but they cannot all see why the practice of the healing arts should be thus restricted. Healing is for too large a part of the population still akin to the miracles and magic of religious practice.

In every case we are ready to submit to the prohibitions and compulsions of the mechanisms which we understand or control; in every case we are disposed to revolt against the constraints and checks of the instrument that we do not control or understand.

Attempts of legislatures, and of others placed in authority, to impose restrictions of various kinds are likely enough in many cases to be arbitrary and to lead to abuse of power. It is possible to rationalize arbitrary acts and those that do indeed constitute abuses just as it is possible to rationalize our fears of the new and our dislike of authority. The fact that knowledge is power places those who know at an advantage; and naturally those of us who do not know become suspicious and resentful.

Those of us who are engaged in education, and particularly in the teaching of science, are in danger of becoming rather complacent. We are apt to rely too easily upon the widely accepted doctrine that knowledge is power, and *ipso facto* of benefit to mankind. We take for granted the adage that truth will make us free. This assumption is seldom challenged and very seldom do we ask ourselves just how it is that truth brings freedom, or what kind of liberty it is that truth insures. Man's ability to discriminate among phenomena that are superficially alike, his ability to doubt and to question, his ability to look two or three or a million times to make sure, his ability to experiment, all those things about man that differentiate him from other anthropoids and from all other living things, have made possible an accumulation of reliable facts, and an elaboration of workable theories, which compel a form of living that is anything but "natural."

With each addition to man's equipment there have come, however, a host of restrictions which to the uninitiated seem arbitrary and disproportionate to the alleged benefits.

Improved and cheapened means of transportation, with increased leisure, tempt us to travel abroad; science, that is, would free us from certain types of provincialism. We find, however, that in addition to the political restraints of passports and visas, which are the very embodiment of ignorance and supersitition, we have to submit also to quarantine restrictions and vaccination requirements, and even to the discomfort, not to say humiliation, of medical examinations—which are supposed to be the very embodiments of light and learning.

Scientific knowledge has accumulated faster than the general population can assimilate it. Moreover, new knowledge is always the discovery of specialists, so that at every point all but a very few must remain in outer

darkness. We must take a large part of the liberating truth on faith. It is necessary to take the public into our confidence and to tell it how we have come to know. And increasingly, the diffusion of new knowledge devolves upon agencies outside the schools.

Masses in the future will have to learn what only a few men have learned in the past, namely, that the attainment of truth is a continuous process and never an accomplished fact; that with every gain there comes a new set of inhibitions. It is no paradox to say that the liberations made possible by the truths which we know as science are made possible by selfimposed prohibitions and compulsions. The most difficult conditions which advancing science imposes upon us is that of starting each day prepared to scrap some of the cherished beliefs of the past. Advancement of science means not only deriving new power and new freedom out of new insight; it means also the acceptance of new discipline, new obligations, new restraints upon our impulses and prejudgments.

We cannot have the torch without the chains.

JUNIOR COLLEGE SCIENCE TEACHERS

GUY H. VANDE BOGART, DEAN, HIBBING JUNIOR COLLEGE, HIBBING, MINN.

The functions, the methods of doing work, and the results obtained by junior colleges have been the subject of much discussion by educators in recent years. Like every comparatively new institution, the junior college has been compelled to devise its own methods and to determine to a large extent its own field of work. Like every new institution, too, it has been subject to scrutiny from the standpoint of the successful presentation of subjectmatter and the effective methods by which this subjectmatter is presented.

This paper will be limited to an investigation of the preparation of our science teachers with particular reference to subjectmatter and technic of teaching. Five objectives have been used to determine the scope of this study:

1. To determine the preparation in science courses and in education courses of science teachers in junior colleges
2. To determine what changes, if any, in academic and professional preparation these teachers would advise based upon their own experience
3. To determine what methods of instruction are most successfully used in junior colleges
4. To determine what academic and professional preparation has been completed by those teachers who are at present entering upon junior college work
5. To determine the policies and preferences of junior college administrators with reference to the academic preparation and teaching experience preferred in employing teachers.

Four sources of information were available: Returns from questionnaires sent to junior college science teachers, reports from questionnaires to junior college administrators, data from placement bureaus and teachers' agencies

which list prospective junior college teachers, and, finally, the observations of the writer while visiting a number of representative junior colleges.

In order that the results of the questionnaires might be representative, a cross section of the junior colleges of the United States was taken. Among the fifty schools reporting, the enrolment varied from 25 to 3000. The geographical distribution extended from Virginia to California, and from Minnesota to Texas. Included among these institutions are three types: Public junior colleges—those supported by city or high school districts, state junior colleges—institutions supported by state funds, and private junior colleges. The data from these 50 junior colleges are grouped according to the objectives of the study.

As might be predicted, a very wide range of results is shown in the matter of academic and professional preparation of teachers engaged in junior college science work. This phase of our problem was explored by ascertaining what proportion of the science teachers in these 50 junior colleges had majored in science, in education, or in other subjects during their undergraduate years. The same data were compiled with reference to their graduate courses. In the public junior colleges these teachers during their undergraduate courses have completed majors as follows: Science subjects 84 percent, education 2 percent, other subjects 14 percent; and in the graduate courses 80 percent had completed science majors, 13 percent education, and 7 percent other subjects. Teachers in the private junior colleges had completed during their undergraduate courses 88 percent of science majors, no majors in education, and 12 percent majors in other subjects. During their graduate courses 88 percent had completed majors in science, 6 percent majors in education, and 6 percent majors in subjects other than these. A combination of the data for all these junior colleges shows that the undergraduates completed science majors to the extent of 85 percent, education majors 1 percent, and majors in other subjects 14 percent. As graduate students 82 percent had majored in the sciences, 11 percent in education, and 7 percent in other subjects.

Approximately 75 percent of the science teachers in junior colleges hold graduate degrees. This is not always indicative of the amount of graduate preparation. It was observed that in several cases teachers with a year or more of graduate work in a science had not been candidates for the master's degree.

An investigation was also made to determine to what extent our science teachers had changed their majors between undergraduate and graduate courses. It was found that a very appreciable portion had done this. In the public junior colleges 68 percent did not change their majors, 32 percent had changed. In the private institutions 82 percent did not change, while 18 percent did. Taking the totals of all junior colleges reporting, 71 percent did not change their majors, and 29 percent did so. This shifting of the field of interest would tend to work to the disadvantage of the teachers.

In reply to the question in the questionnaire, "What changes, if any, would you make in the distribution of your courses between science subjects and education subjects if you were to repeat your undergraduate work?" forty-six percent stated that no changes would be made, 54 percent would arrange their undergraduate courses differently. Of those teachers who would advise a change in their undergraduate courses, 39 percent would increase the amount of time devoted to science subjects, and 61 percent would give more attention to their professional preparation in education courses.

The above question was asked, also, with reference to graduate courses in science and in education. Fifty-six percent reported that they would make no change in the emphasis placed upon science subjects and education subjects during their graduate courses. Forty-four percent would advise a change. Of this group, 61 percent would increase their preparation in science subjects, and 39 percent would give more attention to education courses. A correlation was apparent between the number of education courses completed and the number of education courses which science teachers would have taken had they repeated their graduate work. Those with undergraduate courses in education totalling 20 hours or less indicated a decided preference for more courses in this department.

An investigation was made also of the methods of instruction considered most effective in junior colleges. Probably the better technic in the junior colleges may be accounted for in part by the fact that a large majority of junior college teachers have had high-school experience where technic is regarded as fundamentally important.

Obviously, a mere classification according to methods determines neither the success of the instructor nor the benefit derived by the students in the course. This phase of the study is interesting to junior college science teachers merely because it indicates the frequency with which the various types of methods have been selected by teachers in charge of this work.

It is important in connection with this investigation to know what preparation is being given those teachers who are applicants for junior college work. Data for this purpose were obtained from two sources: the placement bureaus of four universities, and three widely recognized teachers' agencies.

The most significant result of this portion of our study was the evident lack of recognition of junior college standards and requirements. Nearly all of the papers submitted by two of the placement bureaus and by two of the teachers' agencies indicated that they considered strong high-school teachers fully able to do junior college work provided that they had completed even a small amount of graduate work.

Up to this point we have discussed our problem with reference to the science teachers. Certain findings will now be presented which will indicate the relationship of junior college administrators to the problem of maintaining the most effective possible work in the science departments. It was

found that 77 percent of the executive heads of junior colleges prefer that a science teacher shall have a major in science and a minor in education during his graduate preparation. In only one case did a school administrator prefer that a candidate for a science position should have had a major in education with a minor in the science in the graduate school. The science teachers, as you will remember, tended to emphasize much more the importance of preparation in subjectmatter during the graduate courses, and favored reducing the work in other departments even though certain of these courses might directly or indirectly improve the technic of teaching.

A canvass was made of the catalogues of 38 of our largest colleges of education in order to ascertain to what extent courses are offered which are specifically planned for junior college teachers. Of the 38 schools, 6 offered courses dealing with one or more phases of junior college work, and 8 presented offerings in the college field which are apparently broad enough to be of value to junior college educators.

Another phase of this study which will be of particular interest to prospective junior college teachers is the attitude of administrators relative to the type of experience which they consider most valuable as a preparation for junior college science teachers. Forty-eight percent favored college or university teaching experience, 39 percent preferred high school teaching experience, and a third group representing 13 percent were insistent that the junior college teacher could do most effective work with a foundation of both high school and college experience.

An attempt was made also to determine from the standpoint of the junior college administrator what objectives are considered most important in offering junior college sciences. The following choices were expressed:

	<i>1st choice</i>	<i>2nd choice</i>
Professional or preprofessional training.....	25	8
Semi-professional training	3	11
Cultural values	18	12

Frequently, of course, two or even three of these were regarded as important in a given junior college. The emphasis upon the various objectives naturally varies with the interests of the community which the junior college serves.

Conclusions—It is evident from the material presented, gathered from 50 representative junior colleges, from the placement bureaus of graduate schools, and from the observations of the writer, that certain changes or developments are desirable in order to still further improve the teaching of science in junior colleges.

The minimum preparation for teaching in a junior college should be one full year of graduate study during which major attention has been given to the subject to be taught.

In many of the smaller junior colleges which are under the same general organization with lower school units, there is a tendency to maintain separate faculties for the college and for the high school or academy. This would seem to be desirable except in those cases in which a junior college

teacher attempts to offer courses in which he has not had the minimum preparation of one year of graduate work.

Primary emphasis should be placed upon preparation in subjectmatter, with additional courses particularly adapted to the methods of that specialized field of education, the junior college, which is neither a part of the senior high school nor yet a part of the senior college, but should rather maintain its individuality.

The preparation of teachers of science by our graduate schools of education might well be organized to some extent as a specialized field of education preparation rather than as a field which a high-school teacher of superior ability strives to enter, or into which the student who has completed graduate courses enters if he finds himself unable to qualify for a position in a senior college or university.

*STATISTICAL STUDY OF THE PREPARATION OF SCIENCE
TEACHERS IN THE ACCREDITED SCHOOLS OF THE
STATE OF WASHINGTON IN 1922 AND 1927—
ABSTRACT*

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The cause of the condition that the science teachers of the State of Washington have little preparation in the courses they are teaching may be lack of prepared science teachers, but from other facts it is very largely due to an improper selection of the teaching staff with what amounts to a practical denial that knowledge of one's subject is of the first importance.

As a result of a questionnaire sent to the teachers of physics in 1922 and 1927, their preparation for teaching physics and the other sciences, if they were chemistry, biology, or mathematics, was obtained. In the schools with five or less teachers about 55 percent of the science teachers had not had 24 semester hours of college work in any one of the four subjects taught. In schools with six to eleven teachers, less than 20 percent of the physics teachers had 24 semester hours in physics and 40 percent were teaching without this preparation in any subject taught. In the third group of schools from twelve to seventeen teachers where one might expect to find better preparation, a third of the teachers had no major preparation in any of the subjects taught and slightly over 20 percent of the physics teachers had majored in the subject. The last group, schools with eighteen or more teachers, we find only 40 percent of the physics teachers offered 24 semester hours of preparation in physics and 20 percent were teaching science with no major in any one of the subjects taught.

Several remedies were mentioned, the one most favored being a plea to our schools of education, where principals and superintendents are trained, that they impress on their students that with all the professional training in education, a thorough preparation in the subjects to be taught is still basic.

The Department of Secondary School Principals

THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS was organized in Topeka, Kansas, in 1886, under the name of the Department of Secondary Instruction. See *Proceedings*, 1887:396. Anticipating the proposed merger of the National Association of Secondary Principals with the National Education Association, the name of the Department has changed to the Department of Secondary School Principals.

The officers for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, F. L. Bacon, Principal, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass.; *First Vicepresident*, Jessie M. Hamilton, Principal, Morey Junior High School, Denver, Colo.; *Second Vicepresident*, Charles F. Allen, Principal, West Side Junior High School, Little Rock, Ark.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, H. V. Church, Principal, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Ill. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1887: 395-442	1895: 579-635	1903: 429-486	1911: 555-657	1919: 195-204
1888: 403-433	1896: 557-619	1904: 473-536	1912: 663-765	1920: 209-230
1889: 499-533	1897: 644-699	1905: 423-479	1913: 469-499	1921: 667-678
1890: 615-655	1898: 664-700	1906: 633-637	1914: 445-488	1922: 1267-1293
1891: 617-687	1899: 601-818	1907: 521-710	1915: 723-753	1923: 861-880
1892: 332-373	1900: 428-453	1908: 577-667	1916: 517-574	1924: 775-802
1893: 177-242	1901: 565-604	1909: 479-522	1917: 253-284	1925: 450-477
1894: 743-794	1902: 455-492	1910: 443-533	1918: 177-189	1926: 636-652

CHARACTER TRAINING THROUGH REGULAR CLASS-ROOM WORK

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RESPONSIBILITY OF THE CURRICULUM—In order that the high school may render proper aid and reinforcement to the home, the church, and the elementary school, the curriculum must take into account traits and ideals as well as activities and information. It is necessary, of course, for the high school to find out what activities and information ought to be emphasized in order to assist all pupils in character development. At the same time, however, it is imperative that curriculum builders determine what traits and ideals should be emphasized among adolescents in connection with activities and information. Furthermore, the subjectmatter must be so arranged that the proper traits and ideals will be given their rightful place in the classroom.

How traits and ideals may be incorporated into the curriculum—There are two methods of incorporating traits and ideals into the curriculum. The first is the indirect method which makes traits and ideals secondary to activities and information. They are used in this sense as standards for the performance of duty and the acquisition of subjectmatter which is incorporated in the curriculum.

Three steps are involved in the indirect method. First of all, each teacher makes an analysis of the activities and the subjectmatter which he teaches. This is done by outlining the operations and subjects in the textbooks in such a way as to outline the tangible results in character development. For the intangible matters in the lives of pupils, the instructor will teach them methods of ordering their lives and getting along with other pupils and members of the school. Under this plan youth will acquire certain attitudes, skills, and information.

In the second place, while the teacher is analyzing the materials at his command, he must decide upon the pupil traits and ideals to be developed in order to make the teaching process efficient. For example, the mathematics teacher will decide that the adequate mastery of his subject requires of his pupils a certain degree of accuracy, speed, neatness, industry, intelligence, and the like. These are necessary standards in the field of mathematics, and are traits and ideals which can be taught well in this subject. He may decide further that his pupils should show a certain amount of forcefulness, or helpfulness, or ambition. The history teacher may decide that for his work to be effective, the pupils must possess certain degrees of retentiveness, neatness, intelligence, love of country, honesty in reporting facts, and open-mindedness in weighing facts. To these traits and ideals, he may add forcefulness, helpfulness, ambition, etc. If accuracy is needed, accuracy exercises will be used. For industry, sufficient work will be assigned to keep the pupil busy. If intelligence is set up as an ideal, pupils will be thrown upon their own initiative.

In the third place, after the subjectmatter has been organized in this way, the teacher will see that his pupils are held to these standards until mastery is attained. This, of course, applies in the mechanical sense. When these traits and ideals are applied on the emotional level, it is the teacher's business to develop in his pupils a love for these traits and ideals, so that they will cooperate with the school in making the application of their own volition.

The second method used in incorporating traits and ideals in the curriculum is the direct method. By this method traits and ideals become central topics of consideration and discussion, and the subjectmatter of the course is the means by which these traits and ideals are developed.

The direct method involves four steps. First, the faculty of the high school makes a list of the traits and ideals which they think high school pupils should have woven into the fiber and fabric of their character. They base their selections upon what they consider to be the needs of society at its best, and upon the character of the faculty itself. The traits and ideals, thus selected, will be weak or strong according to the personality of the individual members of the faculty.

In the second place, the school must measure the ability of the pupils in these traits and ideals, in order to discover those in which the pupils are strong, as well as those in which pupils are weak. The traits and ideals in which pupils are strong become mighty dynamos of central power for developing the weak traits and ideals. If a pupil is very ambitious, this trait can be appealed to in overcoming his lack of interest or inaccuracy.

In the third place, it is possible by this method to give group instruction, in order to stimulate interest in ideals as well as to apply traits in working out proper types of action to express these standards. Biography, literature, history, the experience of other boys and girls of high school age furnish a wealth of material for class discussions. Groups may be organized to study problems of conduct. Also, conduct projects may be made invaluable to classroom work.

In the fourth place, informal curricula may be organized for individual instruction. After individual pupils have rated themselves, they are given advice to stimulate their interest in the development of traits and ideals, and aided in the application of desirable traits to practical situations. Individual instruction of this type may be made very practical, individual, and detailed.

Classroom procedure in relation to character education—The experiences, undertakings, and achievements of the classroom ought to minister to the realization of every end which the high school should accomplish. Classroom work should possess five characteristics pertaining to ethical development: (1) be meaningful, significant, and purposeful to all the pupils at the time they are engaged in the activity; (2) be socially valuable to the end that pupils may be equipped for doing successfully any legitimate thing which they may undertake; (3) be so carried on that it

appeals to the whole child, physically, mentally, morally, socially, spiritually; (4) secure thoroughness of mastery and integrity of effort on the part of every boy and girl; and (5) constitute an on-going, developing, integrating process of growth and development.

It is only through classroom activities which are significant and purposeful that the learner's efforts may be expected to be honest and sincere. The least a high school can do in its character training efforts in the classroom, is to provide learning conditions which enable pupils to be honest and sincere with themselves. This condition obtains when pupils realize that what they are doing is of value to them. It is an inalienable right of every pupil to have his personality respected by those who seek to guide his learning. To establish right character is basic to all other considerations in promoting the development of rich, righteous life in all pupils of the high school.

Not only must the classroom activities be meaningful and satisfying to the learner, but, in the second place, they should be socially valuable. They ought to be of definite life use to him at the time of mastery. The high school should exercise great care as to the experience and influences to which it permits its pupils to be subjected in the classroom. Only those activities which have a real life use, or which accord with accepted social practices and standards, should be planned or accepted by the high school as a part of the educative experiences of pupils. In this way the pupil's time is economized by the fact that it is not spent in doing things which produce anti-social effects, or that result in the acquisition of some knowledge or skill which has no life value.

Classroom activities must be so carried on as to appeal to the entire pupil nature. The procedure of assigning pupils something to be learned from books concerns the intellectual life of boys and girls mainly, and this only partially, and it falls far short of the main purpose of the classroom activities, namely, to develop character. In contrast with this formal, bookish, mechanical method is the well-tested method of procedure in which the pupils learn in much the same way that mature persons learn when working freely, or without detailed directions. Under this procedure, the members of the class go about gathering information and improving their skills in order to do well the thing for which they have accepted a responsibility. For example, they may be preparing a program for a home-room exercise, an assembly, a socialized recitation. Or they may be working out a project lesson in ancient history, or developing an exhibit of products at the conclusion of a chapter in commercial geography. Or they may be rehearsing to give a dramatic production of some masterpiece which they have studied. The concepts and ideals of accuracy, honesty, thoroughness, helpfulness, fair play, and the like, pervading such a learning situation, tend to be productive of the highest ethical effects.

The largest ethical values cannot be secured to pupils unless integrity of effort and thoroughness of mastery are secured from each and every

pupil in the class. Each pupil owes it to himself to do his work honestly and well as long as he is a member of his class. He also owes it to his classmates to do a piece of work upon which they can depend. The pupil in the classroom working cooperatively for ends of concern to himself and his group learns that he lives not unto himself alone, but in binding, far-reaching relations to his classmates.

To be of the greatest ethical value, classroom work must be cumulative in its nature. We expect a pupil to add to his language abilities from year to year as he goes through high school. We should likewise expect him to add to his habits and ideals of ethical living from year to year, and improve his ability to work and live the righteous life while he is in high school. Their ideas of duty should become clearer and deeper as they mature, and their devotion to living the righteous life should become more and more complete.

Responsibility of the classroom teacher—The devices and the technic employed by the classroom teacher are of vital importance in the matter of character training. Technic in daily teaching planning should include a definite set of habits which should be practiced faithfully. Complete details of the lesson ought to be worked out at least two days before the teaching is to take place, in order to insure detailed planning. The instructor should set up a definite, obtainable goal to be achieved by each assignment. To be effective the lesson plan should include an outline of the exact points or problems which will be assigned to the class, and the specific instructions that will be given to guide the study in preparation for the classroom work.

Good technic in conducting the recitation involves a number of important habits which should be thoroughly formed. The teacher should begin and close on time. Promptness is an important ideal in efficiency. The new study assignment should be made clear and concise. The instructor should form the habit of carrying out his detailed lesson plan. Here is a splendid opportunity for the teacher to make his influence count for character development.

Of equal importance is the technic in classroom management. The details of daily practice in looking after the physical condition of the classroom should be routinized. A daily inspection of the room with reference to temperature, ventilation, and light should be made with the least distraction possible. Furniture and equipment should be inspected daily to detect dust, markings, cuttings, or any other defects, and kept in place for the very best grouping of the class. Maps and other apparatus ought to be placed properly before the class assembles. Blackboards and the teacher's desk and cabinets should be free from distracting stimuli, and present an attractive appearance. The physical condition of pupils should be noted at once as to dress and disease, especially contagious or infectious diseases. It is essential to good work that the teacher have a well-planned seating arrangement, and that there be an accurate accounting of pupil attendance.

Technic in directing the study habits of pupils is of the greatest importance in effective classroom work. Two goals should be aimed at in supervised study: (1) there should be such mastery of subjectmatter during the teaching period under the personal direction of the teacher that definite results in the education of the learner are secured; (2) independence on the part of the pupil should be developed to the end that he is capable of directing his own study habits in working on any problem, now or in the future.

If the classroom technic is to be effective, as it should, the recitation should be socialized so as to create natural situations. Also, it is desirable to set up as many projects as possible. Two illustrations will be taken from classroom work which is being done in Forest Avenue High School at this time.

Miss Kate Hassell teaches first and second year algebra. It is thought, by many, that the socialized recitation in mathematics is well-nigh impossible. Near the beginning of each semester, Miss Hassell directs her classes in organizing for classroom activities by electing a president and a secretary who serve one week. After the first week, officers are appointed to serve one day only. The president presides over the recitation, sees that the room is in order according to the plans of technic outlined above, and appoints committees. The secretary takes the roll, places the attendance slip on the desk for the office monitor, prepares and reads the minutes, presides while the president is at the board, and may write tests on the board. There is a room committee whose duties are to put the room in order, place erasers and crayon in troughs, and regulate windows and shades on recommendation of the teacher. The purpose of this plan of organization is to teach individual responsibility for assigned work; to develop selfcontrol; to embolden the shy and timid pupil; to cultivate the critical powers; to evolve the power of selfcriticism; and to exercise the qualities of justice, honesty, courtesy, accuracy, promptness, selfreliance, independence, gratitude, humility, helpfulness, truthfulness, etc.

The method of technic is as follows: (1) the chairman is supplied with a seating-plan of the pupils; (2) to receive recognition, a pupil must rise and address the chair; (3) the chair recognizes one pupil, and allows only one pupil on the floor at a time; (4) a pupil rises to a point of objection, to a point of criticism, to a point of information; (5) a pupil expresses gratitude for correction or assistance; (6) each pupil corrects his notebook and weekly tests in recitation under supervision of teacher; (7) pupils are not coached for examinations, and are not kept in to make up unprepared work. They understand they must make good or fail; (8) no daily work is handed in, all assignments, seat work, tests, and night work are kept in notebooks; (9) notebooks are graded weekly.

General results of this plan have been highly gratifying. Boys and girls who are timid, either through nature or fear of the sound of their own voices have come to recite naturally; the boisterous have quieted down; the domineering are learning to yield; the doubtful have the cour-

age to defend their work; the slothful manifest some activity; the cheat more often is honest at the board and at his seat. The social side is further developed as pupils learn the names of their classmates, as they offer to assist the one who was absent the day before, or to offer an explanation to that one who is a little slow. Leaders are discovered and leadership developed. In the observance of some parliamentary usage respect for the rights of others is practiced. In requiring pupils to correct their own notebooks, the power of selfanalysis is fostered.

The other illustration is taken from a plan followed by J. L. Bergin, who teaches first-year history in Forest Avenue High School. The aim and purpose of the plan of technic which Mr. Bergin follows is to teach the facts and movements of history as comprehensively as possible; to stimulate and guide the imagination of the adolescent in his search after selfdiscovery; to awaken the inherent individuality and the native creative tendencies; to suggest patterns of character and citizenship, and expect corresponding behavior in the daily routine of the classroom activities.

Procedure of class organization—Two critics, known as captains, are elected for a term of six weeks, a grade-making period in the school. To be eligible to hold the office of critic, the pupil must have an average grade of at least ninety for the preceding division. The candidate must be known to the class to be pupil of character, and to possess qualities of leadership. Critics must attend school regularly, must be on time, must be neat and accurate in their work, must be enthusiastic and consistent workers. These critics, automatically nominated by the quality of the work they do, are elected by secret ballot.

The critics proceed to choose opposing sides, and divide the class into two competing groups. Selection is made on the basis of scholarship, rather than friendship, and the critics sit at the head of their respective groups. The other pupils are re-seated once a week, ranging backward in the order of the average grades. Careful effort is made not to embarrass any pupil in regard to his record; the effort is made to stimulate a desire for improvement, rather than force it through humiliation. Critics receive from one to five points additional credit on their division grades for serving their class, depending upon the leadership and efficiency displayed while discharging the duties of the office. A critic is eligible for re-election as long as his service is acceptable and his average maintained.

Election and duties of the parliamentarian—The parliamentarian must be an earnest pupil, must have a good record in deportment, and must be sincerely interested in the *esprit de corps* of the class.

This officer serves as general supervisor of the class. He runs errands for the class or teacher, if necessary. He supervises the raising of grades, cleaning of boards, etc. He also makes a daily report in regard to the general conduct of the class. The parliamentarian holds office six weeks, but may be re-elected at the will of the class. He receives from one to three points on his division grade, depending on his efficiency in office.

The duty of the critic—The chief function of the critic is clerical; he is the chief bookkeeper of the class. The critic is supplied with a ruled sheet on which he makes out his roll in alphabetical order, and on which every record made by every pupil is recorded, the instructor acts as judge, and determines the worth of the contribution, and instructs the critic to place the due credit on the record of the pupil. In this way, each and every pupil receives full credit and the teacher is relieved of any distracting bit of bookkeeping. The record is even more complete than it would be possible for a teacher to keep without some assistance. The critic is required to copy the diagram on the blackboard and to supplement it daily with complete records. Each pupil keeps his own record daily and checks it with the critic's record. In case of differences in these two records, the instructor acts as judge.

The record of the critic analyzed—Absence: if a pupil is absent, the critic records the fact.

Demerits: on the assumption that a pupil's grade is to represent not only the facts acquired during the division but is to reflect as completely as possible a general estimate of the pupils's general conduct, this column is used to record demerits assessed against him for any sort of misconduct of a non-social nature. Three demerits cancel one point of the pupil's total grade.

Times called on: each time a pupil is called on to recite, the fact is recorded in the proper column. An effort is made to call on each pupil about the same number of times each division.

Criticisms: after each recitation the class is given an opportunity to bring out any point which has been overlooked by the pupil reporting on the topic.

Reading reports: from one to ten points are given on reports gotten from any outside, authoritative source bearing on the lesson.

Projects: from one to sixty points are given to a pupil making a project, and giving a detailed report on the same. These projects must be historically correct and accurate. They must portray in wood, soap, stone, clay, etc., some phase of the life and work of the people studied.

A few typical projects are listed here to illustrate this phase of the work: a group of pre-historic animals moulded in clay; pyramids with mummy and contents of the tomb; raised maps of early cities and countries; Greek temples carved out of soap; a Greek door with key to match; Greek sculpture in clay; statutes of great Romans in clay; raised map of Rome; a Roman catapult; an early German village; implements of torture; a medieval manor; two crusading swords; an early Norse ship; and the like.

Poems: any original poem relating to the work is given due credit.

Pictures: scrapbooks, clippings, cartoons, and original pictures are encouraged.

Term contest: at the end of each term a contest of all the classes is held to determine the best project, picture, cartoon, map, and poem which

has been produced during the semester. Competent judges are procured, and small prizes are given the winners.

Examinations: since an effort is made to call on each pupil the same number of times every division, frequent tests are given to keep all pupils' preparing each day's assignment. For "pop quizzes" a device is used whereby each pupil grades his own paper, and then has it graded by a classmate and checked by the instructor in a short length of time. A special effort is also made to check by examination the pupil's opinion on the political, social, moral, philosophical, and spiritual conception involved. This is attempted through thought questions, true and false tests, and other devices.

Weekly averages: at the beginning of every week pupils are required to average their grades in the following way: credits plus examinations equals the total. Then all the points gotten under the heads of criticisms, reading reports, projects, pictures, and poems are added and divided by fifteen. This sum is added to the total for the weekly or division grade. The weekly averages are placed on the blackboard and the class is re-seated in accordance with the respective grades. In line with the policy of the principal's general staff of the school, a strenuous effort is made to encourage every pupil to better his record of the previous month or week. Pupils falling below passing averages are required to interview the teacher privately in an effort to get at the cause of failure, and find a remedy for it.

Division averages: at the end of each division the critics average the grades of all the pupils, and hand the instructor a neatly copied and complete record of all the work done by each and every member of the class. The total average for the competing sides is also arrived at, in order to ascertain the winner.

The plans of Miss Hassell and Mr. Bergin are simply used as illustrations of what is being done and can be accomplished by every teacher in Forest Avenue High School. Teachers of art, physical education, social science, occupations, home economics, journalism, the commercial subjects, English, and various other high school subjects are doing work very similar to what these two teachers are doing. Whether they follow the same plans or not, the results of each individual teacher are practically the same; they are building character among the pupils who meet them in the classroom.

CHARACTER TRAINING AS A HIGH SCHOOL PROBLEM

WALTER M. MAY, DEPUTY COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, CONCORD, N. H.

Among the purposes of secondary education, ethical character, though listed last in the seven cardinal objectives, is the chief. It is appropriate therefore that this Department of Secondary Principals of the National Education Association should give first place on its program to this, the most important purpose of the high school.

At the outset, I desire to express the opinion, based upon annual observations of the pupils in the high schools of one New England state and conferences with the heads of these schools during the last seven years, that the youth of today are as clean, wholesome and essentially sound morally as were the youth of a generation ago. Moreover, this opinion is confirmed by statements of headmasters of private schools with a nation-wide constituency, such as Alfred E. Stearns of Andover and Mather A. Abbott of Lawrenceville School. The latter in an Armistice Day address before the Rotary Club of Trenton, New Jersey, said:

The youth of the present generation, as far as I know—and I know five hundred of them very intimately—are on the way to great discoveries, have made a step toward happiness and a step toward selfgovernment far ahead of anything we had in our youth. They need very careful handling. They need all the love and affection that a man can give them, and they are going to bring this old world of ours one step nearer heaven in the end.

Moreover, statements about the increase in juvenile delinquency throughout the country have not been fortified, as far as I have been able to discover, by statistical proof. Last spring, however, the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor at Washington, published some illuminating statistics regarding juvenile delinquency. The purpose was to determine the truth of the statement that the average criminal is now younger than formerly.

This study covered delinquency rates in fourteen of the leading cities of the United States and an analysis of the age-distribution of the adult population of prisons, reformatories, jails, and workhouses from 1880 to 1923.

In nearly all of the fourteen cities the delinquency rate per 1000 children of delinquency age was found to be considerably lower in 1924 or 1925 than in 1915. Typical of this general situation in the cities studied is the record for New York whose delinquency rate per annum per thousand children dropped from 11.1 to 6.8.

Moreover, in 1910 the admission to institutions of delinquents below the age of 18, among whom were included dependent children, was 171.7 per 100,000. In 1923 the ratio was 161 per 100,000 including dependents. In 1910 the percentage of children committing such serious crimes as homicide, robbery, and burglary was 7 per 100,000, and in 1923 it had dropped to 6.8.

In 1923 only 9.4 percent of admissions to prison were of persons between 18 and 20 as compared with 9.8 in 1904, 12.1 in 1890 and 11.8 in 1880. There has been no increase in the proportion of prisoners between the ages of 21 and 24, or between 25 and 34. There was, however, a slight increase between the ages of 35 and 44. This fact prompts one writer in commenting upon this report of the Children's Bureau to raise the question whether we should not be more alarmed about wild middle age than about wild youth.

Though compelled by observation, report, and careful studies to affirm our faith in the youth of today, we know that like adults the pupils in our schools who are right need to be kept right and those who are wrong, generally a small minority, need to be set right. We know also that while there may be no proportionate increase in youthful delinquency the actual number of youthful delinquents is all too large and challenges the three institutions most concerned with developing good character in the youth, the school, the church, and the home.

This morning's program provides generously for consideration of what may be called indirect methods of character education through the regular subjects of the school and through extracurriculum activities. This apparent program emphasis is in accord with traditional practice in our schools. In this country we probably have not emphasized sufficiently the economical method of attacking the problem through systematic class and group instruction.

In the reported proceedings of the Thirteenth Annual Schoolmen's Week at the University of Pennsylvania, there appears the following statement from an address by William C. Bagley on "Education and Crime in Europe and America."

In view of the current proposal to introduce religious instruction in American schools to counteract the rising tide of crime, however, it is interesting to note the experience of France under quite the opposite policy. It is clear enough that crime can be reduced without teaching religion in public schools. Whether crime can be reduced without some form of direct and systematic ethical instruction, I do not know. We are, I think, the only great country in which neither religious instruction nor systematic, secular moral instruction is required in the schools. That we are also the only great country that exhibits mounting crime curves may be in no way related to this fact.

There seems to be, however, a growing conviction that our traditional indirect methods should be supplemented by more direct systematic procedure.

It is an interesting fact that in the 1926 Report of the Committee on Character Education of the National Education Association there is an approval of direct, systematic instruction to develop the moral judgments of children and youth through study of moral situations in the concrete. On page 26 of the report the following suggestions for work are made:

In the senior high school more direct attention may well be given to the study of problems of the moral life, both as it relates to the individual and to society and social institutions. This principle was recognized in the character education resolutions, adopted by the World Conference on Education, San Francisco, 1923, as shown by Resolution No. 4:

As to ethical instruction—That the educationists 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.

Such courses in ethics in senior high school have been in successful operation for more than a decade.

In the outline for character education in Grades I to XII, soon to be published by the New Hampshire state board of education, the recommendation for the study of professional and business codes, such as are reported in the *Annals of the American Academy of Political Science*, Vol. 101, May, 1922, is made. The following paragraph from the summary in the pamphlet, "Character Education in High Schools," issued by the New York City board of education, suggests a similar trend.

The use of section and general assemblies for instructional and inspirational work in character education; and necessarily, provision in programming for section periods long enough for this purpose.

Successful procedures in other social sciences will be serviceable in considering the materials suggested above. Informal presentation, problems, projects, class discussions, special reports and socialized recitations suggest themselves at once. Contributions of other members of the group tend to expand individual viewpoints, to clarify principles and make them more serviceable as guides of thought and action.

In addition to systematic group consideration of the ethical import of situations arising in contemporary social, economic, and political life, there will always be need for counsel and guidance of individuals.

For this necessary service of individual guidance, teachers of insight and sympathy with youth are especially needed. The number on most high school staffs qualified by aptitudes and interests for the work is not large. This places the burden upon the principal to train and develop such members of his staff as give promise of success in the work.

In addition, the principal is under obligation to have available for the use of these advisers personal data about each pupil in his school. In all of our high schools there should be much information about the health, previous school record both scholastic and social, home environment, companions, and leisure-time activities of each pupil. Some schools report also the value of periodical ratings of personality traits by their teachers for each pupil in the school. Record of traits such as trustworthiness, selfconfidence, cooperation, respect for authority, etc., should be assembled in each high school.

After the personal conference with the individual pupil and the study of all the records that any high school might reasonably be expected to have available about him, there remains the difficult task of determining the real cause of the anti-social conduct and of making specific recommendations for improvement. The counsellor needs to be especially on the watch for manifestations of such mechanisms as compensation and rationalization. Frequently misbehavior represents a determination to compensate for lack of distinction in school work by gaining notoriety through some overt act of misconduct. The following statement is as true of some pupils as of certain adults to whom it was originally applied: "Those who can not get in the limelight by ordinary means will endure incredible discomfort and martyrdom to satisfy the desire for distinction."

Fortunate is the counsellor who finds the pupil as ready to recognize his real motives as was Franklin in the following account of his experience at Block Island on his first voyage from Boston:

In my first voyage from Boston, being becalmed off Block Island, our people set about catching cod, and hauled up a great many. Hitherto, I had stuck to my resolution of not eating animal food, and on this occasion I considered, with my master Tryon, the taking of every fish as a kind of unprovoked murder, since none of them had or ever could do us any injury that might justify the slaughter. All this seemed very reasonable. But I had formerly been a great lover of fish, and when this came hot out of the frying-pan it smelt admirably well. I balanced some time between principle and inclination, till I recollected that, when the fish were opened, I saw smaller fish taken out of their stomachs; then, thought I, 'If you eat one another, I don't see why we mayn't eat you.' So I dined upon cod very heartily, and continued to eat with other people, returning only now and then occasionally to a vegetable diet. So convenient a thing it is to be a reasonable creature, since it enables one to find or make a reason for everything one has a mind to do.

There is finally the problem of enlisting the support of all members of the staff in observing carefully both in school and out the conduct of pupils subsequent to the group consideration of moral questions and the personal and intimate help given in the individual conferences. Just as the work of the teachers of spelling or grammar is undermined by failure of the teachers of other subjects to reject written work containing misspellings or ungrammatical expressions, so the efforts both direct and indirect in character training are undermined by the teacher of debating who does not hesitate to have his charges take unfair advantages of their opponents or by the athletic coach who permits his athletes to break training rules repeatedly and to resort to rough playing against opponents.

In conclusion, the youth of today are worthy of our best efforts. To enable them to gain in character, we need to employ all the methods and devices that have proven their worth, direct systematic ethical instruction in groups, sympathetic individual counsel and guidance in school work or in conduct, careful observation of individual behavior both in and out of school.

The work of character education challenges the best efforts of principals and teachers. May we, like Tennyson's Ulysses, be "strong in will to strive, to seek, to find, and not to yield."

CHARACTER TRAINING THROUGH HIGH SCHOOL STUDENT ACTIVITIES

RICE E. BROWN, PRINCIPAL OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL, EMPORIA, KANS.

Good conduct leads to good character. Good character results in good conduct. Training in right conduct is character training. Emerson has said that character is higher than intellect.

Within recent years the real value of high school student activities has come to the attention of school men and women in a marked way. The

writer of this paper chose as the subject of his master's thesis which was written several years ago, "Student Activities in the High School." When I began to search for literature on the subject, I was surprised to find that little had been written. However, at the present time one can scarcely pick up an educational paper or magazine without finding some discussion concerning student activities.

It is well known that some student activities contribute more to character training than do others. For example, all of us certainly consider the Girl Reserve and Hi-Y as outstanding in character training. But other activities also lend their influence or at least should lend their influence in character building. I believe every one present will agree with me when I say that unless an activity accomplishes some real good in the student's life, it should be abolished. If it is tearing down character rather than building it up, it deserves no place in our high schools. It would be well for all of us to carefully examine our high school student activities to see whether or not they are really contributing to the student's good.

Three or four years ago we had a certain boy in our high school who, during the Christmas vacation, was almost burned to death in a gasoline explosion. He lay in our hospital for months, in fact he could scarcely move for a year. It was necessary to do considerable skin grafting. Our students offered their skin, as did students from the two colleges located in Emporia. In fact, not only the entire high school, but the town as well became interested in this boy's case. The time passed slowly for him, since he was scarcely able to move any part of his body. Finally, at one of our Hi-Y meetings, someone suggested a radio set to help him pass away the long, tedious hours. The entire school was asked by the Hi-Y boys to contribute. A sufficient amount was contributed to purchase the material and the set was made by boys in our physics department. These boys installed the set in his room at the hospital and as a result he was able to pass away hour after hour listening to music and other features from all over the country. Thus the Hi-Y inaugurated a plan whereby the lives of a number of high school students were touched and they were able to help one of their student friends. Possibly you may wonder just how this is related to character training. If character is what one is, then character has much to do with what one does. Most certainly the students who helped in this enterprise were receiving character training. We have all heard the old adage that "actions speak louder than words." Training boys and girls how to act right is certainly character training.

Similar examples could be mentioned in the Girl Reserve work, providing a Thanksgiving dinner for the old folks at the county farm, having a Christmas tree for some of the poor children of the community, training in right conduct and thus training in character.

The responsibility of character training is laid at the doors of the public school today as it never has been before. We all know that in many homes the parents either assume no responsibility for the conduct of their children, or they have permitted their children to get entirely beyond their control.

This situation exists in far too many homes today. The school should assume its part of the responsibility in the character training of its pupils, but the homes should not expect the public school to be responsible for all of this character training. If some students would act in school like they do in their homes, they would be asked to leave school at once. I wish we could get it over to the parents that the public schools are most certainly not entirely responsible for the character training of the boys and girls. How often when high school students get into trouble outside of school hours, often during the summer vacation, the public is prone to lay the blame at the doors of the public school. The blame should be placed where it belongs—in the homes of the offenders. We must assume the responsibility that is placed upon us in the proper training of character in our high schools, but often the parents seem to think that it is the school's business today to assume the entire responsibility for the actions of high school students throughout twelve months in the year. What is needed is team work—a three-horse team: the home, the church, and the school—all working together for the good of the child, all endeavoring to give the high school boy and girl that character training which will enable him to act right at all times.

Now to get back to the student activities as aids in character training. I wonder if the advisers of student activities realize how much influence they exert over the members of the activity. Let the adviser grow careless in his or her actions and it is not long until members of the activity will be doing the same. The adviser can "make" or "break" a student activity. It behooves administrators to see that the right kind of advisers are chosen to direct the work of the activities. How often it has happened that through the carelessness of this adviser or that teacher, he or she has completely lost whatever influence there was for the character training of the students and his or her dismissal has become necessary. In my discussion of this subject time forbids to mention the part that each high school activity plays in character training. But there are two more activities which should be mentioned before closing. One is the high school assembly and the other is athletics.

The high school assembly most certainly should contribute to character building. We should endeavor to use this opportunity of placing the best before the students. I wonder how many of us can look back on our high school days and recall some assembly speaker who influenced us in right conduct—that is in character training. If we are unable to do this, that means that for some reason or other the faculty and administrators of that high school failed to utilize the high school assembly as a character training agency. Oftentimes pageants and other features in assembly carry home character training.

Just at this time athletics are probably being discussed more than ever before. In the Thanksgiving copy of our daily paper, *The Emporia Gazette*, an editorial entitled "Bye-bye Football" appeared. This article

we are sure was written by either William Allen White, owner of the paper, or his son, Bill, Jr. The Thanksgiving edition was an appropriate one for this article, since the big game of the season was to be played in Emporia on Thanksgiving afternoon between the College of Emporia and the teachers college, for the state championship. Most of the people in our town and surrounding country were interested in this game and of course were attracted by this editorial. But this editorial was not only of local importance. For several days after Thanksgiving lengthy discussions about football were found on the front pages of leading newspapers. Such men as Chancellor Lindley of Kansas University, Chancellor Brooks of Missouri University and a number of other college and university presidents located all over the country expressed their views in regard to football.

One of the charges against football, as all of you doubtless recall, was that along with this sport, in the crowd of rooters and fans, are found certain evils, such as drinking and betting, which certainly do not lead to right character training. Those who upheld football said that the good derived to the institution through football outweighed the attendant evils. The main thing which has come out of these discussions is that it does behoove us as school men and women to be on the lookout for any tendencies in athletics which are liable to break down character training, and to use our utmost influence to counteract these tendencies and bring about the real beneficial results of athletics. There is character training in athletics. All of us probably could give concrete examples of high school boys and college men who have received character training through athletics which probably they could not have received in any other way. A college man might stand on the side-line and swear, but place him on the team out on the gridiron and see what will happen to him if he continues to swear. I have come to believe that the conduct of the high school boys in athletics depends to quite an extent, I was about to say almost entirely, upon the character of the coach. Oh! for coaches of such character as Gwinn Henry, present football coach at the Missouri University, formerly coach at the College of Emporia; no swearing at the boys if they do not play to suit him, no loud "bawling out," but in a kindly way pointing out the mistakes they make and doing it in such a manner that the boys would almost die before making the same mistake over again. Is it any wonder that his boys love him and are willing to fight so hard for him?

Yes, there is character training in athletics, and the one man who is responsible for that training more than any other is the coach.

Thus, have we taken a brief glimpse of the part high school activities are playing in proper character training among our high school boys and girls. And with the home, the church and the school working together, this training will carry over into adult life and the products of our high schools, colleges, and universities will take their places in society as men and women of strong character.

HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING

CHESTER C. HAYWORTH, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BURLINGTON, N. C.

Fortunately, nature has made no two things exactly alike, least of all two human beings. It is generally enough conceded that some degree of homogeneity is desirable and necessary in the classification of pupils, yet the term is a comparative or relative one. What manner of homogeneity we should have and some of the methods for determining it will be the first consideration of this paper.

In the current issue of one of our leading educational journals is a discussion by a high school principal of the use of intelligence tests. After speaking of his own experience he says, "The fundamental principle which the evidence tends to substantiate, however, is that homogeneous grouping should be made on the basis of those traits which are not subject to change through education." Then he obligingly tells us how easily this may be done by saying that, "The mental test is probably the only measuring device, now developed, for measuring an unchangeable trait," and finally he states that, "mental tests, at present, afford the only proper basis of homogeneous grouping at our command."

In justice to the gentleman quoted, it should be said that, "the pupil's probable learning rate for academic material," is the unchangeable trait which he considers can be measured by means of the best known group intelligence tests. This is true of a large majority of children, but the exceptions are sufficient in number to warrant other bases, in addition to the finding of mental tests, for the grouping of pupils. As hard as some have tried, psychologists have as yet been unable to prove false the opinion expressed several years ago by William Hawley Smith that some people are "born long" in certain subjects or fields of thought. Many are the examples of persons, even with low I. Q.'s, who are geniuses or near geniuses either in mathematics, music, memory work, or something else. Mental ability, special aptitudes, and general classification tests often help in the discovery of special powers but they lack much of being sufficient in themselves.

Perhaps it will be well to consider intelligence tests a little further, since they are the crux around which revolve many of the differences of opinion today concerning the proper grouping of pupils. The term "general intelligence" is rather vague and we may as well admit that no one knows what it is. Some claim that mental tests measure native intelligence; others that they only measure what the person has actually learned to date and are not a reliable measure of inborn powers; still others that they have no validity at all.

Mental tests are valuable in prognosticating the rate of learning and are safe so long as their limitations are recognized and remembered. They should be used, and as a result of their use they will probably undergo almost unlimited refinement.

The physical condition of pupils constitutes another basis for consideration in grouping. Terman and others have demonstrated, contrary to popular belief, that mentally superior children are generally physically superior. However, the exceptions are of importance. Acute or chronic ailments, temporary or permanent conditions of various natures, are not infrequently decisive factors in grouping, especially in certain subjects. The stage of physiological and social development of the pupil is also sometimes worthy of consideration.

Various studies of city school systems reveal that among the bases used for the classification of pupils are the teacher's judgment, and educational age. This is as it should be. It is readily admitted that the teacher's judgment is not reliable, but it is doubtful if the time will ever come when we should dispense with it. Educational accomplishment will remain one of the desirable bases for grouping as long as continuity of content matter in various subjects is important in the learning process. This is a truism and yet it is denied by administrators holding responsible positions.

Special aptitudes and interests constitute still another of the desirable bases for grouping. These may be determined in part by mental and special aptitude tests, but supplementary aid must be furnished out of the knowledge and information of parents and by the observation and comments of the elementary grade teachers, as revealed in the permanent school records. Furthermore, consideration must be given the answers of the pupil to the usual questionnaires and his verbal expressions of choice to his special counselors. The elective system as it has been generally practiced means that parents and teachers admit to themselves that they do not know what the high school youth should study. Therefore, in their vexatious dilemma they generally turn to the youth, informing him that he has reached a new stage in life and they are going to allow him the liberty of choosing his own course of study. The result is that a large percent of the high school and college students decide they have elected the wrong course, when they discover some work is involved in the program. They then demand a change and not infrequently get it for no other reason than the one just given.

Homogeneous grouping for the academic and vocational subjects based in part on special aptitudes and common interests makes for a type of comradeship and good fellowship somewhat different from that engendered by sports and games, and yet just as desirable. This basis should also be used for grouping pupils in the elementary grades, under the head of educational guidance. Educational guidance finally eventuates into vocational guidance in the high school. There can be no clear perspective of the latter unless it is recognized as comprehended in the former.

Character may not well be used as a basis for grouping pupils, except for purposes of moral instruction. Here it should be used, for what would be the sense of dwelling upon and stressing ethical and moral standards regardless of the individual weaknesses and needs of the pupils? Fair

progress is being made in the development of character tests and doubtless something of recognized merit will be evolved. When this is accomplished and moral conditions more accurately diagnosed, then courses of moral instruction can be planned to meet the needs of homogeneous groups. The signs of the times point to the necessity for something different from what is now being done along this line. We may say that moral instruction should be incidental and diffused throughout the entire curriculum and all school activities. Nothing could be more true, yet the fact remains that things taught incidentally are too often taught accidentally. We need definite courses of moral and ethical instruction in our high schools of today, buttressed and reinforced by all the teaching of the incidental type we can get.

Will-power and ability for sustained effort, whether innate or acquired, constitute the last basis for homogeneous grouping which will be considered in this paper. It is easy to say that the teacher should so inspire the pupil and interest him in the subjectmatter that he will work up to the maximum indicated by his innate mental ability. However, this is often rendered practically impossible on account of the previous training of the pupil and the habits he has acquired.

We are interested only in that type and degree of homogeneity which will give all a fair chance and make it possible for the entire group to succeed in the pursuit of any study. It is occasionally advisable to put a pupil of average ability alongside one of superior mental heritage for the reason that the first one has other qualities which insure that he will accomplish as much as the other. In making actual decisions we are usually confronted with a condition and not a theory. What the mentally superior pupil should be able to do now, had his earlier training and the remainder of his heritage been different, does not particularly concern us in the treatment of his case in the living present. We must take all material as it comes to us and do our best with it. Elasticity in the system of transfers will make it possible to take care of marked differences in accomplishments as fast as they arise.

The main bases for grouping have now been considered. At this point it should be said that after homogeneous grouping has been effected it may be found to be a profitless device unless the technic of teaching and the curriculum have been thoroughly adjusted, with the differences in the various groups and their needs in mind. No plan, of itself, will insure the success of the scheme, whether it be the Gary plan, the Dalton plan, the Winnetka plan, the platoon system, or a combination of various plans. There has been a justifiable demand in recent years for a greater degree of individualization of instruction. Some claim for their scheme that it has achieved complete individualization of instruction. Be not deceived. It is not true, and it would be unfortunate if it were true. A proper balance between individualization and socialization in instruction is necessary. It

can be maintained by teachers of strong personalities, under helpful supervision and in various types of organization.

When we consider the extravagant claims made for some present day plans it is well to recall Pope's lines regarding government,

For forms of government let fools contest
Whate'er is best administered is best.

The best that can be said of homogeneous grouping can be summarized as follows:

First: It makes for more rapid progress in the mastery of the subjectmatter on the part of all types and groups of pupils.

Second: It does away with unfair competition. To unequally yoke a very competent pupil with a slow one is no more sensible or fair than to hitch up a Shetland pony with an eighteen hundred-pound draft horse.

Third: It creates wholesome competition, thus preventing the mentally superior from becoming indolent and conceited and the "below average" from becoming discouraged and developing a feeling of inferiority.

Fourth: It results in better discipline and character by keeping all pupils busy and conscious of progress consistent with their various abilities.

Fifth: It conserves special talent and genius by enabling the mentally superior to learn and maintain proper habits of study and work. This is a result which we should devoutly seek.

Sixth: It makes possible a sane program of vocational guidance by discovering the special talents of pupils and affording opportunity for their development. The charge has been made that homogeneous grouping is undemocratic. The opposite is true. The ideal in democracy is that all individuals shall have equal and adequate opportunities for selfdevelopment, selfexpression, and selfrealization. The aim of education is to make possible the carrying out of such a program. We, in America, see in the highest good of the individual the most satisfactory promotion of the public welfare

There are many angles to homogeneous grouping, but the weight of the evidence is in its favor.

THE NATIONAL HONOR SOCIETY AND SCHOLARSHIP

C. W. GETHMANN, PRINCIPAL, CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, OKLAHOMA CITY
OKLAHOMA

To improve scholarship is one of our major problems. We have never been able to do this merely by setting up standards, however important that is. It can't be done entirely by carefully selected courses taking in consideration the aptitudes and interests of the individual students. We have students in the high school that maintain a high standard scholarship just because they enjoy it, some others could, but don't; still others refuse to try, and some, of course, can't and don't. In order to reach those who are generally satisfied with getting by, all sorts of incentives have been tried. Rewards have been offered in the various subjects, but our experience has proved that where the number that are eligible to receive the reward is limited, only a few strive for it.

Thus the National Honor Society permitting the selection of 15 percent of the senior class has set up a reward which most students feel is worth striving for. It is a national organization. Boys and girls like to belong to an organization that is national in scope. They are just like adults in that respect and the goal is attainable for those who have ability and will use it.

Ever since we received a charter of the National Honor Society, in assembly, through the school paper, by a suitable initiation ceremony, we have tried to keep the National Honor Society before the student body as a fitting reward for excellent scholarship. In order to test out the effect of this type of publicity, I asked the present membership of the National Honor Society when they really determined to strive for membership. To my amazement about 65 percent had set that as their goal while they were still in the junior high school. The rest of them had made up their minds to become members while they were sophomores. Of course, many who set that as their goal did not attain, but have not those who have strived and failed helped themselves in the striving?

Some say that is undemocratic. If that be true, then we should have no student council, no athletic teams, no class or club officers, in fact, no contest of any kind. But life itself is a contest, and he who strives but fails, is better for the striving.

What can the National Honor Society establish as a program?—Let me quote from the initiatory ritual: "Do you promise to hold this society sacred and by your words and actions to make the other students of the Central High School regard it with respect and honor?" The answer is: "I promise." "Do you promise to do everything in your power to encourage high standards of scholarship among your fellow students?" The answer is: "I promise." "You answer well. As your knowledge of the significance of your vows becomes deeper, may your life be more abundant."

The glory of membership is a real, worthwhile incentive; but here are some positive results:

1. The honor society offers a scholarship cup each year to the class maintaining the highest scholarship average, and another to the boys' club maintaining the highest average. The boys' club to whom the cup was awarded last year claims that it will be impossible to take the cup away this year.

2. The American Association University Women is offering annually three scholarships to three deserving girls that are members of the National Honor Society.

3. Most of the members are given an opportunity to go on to college because the parents feel that since they have proved themselves to be honor students, they should continue their education.

4. Many of the members of the National Honor Society, because of their leadership qualities, are members of the student council. They have been instrumental in passing legislation that requires scholarship to accompany leadership.

Here are some of the rules:

- a. No student can hold an office in class, club, or home room, or hold a position on the staff of the weekly paper or annual unless he has passed in every subject the preceding semester.

b. No student can have a part in a play or operetta unless he presents a weekly clearance card during the weeks of practice, the same as athletes.

c. The student council eligibility committee enforces these rules rigidly.

Last year at the meeting of the North Central Association a report was made by Dean Maxwell of the University of Wyoming on the failure of freshmen in colleges of the north central territory. He showed that from 6 to 17 percent of the students failed during the first semester of their freshman year. This report showed that there was a rather large variation in the percentage of failures among the colleges. Therefore a resolution was passed to investigate the causes of the existing percentage of failures in the respective colleges and universities.

After that report I was very anxious to know if the graduates of our high school who had been members of the National Honor Society would be among those failing at colleges. In other words, where did the failures at college rank in the high school graduating class. This is what I found. Most of our graduates attended either Oklahoma City University or the University of Oklahoma. A study of the students that passed in all subjects revealed the following facts:

1. In the Oklahoma City University all but 7 of those who passed in all hours were in the upper or middle third of the high school graduating class.

2. In the University of Oklahoma all but 5 of those who passed were in the upper or middle third of the high school graduating class.

3. At Oklahoma City University 5 students made an average grade of A. All of these were in the upper seventh of the high school graduating class.

4. Twenty averaged B. Eight of these were in the upper third of the class, 8 in the middle third of the class and only 4 in the lower third of the class, and these 4 were students who had a high I. Q. but failed to apply themselves while in high school, this accounts for their high average grade in university.

5. At the University of Oklahoma 8 students made an average grade of A. Six of these were in the upper seventh of the high school graduating class and the other 2 in the upper third.

6. Thirty made an average grade of B. Fourteen of these were in the upper fourth of the graduating class, 7 in the upper third, 4 in the upper half, and only 5 in the lower fourth. Again these 5 were students of normal intelligence, but had not applied themselves very diligently while in high school.

A study of those who failed revealed several positive conclusions:

1. At Oklahoma City University 8 students failed in from 4 to 7 hours of work. None of these ranked in the upper third of the high school graduating class and five ranked in the lower 50 percent of the class, 3 in the lower third.

2. At the University of Oklahoma 12 students failed in from 3 to 17 hours of work. Nine of these 12 ranked in the lower sixth of the high school graduating class, 2 in the lower third, and only 1 in the upper third.

3. Only 13 students failed in more than one subject. Seven of these 13 had an I. Q. that was subnormal. Five of the remaining 7 were boys who had a fairly high I. Q., but who had taken from 5 to 6 years to complete the high school course, always failing in from 1 to 3 subjects each semester. Their failure in high school was due to lack of application and a desire to do efficient work and therefore their failure in the university was not surprising. In a class of 625 they ranked as follows: 554, 471, 616, 592, 543, 417, 373, 552, 586, 521, 563, 571, and 609.

A study of the success of the students attending other colleges and universities revealed the same facts:

1. A student ranking highest in her class attended Vassar College. During her freshman year she ranked in the upper 5 percent of her class.

2. Another honor student attended Yale University and made honor grades in Mathematics and English and his average was 7 percent above the average of the freshmen class at Yale University.

3. Two students attended the University of Pennsylvania. They ranked in the upper 25 percent of the high school graduating class and at the end of the first semester at University of Pennsylvania they ranked in the upper 25 percent of the freshman class of the University of Pennsylvania.

4. Three students attended the University of Michigan, 2 of whom ranked in the upper 25 percent of the graduating class of Central High School. These 2 students made an average grade of A during the first semester at the University of Michigan.

Some positive conclusions can be drawn from these facts:

1. Students making A's or B's in Central High School are very likely to make A's and B's in the university in which they enrol.

2. Students ranking in the lower third or lower fourth of the Central High School graduating class are very likely to fail in one or more subjects at the university they attend.

3. Students with a high I. Q. who ranked low in high school because of lack of application generally fail in one or more subjects at the university they attend because of continued lack of application.

There is a very positive correlation between I. Q. and high school rank and success in college. The percentage of failures at the University of Oklahoma and Oklahoma City University is higher than at other colleges because very few students ranking in the lower 25 percent of the graduating class will attempt to enrol elsewhere. Students from the lower 25 percent of the graduating class of the high school will likely not succeed in college. Since honor students have all made good at college, it is self-evident that any organization that fosters scholarship, that encourages those who have natural ability to strive for excellent scholarship is exceedingly worthwhile. This the National Honor Society has done. Therefore we should encourage the work of the National Honor Society.

THE TEACHER'S PLACE IN STUDENT ACTIVITIES

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May I call your attention to the important cog in student organization work—the adviser or sponsor. The success of every student activity depends upon the selection of a sympathetic and understanding director; one who guides and advises, rather than one who directs and bosses. There is a technic in this business of organizing and directing student activities; a technic easily mastered by some few teachers and entirely impossible of mastery by others. The teachers' attitude toward extra-curriculum activities varies (1) according to their own training and experience (2) according to their temperament (3) according to their sense of obligation to the students in their charge. It is therefore highly im-

portant to select with care the teacher who is to direct the student activities in any modern high school. Upon this teacher's shoulders must also fall the task of educating the entire faculty and winning each teacher's sympathetic support for the work. This teacher should possess a socialized viewpoint, should realize the educational possibilities of all these activities, should see in them opportunities for more direct control of the various stimuli that educate, and should regard them as means for developing desirable character reaction.

In all activity programs it is most important that the teacher refrain from taking the lead. If the organization is to be a student association it should put the students foremost, with the teacher or faculty in the background, that is, the students should hold all the offices, hold the elections, conduct the meetings, do everything that they can do. Then just what is the part of the members of the faculty? Let them cooperate, advise, and suggest. Let them be members of the student organization on equal terms with the student. This gives the student a feeling that the teachers are "with him" or a feeling of "ourness." To give aid when needed, yet not jump in and do the whole thing is quite a delicate task. It is often much easier to do the thing one's self, save time and energy, than to let the students try for themselves, make mistakes and try again. But remember we learn by doing. The just, well-balanced, well-liked teacher in the background, who holds the power of approval or veto, increases the incentive to worthy student projects. Let me state that all cannot fill such a place, but as the demand increases a greater number are becoming equal to the new task.

May I take an illustration from our school. Each year the high schools of the city compete for a loving cup given to the school displaying the best brand of sportsmanship for the year. This term sportsmanship has grown to be all inclusive with us and it now embraces much more than just the attitude and deportment of players and spectators during athletic contests. The athletic committee of our general organization suggested that we write and adopt a sportsmanship code; and that it be submitted to the judges as one of our projects in sportmanship. It was suggested by one of the committee that each pupil be asked to contribute suggestions in writing. About two thousand pupils responded. The student committee after many days of hard work succeeded in sifting the wheat from the chaff. The result was the code as given below.

A Good Sportsman

Is Courteous

On the field he does not jeer at errors; he does not cheer at the opponent's penalty; he treats them as guests, not enemies.

In school he is considerate of the faculty, of the fellow students, and of visitors.

In life he is respectful to elders and superiors; he treats the other fellow as he would be treated.

Is Modest

On the field he works for the good of the team rather than for individual honor; he will even sacrifice his own prestige for his team; he is a gracious winner.

In school he does not become conceited over his success, neither does he feel himself superior to his classmates.

In life he does not "blow" about what he is going to do; he does not boast about what he has done.

Is Generous

On the field he applauds a good play of his opponents; he gives the other fellow the benefit of the doubt.

In school he does not "knock" other schools or individuals; he appreciates another's merit.

In life he does not ridicule the man who is "down," but encourages him. He is not afraid to think for himself and to voice his opinions straightforwardly and clearly.

Is Game

On the field he plays hard; he fights though he may be already defeated; he accepts adverse decisions; he is a good loser.

In school he does his work, he keeps on working in the face of almost certain failure. He has "the vim to think straight, the pluck to act straight."

In life he does his part, however hard it may be; he accepts reverses with a smile and tries again.

Is Obedient

On the field he observes the rules of the game.

In school he observes all of the regulations.

In life he respects the civic laws and the demands of the community.

Is Fair

On the field he competes in a clean, hard-fought but friendly way; he helps an injured opponent; he has no alibis.

In school he does not waste his time nor that of the faculty; he does not copy his classmates' work; he does not receive aid from any source on his examinations.

In life he sees impartially both sides of a question; he uses no underhand methods; he is not influenced by money; he is not partial in administering justice.

All the time the adviser had remained in the background, with only a suggestion from time to time. The code belongs to two thousand pupils. It is theirs. Who dares attempt to estimate the value to these pupils of such a piece of work? Give us more teachers capable of and willing to advise and direct wisely.

CIVIC VALUES IN EXTRACURRICULUM ACTIVITIES

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The seer and prophet of an education that is evolving from our time of transition has recently written a little book of 136 pages which doubtless most of us either have read or will read soon. This little bible of educa-

tional progress sets forth with matchless clarity and power the difference between the aims of an education for a static and one for a changing social order, and in my judgment gives by far the best answer thus far rendered to that most fundamental educational question of all—"Why do we have public schools?" *Education for a Changing Civilization*, by William H. Kilpatrick, is, I believe, the most fundamental, the most significant, the most convincing, and the most prophetic book of educational discussion that it has been my good fortune to read.

Dr. Kilpatrick bases his discussion upon the changes which have come to civilization as a result of tested thought. In 1590 Galileo simultaneously dropped a one-pound and a five-pound ball from the top of the leaning tower of Pisa. Their coincident impact upon the ground produced a mental and spiritual earthquake still reverberating in the revolt of modern youth against unreasoned, although not always unreasonable, authority.

Obviously, I shall not attempt to make an adequate review of Dr. Kilpatrick's book. Some of his conclusions, however, furnish a much better basis for evaluating pupil participation in school administration and other extracurriculum activities than I have ever discovered elsewhere. He notes as growing out of tested thought a changed mental attitude, illustrated by a waning submission to unreasoned external authority; industrialization, the result of man's control of nature through modern invention—a direct application of tested thought; and democracy, "practically a fundamental demand of modern ethics." The interaction of these forces has given us a world which in its mental, moral, and social aspects is coming to parallel the revolutionary changes that have so completely transformed our physical environment.

The old purpose of education was to fit for a static social order. It taught what to think about static problems, what to do on well-defined occasions. The purpose of the new education is to develop ability to recognize new problems, the habit of thinking in terms of social welfare, including a realization of individual profit in social well-being, and skill in the cooperative activities through which a democratic social order must function.

As illustrations of the problems unsuspected in our youth but of vital present concern, we note the increasing narrowness of individual interest consequent upon vocational specialization. Specialization of work often means specialization of group contacts and unionized class jealousies and hatreds. Again, the size and complication of modern business, social, and political organization dwarf the individual. It is easy to say, "What's the use? I don't count anyway." Paradoxically, alongside a revolt against authoritarianism, the citizen finds his destiny in a so-called democracy irrevocably determined. So he washes his hands of social responsibility and if his business seems to require special favors, comes to terms with "the gang," which at least has the virtues of personality and tangibility.

Most unfortunately in many cases the potential leader abjures his civic duties and opportunities in a Pharisaical aloofness which deprives society of his guidance.

We need not, however, "go I know not whither, fetch I know not what." If we clearly recognize the problem of education and of civilization today, we can concentrate upon the development of social thinking, social conscience, and social skill. From the psychological laboratory we may redefine the learning process, and here I quote from Dr. Kilpatrick.

To learn is to acquire a way-of-behaving. A thing has been learned when, at the appropriate time, that kind of conduct can and will take place. There is an inner dynamic to learning such that the learned conduct will at the right time come forward of itself, even against considerable opposition. We readily recognize this in "bad" habits. The same thing is true in greater or less degree of all learning. With this meaning for the verb "to learn," how then does such learning take place? First, what we would learn we must practice. We learn the responses that we make. Precise exercise is necessary. These three statements, differing only in the wording, include inner attitudes and appreciations as truly as knowledge and skills.

A second rule of learning is that we do not learn everything we practice. We learn only what succeeds. To put this a little more exactly: When we try to attain an end, with some of our efforts succeeding and others failing, we learn to do the ways that succeed, we learn *not to do* the ways that fail. . . .

And what about the pupils—can they be trusted? The answer is to ask what it is we seek. Do we wish to fix in advance just what our children shall be and think, fix for them the answers they shall return to their problems? If so, then we cannot trust them. We have no assurance that they will by real thinking hit upon our answers. Some of our answers, yes. The situation that taught us will teach them. Others, no. The situation frankly viewed may teach a different story. But if we are willing to trust the situation to teach and if we wish our children to learn to think and act for themselves, we must trust them. It is only as they practice thinking and choice and responsibility for results that they can learn to think and choose and accept responsibility. Must we then keep hands off and withdraw entirely? By no means. We have to do with growing characters. We must help them grow. How much stimulation and suggestion and direction should come from us? As much as they can use wisely. And how much is that? How can we tell? The test is what is learned. If our suggestions make any child to grow in dependence on us or in aversion to us, then we are probably overdoing our active part. We should give the child a freer hand. How free? How much freedom shall we accord the child? As much as he can use wisely. And again the test is the learning that results. If the child grows selfish and increasingly decides without due regard to known pertinent facts, then something is wrong. He is not using his opportunities aright. Possibly we have not helped enough. Possibly we have helped wrongly. Each case must settle where its own fault lies; but always the test is—what is being learned. The wise teacher will know the signs. Trusting the child in the proper way is the only path to education.

From Dr. Kilpatrick's presentation of the contribution education must make to our changing civilization, from his definition of the learning process, and from his estimation of the character of our young people, the values of extracurriculum activities, particularly of pupil participation in the administration and government of our schools is obvious. It is hardly necessary to mention the social values of such activities. The

problems that confront the young people are real and vital. Upon their solution depends not only the success of the school as a scholastic institution, but also the happiness the pupils find in their daily tasks. With proper guidance they will provide a much more genuine and dynamic institutional life than can be had without their cooperation. They will readily recognize that the political responsibility of the school authorities invest in principal and teachers the veto power and will welcome from a sympathetic but firm principal the direction and restraint that he should exercise. At the same time they will not fail to detect the fraud if alleged delegation of responsibility becomes a mere device for executing autocratic decrees.

What is perhaps of greatest importance is that student participation furnishes a genuine social situation with constantly changing problems. It provides a medium for social action, for group activity, for the training of leaders and followers. The recognition of qualities of leadership, discrimination as to policies with well-studied examination of their social consequences, the presentation of various points of view, the clash of interests, the correction of mistakes—all with the interests of the group rather than of the individual as the final criterion of judgment—are essential processes in a democratic social order. In the light of these processes the curriculum material in the social studies and much of it in English takes on new meaning. The relations of pupils and faculty become cooperative, quite as often transforming the spiritual attitude of faculty as of pupils. Literally the school becomes a new institution alive with vital interests and electric with a new spiritual force.

If we learn by experiencing, and if we learn the processes by which we succeed, we are here laying the foundations for successful participation in the varied activities essential to good citizenship. It cannot be too strongly emphasized that these are democratic processes. If we were training these young people to be subjects of a despotism, our extracurriculum activity would be sadly out of place. Probably it would in the long run be fatal to our purpose. Numerous as we are finding the defects of democracy to be, a glance at the history of even the most benevolent despotisms makes us bear those ills we have rather than fly to others that we know too well. We know that the efficiency and wellbeing of democracy can rise little above the mass thinking and feeling, but we also know that, imperfect as may be its aims, all measures will be ultimately determined by what the mass of people believe to be their own interest.

The New England town meeting was the prototype of American democracy. Its popular decision to build a new bridge over Plumb Creek has expanded into the bonding of a state for \$50,000,000 for roads and the taxing of the nation to build the Panama Canal. Similarly, the village store council has expanded into the grange, the club, and the forum; and the political pamphlet into the many-voiced press with its weekly and monthly messages to all of our many-minded millions. These in turn decide the personnel of our legislative, executive, and judicial servants, and

in the long run determine the laws to be enacted, their interpretation by the courts, and their enforcement by the police agencies.

The good citizen touches life at many points, not only in the organizations through which public opinion is voiced, but also, and sometimes quite as important, in his personal contact. The breadth and influence of his personal contacts will depend, of course, very largely upon his position in the community and upon his personality. For all of these influences as well as for his political relations, the extracurriculum activities of the school are the best kind of direct preparation. In them he has learned ways of behaving, he has learned how his behavior affects other people, and in proportion to his success, he has learned the methods of personal and social contacts which will produce the results he desires.

If he has had a successful experience in extracurriculum activities, he has learned that social wellbeing affects him personally, and let us hope that in many cases he has also developed the native idealism of his youth into an altruistic concern for social welfare. Obviously the contribution of the curriculum in the social studies can help here amazingly, but without the extracurriculum activities they will lack the enacting clause which seems most likely to make the instruction effective in passing over into character and action. It seems clear, therefore, that the potential value of properly conducted extracurriculum activities may be made one of the greatest—in my opinion by far the greatest—asset of society directly creditable to the school.

This instruction has a particular significance in the high school. The best statistics available indicate that we have today in our high schools approximately four out of ten of our young people of high school age. We have them in this institution at the one time of their lives when they are most impressionable along social and civic lines. The desire to work together in groups is almost a passion. They are forming their habits of thinking as at no other time in their lives, but no other habits are so much in the foreground of their consciousness at this time as those which have to do with their relations to their kind. This is the time of all others to develop not only intelligence concerning democracy, but also a passionate devotion to the welfare of democracy and a skill in the cooperative activities through which democracy functions.

Consider again the representative character of this high school group. From them will come practically all the leaders of tomorrow. Nearly all our college students go through the American high school. It trains the vast majority of the future doctors, lawyers, preachers, teachers, editors, publicists, and leading business men—in other words, those who will be most influential in shaping public thought and action. It includes those who must form the large and more intelligent group of followers as well as the leaders. If they have learned to think, and perhaps more important, to feel, socially, if they have developed skill in democratic group activities, they will justify the enormous expense society incurs in their training, and

will effectively answer the query whether we can continue to pay the price for public secondary education.

To summarize briefly, Dr. Kilpatrick has given us in his book, *Education for a Changing Civilization*, a statement of a philosophy that emphasizes the civic value of extracurriculum activity. He has called our attention to the fact that tested thought has largely removed unreasoned external authority as a basis for action, that industrialization has brought changes that are revolutionizing our daily life and that affect profoundly our mental attitudes, that all our human relationships must increasingly assume democratic form. The keynote of the civilizations which our young people are to face is changed. Their problems cannot be foreseen. We can no more state the problems than we can give the answers to them. It therefore becomes necessary for education to prepare youth to recognize and define the problems as it meets them, and intelligently to seek their solution. He says that to learn is to acquire a way of behaving and that it is measured by successful experience.

In view of this philosophy it seems logical that the extracurriculum activities, particularly pupil participation in the administration and government of our schools, provide the changing problems of vital interest to our young people through which they may successfully acquire the mental and emotional basis for successful citizenship. If the social order in which they are to live is to be of a democratic character, its decisions will register public opinion. So far as we can see at present, the best institution through which the public opinion of the future can be directed is the public high school. Here we have a large body of the citizens who will direct the thinking of the future. They are in the school at the most significant time in their lives for determining their mental and emotional social attitudes. If through their extracurriculum activities, they learn to recognize social problems as they arise, if they can think out intelligent solutions of these problems, and skilfully apply these solutions in a democratic way, they will justify the thought and expense involved in the American public secondary school.

LITERARY APPRECIATION THROUGH CREATIVE WRITING

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Witter Bynner has said that there are three approaches to judgment of any art. The first approach he mentions is through one's likes or dislikes. Second, he says, "there is the approach of the cultured individual who tries to combine his own judgment with the majority judgment among those whom he considers his peers. . . . Third, there is the conventionalized approach of the complete academician who subdues personal judgment to the accumulated judgments of other academicians deader than he is." "The first approach," he adds, "might be called a love-letter, the second, an invitation to tea, and the third an obituary."

I have talked of this art gallery incident because it represents the kind of appreciation that I am not going to talk about when I say a few words about "literary appreciation through creative writing." It is rather the approach that Witter Bynner says might be called a "love-letter" appreciation! Love is blind to many things: mayhap to angles, shades of color, absence of all technic; but love loves the beauty it sees, even if its inexperience and simplicity may be blind to some of the homeliness that is apparent to technical critics.

This simple, untutored approach to art in any of its forms is first evident in children when they are babes-in-arms. And therein, I believe, lies the justification for emphasizing appreciation as an important part of the educator's job. And, of course, educators must justify their theories to a sometimes critical and cynical public. Let us, therefore, include here a brief justification. As I said, this untutored approach to art is first evident in babies. If it were possible to take a censorship of the mothers of all persons who constitute this audience to ascertain the first word each of you learned to say, I wager that the word "pretty" in some form or other would win out even over "papa" or "mamma." At least, the word "pretty" or "pit-ty," accompanied with an outstretched hand, would certainly be listed as one of the most-used expressions and gestures of your childhoods. And what becomes of this desire to seek beauty? It is thrust aside during the child's infancy by us elders who wish to keep dirty little hands off our neckties, or off the attractive tapestries or prints in our homes. Then, when the youngster reaches school, unattractive formulæ, theorems, and facts necessary to learn how to make a living take the center of the stage. Perhaps the desire for beauty gets a period or two a week in a drawing class. Eventually, however, this quest for beauty does find expression. But in the majority of girls it has its outlet in rouged cheeks, painted lips, calcimined necks, permanent waves, ermine coats, and expensive gowns. In a great many men—at least I have known many such—this desire to appreciate beauty consists of falling in love, and after the novelty of that wears off, the desire is expressed by some carefully selected adjectives, which—mind you—are directed against the educational institutions from which they have been graduated. They condemn their high schools and their colleges because in four or eight years these institutions did not cultivate in them a taste for what they choose vaguely to call "the finer things of life," meaning, of course, good books, music, paintings, that is to say, beauty.

Apparently, so many things have been taught to these men by rule, or formula, in short by authority, that they supposed that they could have been given a series of theorems by which they could prove or disprove the quality of beauty in any of its forms. They had not even been told of the "love-letter" approach to beauty. They were still looking for the "invitation-to-tea" formula or, better still, the "obituary" notice.

Yet these men of my acquaintance whom I have heard condemn their alma maters on this score have enjoyed a meager amount of leisure time

compared with the leisure that is to be the legacy of their children—the children who are now in the grades and high schools. The eight-hour day has displaced the twelve-hour day, the five-day week is almost upon us, and prominent American industrial leaders, more conservative than Henry Ford, have recently predicted that in the not distant future our industrial processes will be so highly developed that four hours' work a day will supply us with all material necessities.

Henry Ford says that the five-day week is merely a cold business proposition—more leisure means more time to enjoy luxuries, more motor cars, more tires, more gasoline, more wearing apparel, more food! Perhaps from the standpoint of commerce more leisure is a business proposition, but many social thinkers realize that although America is not threatened by starvation or want, it perhaps is threatened by a vast amount of leisure which may destroy us because we have not the character or culture to turn it into value. In other words, education for leisure is rapidly becoming one of America's chief needs. We still hold great ability to produce wealth in higher esteem than great ability to use it.

Now, I am not presenting these ideas as something new, or as something that may have escaped your thought or attention. I mention them merely as a justification for placing more emphasis on appreciation. Nor do I have any magic formula to present that will save us from huge commercial programs for amusement, or from competitive vulgarities in dress and housing. But I am interested in the development of literary appreciation as one means of providing a more satisfying use of leisure time. I wish also to point out the similarity between the simple, untutored approach to art—of which I have spoken—and the approach to literary appreciation through creative writing.

Let us suppose for a moment that we are high school pupils in an English class, studying poetry. Suppose our teacher were to hold up a little crimson handkerchief and ask us to write down the thoughts it suggested to us. (Suggesting a subject, I realize, is not good teaching technic, but I am merely developing an idea.) Following the teacher's suggestion, we all try. One of us produces this little thought, which, by the way, is from a 16-year-old high school girl:

You speak of me as being always gay.
Is grief, then, less than grief,
When crimson handkerchiefs are used to keep
The strained and silent tears in that I weep?
Or is an autumn leaf
Less dying, as it dies a scarlet way?

Wouldn't we all, even as high school pupils, see the superiority of that little poem to the thoughts the rest of us had jotted down?

On the other hand, suppose the teacher had handed us each a little volume of Milton, and directed us to read, or rather study, *Comus*. In eleven lines we would find these ten words: Tethys', Nereus', Carpathian, Triton, Glaucus', Leucothea's, Thetis', Sirens, Parthenopæos, Ligea's.

A contrast of no mean proportions! An exaggeration, I admit. But it serves as an example of the distorted opinions that high school students often get concerning what they are expected to believe is good poetry. I speak from experience. "Poetry?" they shout derisively, "nothing doing! That stuff is too deep for me. I never want to read any more of it. I was forced to read plenty!"

Yet poetry they or their fellow-pupils write will interest them. It can be read without a dictionary, encyclopedia, or mythology. Then they can be introduced to good modern poets who write of simple subjects in simple terms. Poets like Robert Frost are popular with high school pupils for that very reason.

Hughes Mearns has said in one of his many articles on "Creative Youth" that one reason we grownups are beginning again to notice the child as a creative artist is because we are taking a new interest in the beauty of all primitive art. Certainly the child is genuinely primitive. His creations do interest us, but what is far more important, they interest the children themselves. Perhaps it is because children are genuine primitives that they appreciate their own primitive creations. The fact itself, however, satisfies me.

I supposed until recently that these ideas were evident to teachers, but that experience had proven them unwise; and that, after all, perhaps there was something besides tradition to recommend the "classics" as the best approach to literary appreciation. (And as Hughes Mearns would add, "with the same classic result.") But not long ago I reviewed a comparatively new book on the teaching of English in high schools. The author, I suppose, must represent the opinion of a large number of teachers. And here, in a modern book on teaching methods, I found no consideration given to this idea. In fact, the author can see no value in devoting time to creative writing. He ridicules the idea; chides teachers who are trying to improve the expressive ability of their pupils, and brings one chapter of his book to an ironical close with this paragraph:

Fifty years from now the student of educational history will be puzzled to know what the schools thought they were trying to do in the first quarter of the twentieth century. His comment will run something like this: "Those teachers were not stylists—at least very few were. Why did the great majority suppose they could impart what they did not possess? They must have seen that only a small minority could achieve a graceful style. . . . Did they even flatter themselves that the minority's charm of style was due to instruction? Did teachers conceive that they were training professional authors, or were they counting on theme-writing as an enjoyment comparable to amateur painting or piano-playing. It is hard to see the similarity."

He missed the idea entirely. He confused the by-product with the product itself. Like many critics of creative education, he thought it was the product in which we are interested, instead of the process through which the child's mind develops. Hard to see the similarity! Why, even

as the amateur musician is far more likely to be capable of enthusiastic enjoyment of Rachmaninoff or Kreisler, than is the uninitiated, so is the dabbler in poetry or prose far more capable of thorough appreciation of the skill of Hardy, or James, or Edith Wharton, or Zona Gale, or Edna Millay. Certainly the fact that so many children at sometime in their lives take up the special study of at least one musical instrument is no minor factor in the popularity of good musical concerts.

The same factor is true in any other form of endeavor. Attend an ordinary vaudeville show. A gymnast performs one hair-raising stunt after another. Each stunt, to us who are uninitiated, seems as thrillingly difficult as another. Then the performer executes a twist or a turn or a flop that to us may not seem at all sensational, yet here and there throughout the audience there is wild applause. It comes from the amateur gymnasts. They have tried that trick. They know the skill it requires. That, in the simple approach to any art, is appreciation.

A most successful college English teacher with whom I am intimately acquainted uses almost exclusively the creative efforts of his students in approaching appreciation of any literary form—whether it be the essay, the short story, the news story, or poetry. His results, both in expression and appreciation, are, to say the least, unusual.

One of the most successful high school teachers of English that I know has creative writing as the central theme of her course of study. (Incidentally, she is not hampered by a set course of study that she is compelled to follow.) The chief desire of her pupils is to create a piece of writing during the year that will satisfy their own personal judgments, and also—but not important—win the approval of fellow-pupils. All phases of the course of study are merely means by which they will achieve the end. Grammar, the study of literary forms, the reading of essays, novels, poems, short stories, all are thought of in the light of their helpfulness in producing an extraordinary literary production. I checked this teacher's results in three ways: First, I read numerous essays, short stories, book reviews, and poems that her pupils had produced. There were only one or two examples of exceptional talent, but the general average of the quality of the work was far above the average quality of the manuscripts received by *The Scholastic* in the competition for the student-written numbers. Second, the librarian of the school attested to the fact that the number of pupils from this teacher's classes who used the facilities of the library was one of the joys of her work. And third, the proprietor of a book store near the school, impressed by the number of pupils who were actually buying books—and books of real literary merit, sought the reason, and found it in the work of this class devoting itself to creative writing. That's appreciation. I think you will agree that that third fact is the supreme tribute to a teacher who has "appreciation" as her goal.

STUDENT COUNSELING

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As Dr. McMurray has so forcefully brought us to see, "The greatest thing in teaching is to help students find themselves."

To succeed in this, the greatest work of the teacher, we must be prepared for the work. We must have trained counselors. We must have departments of vocational guidance through which the entire community life is studied and correlated with the students in school and those leaving school before and after graduation.

The establishment in our schools of departments of student counseling, if started on the right foundations, will certainly bring a new relationship between the student and the teacher, and the student and his work. It will enlarge the teacher's vision and increase his sympathy for the student's needs, and bring a keener sense of appreciation for the possibilities in each individual. If we have faith in our profession and faith in our school systems, we will make the product better; we will not be satisfied to send out from our schools hundreds of boys and girls who do not know what they want to do, who are not sure of their ability to render an acceptable service.

The criticism most often made against our school system is that we send boys and girls, men and women, into the world without definite preparation to do the thing for which they are fitted by nature to do. Whether this be true or not, we must admit that our schools do turn out many misfits; there are, in spite of all that we have been able to accomplish, many square pegs in round holes and many round pegs in square holes. We have not been able to help the students to find themselves in life. "Education," says Huxley, "is training the mind and will to do the things that should be done when they should be done, whether we want to do them or not." The tragedy of our educational system is that so often it fails in this very thing.

As an effort to meet this situation, there are at present a number of city systems which have established departments of student counseling, and the demand is constantly increasing. Many conscientious teachers who desire to be of service to the boys and girls, welcome every opportunity which will strengthen them for increasing usefulness. The number of paid and unpaid advisors both inside and outside of the school systems is increasing. However, though expert counsel will be rare, and errors will be common, the obligation to deal with the situation is imperative, and it is the duty of every school executive, one which we must face if we are to render the service we owe our several communities. The need is already existent; we and our school boards must face the situation.

But when we have come to the place where our school board is ready to establish a department of counseling we must go about the matter in a sane and cautious manner. We shall need many conferences with inter-

ested co-workers, with cooperating agencies, and with those who have had similar experiences.

There will doubtless be little information already available in any community that can be used, but one of the real assets of establishing the department will be the contacts made with the commercial, professional, religious, and social life of the community when collecting this needed material. If possible, this survey should be made under the direction of the person who will later be the chief counselor or head of the department. The survey, if well planned and carried out, may be used as an excellent method of educating the public on the need of student counseling.

In this connection, may I say the factor of educating the public on what we are doing in public schools has too long been neglected. Many of the criticisms which have come to us in recent years have not been due to what the public knew about our schools, but what they did not know about them. I think, therefore, that it is very important in establishing new departments of any kind that we go about the matter in a way to create the demand in the mind of the public for the thing we wish to do. Experience is a dear teacher, and I think you will agree with me that we have paid a dear price for many of the innovations in educational progress in America. If we can help the general public to formulate its ideas on the relative value of the effort and money spent in new departments, if we can secure a favorable public expression in the beginning, we will find the road much easier to travel. From the very beginning, due publicity of all activity should be given, because one of the greatest needs will be to gain complete confidence of not only the boys and girls to be served, but their parents, their teachers, and their employers.

Having assured ourselves of the need for student counseling, and having led the public to be assured of the need, our next, and perhaps our most difficult task, is that of choosing the counselor.

We cannot give this work entirely to the teachers, because their schedules are already crowded to overflowing with many of the activities which formerly belonged to the home, the church, or other outside agencies. Then, too, we are expecting, and rightfully so, that our teachers be specialists in their own work, and we have no right to place upon them a new responsibility which is in itself a profession worthy of the prepared and highly specialized worker.

The chief work to be done, after all, will have to come through the personal interview of the counselor with the individual students. Realizing this to be true, especially in the beginning, the work will be slow, and results will be hard to determine, because the chief value of the interview lies in the selfdisclosures and reactions of the student, and these do not come from formal, official, or temporary interviews. They must be friendly, intimate, and more or less continuous. For this reason, it is most desirable that no mistake be made in choosing the counselor, and service should be for as long a period as possible.

We should choose for the counselor, trained, well-equipped specialists who will work in constant cooperation with the teachers, and who will use all available data which the teachers alone, in most cases, can supply. The type of person best adapted for the position of counselor can best be determined by the character, by local conditions, and needs. It is evident that the small town or rural community needs would be quite different from those of a large city. The predominating business of the community will determine largely the type of counselor best suited for work in that community.

We realize that frequently parents and teachers who know children better than anyone else, find it difficult to advise them because it is so hard to ascertain the vocational bent of the child, and unless one knows the particular fitness or aptness of the child for a certain vocation, it is difficult to be of any assistance in the matter of selection.

Effective counseling can be done only when there is a clear understanding of student life, and a close bond of friendship existing between the counselor and the individual student. It is my opinion that the greatest asset a counselor can have is the ability to make and hold friends. The counselors whom I have known and remembered most pleasantly are those who, I believe, liked me and showed their faith in my ability to succeed. They were my friends. Thus, the factor that enters most into the work of counseling is a sympathetic understanding. This factor is concerned most with the personal relations and emotions—a warm heart, leading to a strong friendship, is a bigger thing than scientific analysis of type cases.

Not only is it most essential that the counselor know the boy or girl and his particular inclination toward certain vocations, but it is equally important that he have an intimate knowledge of what is required in the industrial, professional, and social field to which he is about to introduce a new workman.

From the very effort sincerely to meet the present need of intelligent counseling there is much good to be derived; active cooperation between the world of work and the school life, between the teacher and the employer, between the parent and the counselor cannot fail of genuine helpfulness, of corrective value and of mutual service.

I would not leave the impression with you that vocational guidance or student counseling is new. We have been doing something along this line for many years, but in a most haphazard manner. However, our approach to the problem is new. We are now attempting to apply intelligent energy to the situation, and to treat it more sanely from the business and from the human viewpoint.

Nor would I have you blame the school for the conditions which have been existent for many years, nor is any other agency to be held responsible; but in the future, we all shall rightfully be condemned if we see the need for giving assistance and the great good that may be done, and do not meet our responsibility.

In conclusion, then, may I make a plea for the establishment in our public schools of well regulated and well equipped departments of student counseling, under the direction of properly trained workers? Is it not fitting that we consider our schools the lighthouses of the nations, and the departments of counseling and guidance the beacon lights along the channels that lead to the high seas of life, and the students the ships we send forth to weather the voyage of life?

One ship sails east and another west,
With the self-same winds that blow;
It's the set of the sails and not the gales
That determine where they go.

May you, as the ships come in whose sails you have set on the sea of life, receive many gracious messages from those who have sailed from your ports, thanking you for the beacon lights you have kept burning along the channels of your shores.

PUPIL ADJUSTMENT THROUGH SUPERVISION OF GRADING

GEORGE E. DAVIS, PRINCIPAL, HIGH SCHOOL, DES MOINES, IOWA

The general subject under consideration in these discussions this afternoon is pupil adjustment. My paper will deal with a phase of supervision that I believe is related to pupil adjustment.

This audience is familiar with the various types of supervision expected of high school principals, so I shall not review these types. While we are all familiar with the various types of supervision desirable, I suppose we have all found that in actual practice all types are not afforded through the average principal, if so, not so extensively as could be desired.

In this paper, on the phase of supervision that I will discuss, I will make no mention of the number of hours per day or the number of days per week that I spend in supervision in the classroom. I have listened to one recital after another, of the number of hours that various principals spend in the classroom in supervising the work of the teacher.

While my experience has been very limited, I have found that in any meeting of principals where the subject of supervision is being discussed, everyone has high aspirations, but few are able to convince the body of principals present that the major portion of their time is spent in actual classroom supervision. While we are prone to deny the charge that we, as principals, spend the greater amount of our time in our offices doing work which the average stenographer could do, yet I believe that the details of administration consume the major portion of the time of every principal who is not above the average.

It is probable that I spend less time in classroom supervision than any other principal in the audience. I do not make this statement with any feeling of elation. Such an acknowledgment probably places me in the

lowest quartile. I suppose my case is an exaggerated case of the principal who allows the details of administration to cause him to degenerate into a mere office boy. But having stated that the amount of time I spend in classroom supervision is the minimum, it follows that I am immensely interested in any type of supervision which can be done with a minimum expenditure of time with maximum results; hence, my attempts to explain a type of supervision with which we are experimenting.

In matters of discipline, the principal has had the final authority in most cases. There has probably been too great a tendency on the part of teachers to refer disciplinary matters to the principal. What is true of discipline has been true of some other phases of school management. In most instances in a high school with an enrolment of between four and five hundred, which is the size of our high school, all school publicity, to which I am inclined to think we have paid too little attention, has been left to the principal.

In some instances, at least, there is evidence of the fact that the high school principal has been anxious to gather unto himself all the lines of control possible with a subsequent detriment to the whole school. But even in those cases where the principal has set himself up as a sort of czar, my belief is that investigation would show that in those as well as in other schools, there is one thing over which the principal has little, if any, supervision. I refer to the grades that are given to individual pupils in various subjects.

It seems to me that the following statements relating generally to grading will be accepted as true:

1. The ability of classes will vary from year to year
2. Some teachers have a habit of only receiving answers worded according to their preconceived ideas, as unchangeable as the laws of the Medes and Persians
3. Some teachers will raise the grades of a pupil because the pupil complains that he should have received a better grade
4. Some teachers take the stand that no pupil can do good work for them the first few months of school; that is, they grade low to show parents and others how poor the work of the teacher before them was
5. Some teachers give grades according to their liking or disliking of a certain pupil.

If the above statements are true, then it would seem to be highly desirable for the principal to have some supervision over the grading of individual pupils.

I am aware of the fact that it is a quite common practice for principals to call for a distribution of grades from individual teachers with the idea of securing a distribution that in the main follows a normal distribution curve. But how much effort has been spent to determine whether or not the individual pupil has been given a fair grade? In the grading of the individual pupil, has not the teacher had absolute authority? Has the principal had any supervision over this phase of grading? Is it not true that the teacher has been absolute czar in this situation? Has the principal

had anything to do with determining whether or not the teacher's judgment has been correct?

I have found some evidence that the attempt we are making to supervise the grades given to individuals by teachers is not a pioneer movement. In a recent article appearing in *The High School Teacher*, reference is made to a number of principals who are using standard tests as a supervisory aid in the determining of grades. I, therefore, do not claim the honor of being the first to conceive of this device, nor have we been able as yet to reach any conclusion which would place us in an impregnable position. It is my purpose in this paper only to call attention to an investigation which we are conducting, and to raise certain questions regarding our present practice, in which the teacher has the entire determining of grades, and regarding a possible practice in which the principal might have some sort of supervision over the grading through the use of standard tests.

Briefly, our procedure has been as follows:

Two weeks before the end of the semester of the school year 1925 and 1926, we asked each teacher to submit a list of pupils who would undoubtedly be failures. We also asked the teachers to submit a list of pupils who would in all probability fail. Each teacher was then asked to prepare an examination for those pupils for whom they predicted failure. Instead of giving this examination, which was a comprehensive examination of two hours' duration, to only those who were indicated as probable failures, the examination was given to the entire class. Time does not permit of my reporting for each subject the reliability of the teacher's judgment, as disclosed by these examinations, when the examination grades were compared with the list of predicted failures. Suffice it to say that considerable unreliability appears when the grading of many of those appearing on the predicted failure list placed them among those making a passing grade, and when others whose names were not on the list were not among those making a passing grade.

In addition to this, standard tests were given in various subjects. These standard tests were chosen with a view to using those tests which most nearly tested over material covered in the work of the class. We are aware that certain standard tests could not be used advantageously because they did not test closely enough the work which the class had covered. It is possible that tests devised by ourselves might be used to better advantage than standard tests. However, recognizing the undesirable features of standard tests in some subjects, they were used in this study. I shall not take time to list the names of the standard tests, but I shall indicate the subjects in which the standard testing was done. They are as follows: Geometry; biology; English, in which a composition test, reading examination, penmanship test and English form test were given; American history, two standard tests in Latin; European history, algebra, sewing, physics and chemistry. In all, there were about 2800 different standard test papers. After these standard tests were given, some significant findings were made.

I shall only mention a few to indicate the type of thing discovered. Among the biology people, we found one individual who had a standard test score on the Ruch-Cossman biology test of forty. This individual was given a failing grade. Our grading system runs from A to F. There was one of the biology students whose standard score was 37, who received a final grade of A, one whose standard score was 32 who received a final grade of B plus. Two who got a standard score of 37 and 35 received a final grade of B, and so on. Altogether, there were 31 pupils in this subject who received a standard score of less than 40 whose grades ranged between A and D. Do you not think it probable that this individual with a standard score of 40 who received a failing grade was done an injustice? Is it not further probable that others in the distribution were done an injustice?

In a Latin class, one individual received a score on the Ulman-Kirby test of 19, and was given a failing grade. There were two individuals who had a final grade of C— whose standard test scores were 17 and 11; one who had a grade of C plus whose standard test score was 11; one had a grade of B— whose standard score was 19; one whose final grade was A whose standard test score was only 21. Do you not think it probable that the individual who had a standard test score of 19 and who received a failing grade should have had his case reviewed? Continued samplings would show similar findings.

At the beginning of this semester in our physics class a comprehensive test, not a standard test, was given to all physics pupils at the beginning of the semester. At this time the scores on this test ranged from 10 to 100. In January, or at the end of the same semester, the same test was given and the scores ranged from 41 to 196. The individual whose score on this paper at the beginning of the semester was 20, had a score at the end of the semester of 77. The one whose score was 100 at the beginning of the semester had a score of 105 at the end of the semester. Both of these individuals received a final grade of C. The one whose score at the end of the semester was 196 had progressed from a score of 84 to 194, whereas the one who had a high score of 100 had only progressed to 105 at the end of the semester. Should not the amount of progress each one makes be a factor entering into the determining of the grade finally given? Should not progress evidenced rather than approach to an absolute standard, be the determining factor in the grading of a pupil?

This year we have repeated the standard test program in the subjects in which they were given at the end of the last year. These standard tests will act as a prognosis for this semester, and the scores made at the beginning of the semester will be compared with those made at the end of the semester, when the standard tests will again be repeated.

At the end of the third semester of this program, there will be between eight and nine thousand standard test scores on which we hope to base some conclusions, following which conclusions we hope to materially alter our present practice relating to determining of individual grades.

I wish it to be understood that we are not using this standard test pro-

gram as a sort of detective agency to discover criminal tendencies on the part of teachers. We expect the teacher to consult with the principal as to her grading in the light of the results of the standard test program.

Conclusion: The above procedure as followed in our testing program seems to us to be desirable for:

1. It helps the teacher to recognize that the ability of classes will vary from year to year, recognizing which she will be better able to determine individual grades,
2. It removes the possibility of a poor grade being given a pupil because of poor wording of an examination paper written by the pupil,
3. It will tend to eliminate changing of grades by teachers because of complaints of pupils,
4. It will make the grading fair and impersonal.

TEACHING PUPILS HOW TO STUDY

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We are all creatures of habit. We are bundles of habits—good, bad; helpful, weakening; stress-relieving, burdensome, and so forth. Whether we succeed or fail in life depends upon what sort of habits we have acquired or developed. An individual pupil is living just as really in high school as he does when he leaves, is graduated, or goes to college, or out into the busy, everyday world. If the pupil early acquires the habit of succeeding, he will continue to succeed in school and in later life—be it in college, in the home, or in the business world.

In order that a pupil may be taught to study most successfully in high school, the speaker feels that certain factors or conditions must be arranged so as to combine or work together. The pupils must be in the right mood to receive instructions. Nearly 100 percent are in this condition. The exceptions are those who have had a taste of earning their own spending money and who are reluctant to return to school. Their interests are often elsewhere. Employers for the summer are often to blame as they selfishly try to induce some of these summer workers to stay, forgetting that the foundation of the pupils will bar them from advancing rapidly and surely to the highest places in the organization. Many pupils feel that their families need their help, and hence their attention and interests are not on their work.

Many pupils come to high school from the traditional 8-4 or similar type of school and the things they have been getting the last year or so have not been inspiring or challenging and their attitude must be changed before they are going to make the satisfactory pupils they ought and can be. Other factors tend to make pupils of such a nature that their school-work will suffer.

The speaker believes that pupils should have general and specific instructions on how to study. With this in mind, all pupils entering the school where the speaker is the principal are given a series of lessons on how to study. The lessons or instructions are handled in two ways—through the child's home room teachers in the home rooms and through the classroom teachers.

One of the first questions with which the groups deal is that of learning what the high school has to offer. A good high school handbook of the local school is here invaluable. This leads naturally to the topic of going through high school and later on into college or business.

A copy of the outline for the second lesson in this course is given below:

I. Fundamental requirement for effective study

Motive or Aim. (This may be termed enthusiasm, interest, etc.)

- A. General—consider the value of studying and mastering your present tasks—reference to something permanent, something for your future.
- B. Specific—consider the value of study for the present—for mastering the particular subjects in your course.
- C. Questions for discussion
 - 1. What feeling always follows success—in anything you try?
 - 2. What feeling always follows failure—to do anything you try?

II. Things helpful and necessary for *beginning* effective study

- A. Definite assignment book—with regular order for keeping assignments.
- B. Notes (notebook or assignment book, A) with helps or suggestions for class work.
- C. (1) If in study-hall at school—decide on what particular subject you are going to study and what part of the assignment you aim to cover during this period.
 - (2) If studying at home—decide what subjects to be studied, and the time that may be allowed to each.
- D. Feel an interest in getting started to work.
- E. Feel that whatever is assigned you to do is something which you can do, and which you are going to do.

III. Things to be avoided from the start: (especially in home-study)

- A. Irregular time for study.
- B. Postponing time for study by indulging in other things which you would rather do.
- C. Being satisfied with (1) looking merely at the first part of the assignment; (2) doing just enough to “get by” at recitation period.
- D. Allowing yourself to be distracted by other things, after you have once begun studying.
- E. Stopping (“quitting”) as soon as you strike something difficult.

Every pupil coming to our high school is given a copy of the “Study Suggestions” which have been worked out by a committee of the teachers. These suggestions are printed on gummed paper and are to be pasted on the first inside cover of the assignment book used for general assignments. We suggest that a pupil use a pocket-size looseleaf notebook for an assignment book. These “Study Suggestions” are as follows:

Study Suggestions

- 1. Find out how to keep yourself in good physical condition by forming correct habits of eating, sleeping, and recreation.
- 2. Make up your mind that you can, if you will. The moment you say, “I can’t,” or, “I am not interested,” you prevent your mind from working and make success impossible.

3. Take pains to try to understand your assignment. Take notes in a definite assignment (note) book.

4. Follow your definite plans of a time and a place for study and shut out of your mind everything except your lesson.

a. If possible, study the assignment immediately after the recitation, or review the lesson briefly just before the recitation.

5. Do individual study, form your own judgments, and apply for help only when you have to.

6. Give most time and attention to weakest points.

7. Talk over your work at home and apply as much as possible, and as soon as possible, the facts you are learning to present-day conditions.

8. Get rid of the idea that you are working for the teacher or "working the teacher," and decide to invest time and energy that will bring you interest.

The speaker believes that pupils need help in budgeting or arranging the time at their disposal so that they may use it economically. The home-room teacher, rather than the classroom teacher who would oftentimes give too much time to her subject or subjects in making a time-schedule, should help the pupil early in the term to make a study schedule for every pupil who is under her charge in the home room. We have used the following form in our school. It is simple, short, and contains a pledge for the pupils to try to meet or live up to:

Study Program

Little Rock Senior High School

TIME	RECITE	TIME	STUDY
.....			
.....			
.....			
.....			
.....			
.....			
.....			

HOME STUDY

TIME	STUDY	TIME	STUDY
.....			
.....			

In order that I may use the time at my disposal to the best advantage and so become a better citizen, I shall try to adhere to the schedule shown above.

.....Pupil

Approved by:

.....Parent

.....Teacher

There should be frequent checking to see that pupils are adhering to the study schedule after it has been made out. It is not enough to have a plan. One should try to follow the plan. The parent, the pupil, and the teacher are partners and each should be honest with the others.

The great burden of teaching the pupils how to study devolves upon the classroom teacher. The speaker is a thorough believer in directed study and feels that the big job of the teacher is teaching a pupil how to study—secure data, weigh it, cull it, draw conclusions, and act upon those conclusions, and not the hearing of lessons where facts are given back as learned without making them the pupil's own. If the school periods may be long enough that at least 30 minutes or 50 percent of the time of a 60 minute or longer period may be used in directed study, the opportunity for helping the pupils to learn how to study is greater. Give us good teachers who know when to help, how to direct, when to leave the pupil alone to work out his problems and the chance of success of the pupils sent out will be much greater than they will be with teachers who are lesson-hearers and rapid-fire questioners only who give the pupil no time to think. It takes time to think.

If a teacher is to help the pupil become independent of her, she must develop a technic in teaching pupils to study. This technic will be general for suggestions and help that will cover everything as for the home-room teacher with home-room group. It will be specialized for her specific subject or subjects she is teaching. The teacher should have lessons that are purely and simply "study-lessons" for the real purpose of showing the pupils how to study. The lesson assignments should be of a nature that pupils will know how to attack the problems that have been assigned them. The teacher must also know how to give individual help and guidance. Because of the matter of homogeneous grouping, we should find that the problem should be simpler because she has not so many different types in the same classes, although no two pupils are alike. Suggestions that will be helpful to a normal group will not fit a slow-moving group. Happy is the child who has a teacher who sees his problems and can help him with them.

Lessons in teaching a child how to study, be it in the home-room group or in the class-recitation group, should bring the teacher to see more clearly some of the problems of the child and the home. The parents and the teacher should get closer together than before and special difficulties because of early diseases, such difficulties as bad eyesight, defective hearing, and the like, may be corrected and the child saved to society as a useful and happy citizen if he learns to succeed by the development of habits that make for success instead of failure, if he learns to save time, energy, and health.

We are creatures of habit. Let us make these habits those that make for success—habits of honest, happy work, time and energy saving through lessons that are the most worthwhile, the ones that may be hardest at first, those that we think the pupil should have learned before he comes to us, and did not, those that are the ones he will use in becoming a success or a failure—lessons in learning how to study, to work, to forge ahead, to reach heights not otherwise in sight. The challenge has come to us. Will we succeed or fail?

PUPIL ADJUSTMENT IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

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There is no problem of greater importance in the administration of a modern secondary school than that of effecting a successful adjustment between pupil and school.

High schools have changed very markedly in recent years. The small homogeneous group of pupils preparing for college has been changed to a large, heterogeneous group seeking profitable education for adolescents. This change in pupil personnel has necessitated sweeping changes in the secondary school and its methods of administration. It now attempts to serve all pupils of high-school age who seek to avail themselves of its opportunities. It recognizes that pupils of adolescent years cannot be turned loose to shift for themselves in a school environment which requires numerous adjustments without responsible and competent supervision and guidance.

The failure of the high school to render a better accounting for its pupil personnel is due very largely to the fact that its methods of diagnosis have been inefficient and unscientific. Too many administrative officers have no adequate conception of the processes of diagnostic study and its relative importance in high-school administration.

If the causes of pupil failure within a given school are found to be very largely institutional in character, then the school must diagnose its shortcomings and make the readjustments required. On the other hand, if the causes of failure rest with the individual pupil, it becomes the responsibility of the school to develop methods of diagnostic study and to provide as far as possible for remedial work.

The diagnostic study of maladjusted pupils is no playtime affair; neither is it a job which can be entrusted to people without professional training and special qualifications. It requires knowledge, technic, and skill. This means that the diagnostician must possess case knowledge regarding the individual pupils he is called upon to treat, must be able quickly to discover symptoms and to trace them to their casual sources; and must be able to advise the corrective or remedial treatment which the case requires.

The case method is new in education, but its technic is virtually the same as in other fields in which it has been extensively applied. It always centers about two important problems, namely, diagnostic study, and remedial treatment. In medicine, for example, in which the case method has been highly perfected, diagnosis involves two steps: (1) the systematic study of the symptoms and signs of disease by interrogation and examination of the patient; and (2) the interpretation of the information collected. Every patient is always regarded as a case within himself. It may be evident to a physician, when he first sees a patient, that the case is analogous to other cases which have come into his experience, whether in professional

study or in practice, but he is not content to make a diagnosis by inference or to prescribe treatment until he has interrogated the patient regarding the present symptoms; studied the patient by the four cardinal methods of qualitative diagnosis, namely, inspection, palpation, percussion, and auscultation; and supplemented his judgment by clinical measurements and the patient's previous medical history. In troublesome cases the family history is carefully scrutinized, laboratory examination of the patient is called for, chemical analyses are performed, bacteriological tests are resorted to, and Röntgen-ray observations are required.

Educational diagnosis is the process of collecting, analyzing, and evaluating educational facts with the purpose of determining their bearing on the future treatment of the case. It is a process with which entirely too few high-school principals are familiar. As long as they are unable to perform it with a degree of reliability approximating that with which, for example, a physician is able to diagnose his patients, education can scarcely claim to be a science.

The methods of educational diagnosis are not difficult, but they require a background of professional training and experience, which merely "serving time" in education does not develop. The diagnostician must study the child as well as the subject-matter to be taught. He must accustom himself to the making of appraisals of the progress of pupils, must become keen in sensing the conditions which lead to maladjustment and failure, and must acquire skill in tracing symptoms to their causes. Unless he develops the abilities mentioned he will fail as a diagnostician.

In the diagnostic study of a problem pupil the first prerequisite is an accurate appraisal of the individual's educational status. If nothing has been done previously to ascertain the status of the pupil as a subject for education, a real educational emergency exists. If, on the other hand, the determination of educational status is made a part of the admission procedure, the diagnostician has a known point of beginning in the study of the case.

It is not always possible to obtain a full case history of a pupil at the time of admission to school, but an effort should be made to assemble all of the personal and educational information possible to secure. The parents of high-school pupils may be asked to answer orally or in writing questions pertaining to physical growth, health history, family history, and the developmental history of their children in school. The questions which should be asked are such that they need not be considered impertinent when it is known that the school requires full knowledge of the pupil in order to render to him its greatest service. If the data are required as a matter of admission procedure, the school is enabled thereby to know its pupils better from the beginning and to render more intelligent service.

The personality of an individual is the resultant of the various forces both hereditary and environmental which have operated on him since he became a conscious being. This being true, it is impossible adequately to interpret an individual's behavior without knowledge of the dominant in-

fluences which have contributed to his character. The school must, therefore, probe into the past experience of its pupils for causative factors or be content merely to temporize with symptoms when emergencies arise.

At the present time the means of determining mental status are developed to a degree of perfection which will enable any teacher or administrative officer to appraise the mental ability of a pupil reasonably accurately. The group intelligence test enables one to examine children in groups, to determine mental weakness or strength, and to predict the prospects of failure or success in certain lines of school work with some degree of certainty.

It is not wise, however, to draw conclusions from point scores or transmuted scores. The character of the pupil's responses to the test material should be carefully studied. For example, did the pupil work rapidly and make few mistakes? Did he work rapidly and make many errors? Did he work slowly and make few mistakes? Did he work slowly and make many errors? What kind of mistakes did he make? Were they caused by carelessness? Were they due to lack of knowledge or to lack of understanding of principles? The mental status of the pupil will be much better understood when the teacher knows the answers to the foregoing questions.

The following example will illustrate the value of the general intelligence test in the educational guidance of pupils. Pupil A had been badly maladjusted during his first year in high school. He managed to pass one subject out of three. He was regarded by his teachers as mentally immature and decidedly subnormal. His work at the beginning of the second year was even more unsatisfactory than during the first. Inasmuch as his home conditions were good and he was declared by a physician to be in fit physical condition for school, mental examination was decided upon as a means of determining his mental status. Accordingly, he was given the Terman group test of mental ability for Grades 7 to 12, Form B, along with the other pupils of the school. His reactions were carefully observed during the period of the examination. He worked consistently and with a high degree of concentration. His point score was 185 out of a possible 220, which, when transmuted into mental age, gave him a maturity of 2 years and 6 months beyond his chronological age, and an intelligence quotient of 116.

From a study of the test results, it was noted that Pupil A finished four of the ten tests in the allotted time. Three were finished with the exception of two questions which were omitted in one test and one question omitted in each of two other tests. He failed to complete three of the tests in the required time. From his performance on the series as a whole, it was discovered that he could begin work quickly without floundering and was able to continue work with a high degree of concentration in spite of the frequent interruptions made necessary by the short time limits of the different tests of the series. He made only ten errors in the examination, or an average of one error per test. Such errors as were made did not signify any mental disability or deviation from the normal.

Analysis of his responses to the different tests of the series showed that in exercises which involved logical selection, analogies, and the rearrangement of mixed sentences he reacted more slowly and deliberately, but not less accurately than in the other tests. He displayed keen power of discrimination, accurate mathematical reasoning, and a wide range of information. His reactions to the examination as a whole revealed a well-balanced mind, considerably above the average in inherent power, and without evident disabilities.

From the administration of the mental examination it was ascertained that Pupil A's maladjustment was not caused by mental immaturity as had been suspected by his instructors. Indeed, he was a better than average mental prospect for secondary education. He had not been carrying on at the level of his ability. Some other cause was responsible for his maladjustment. Subsequently, the real cause of his difficulties was discovered and remedied, but from the time the results of his mental appraisal were known to pupil and instructors, the character of his work began to change for the better.

It is not sufficient merely to determine the mental ability of the pupil. It must also be known how he uses the ability he possesses in the various fields of school work. Achievement tests in the different high-school subjects enable the diagnostician to appraise the degree of skill or the extent of basic knowledge of pupils along different lines. With the knowledge of individuals thus obtained, the materials of instruction may be varied or the method of teaching may be modified to provide for individual needs.

For example, one or more standard reading tests may be given at the beginning of the term to the pupils of a given class or school. By comparing the scores of the pupils with the standards of their grade or grades, an appraisal of reading status can be obtained; weakness or strength discovered; individual or class needs determined; corrective or remedial work planned. Without an appraisal of reading status, it would not be possible to give the pupils educational guidance in the development and use of this most important power which the school seeks to develop. General assignments in reading or blanket prescriptions for remedial work could not possibly meet the needs of the individuals of any group. It is only when the reading status of the pupils as individuals is definitely known by the person who presumes to direct, that progress can be intelligently directed.

Prior to the opening of school each year, the pupils who are entering the university high school for the first time are required to take a series of 22 achievement tests, the results of which are turned over to the departments concerned for analytical study. In English, for example, a series of five usage tests are administered for the purpose of ascertaining the status of the pupils in English usage. If an individual's power to use English correctly in written work is low he is scheduled for the usage course his first semester in school; if average or high he is placed in appropriate sections of literature, subject to the condition that he maintain a satisfactory

standard of English usage in written work in all subjects. Failure to produce satisfactory written work regularly is at first penalized by returning the work to the pupil for re-writing. Continued failure to measure up to the standards of the school in written work places the pupil in the usage section at the beginning of the second semester.

Similarly in the other subjects of instruction, the determination of the achievement status of the pupil at the time the teacher receives him for instruction is imperative. When the achievement status of a pupil in a given subject is known, his progress can be directed intelligently from the known point. Goals can be projected toward which he can work. Progress can be measured from day to day or semester to semester. Guidance can be given by the instructor with greater certainty and education thus becomes a matter of science, not a chance result.

In educational diagnosis, a search for causes is made when symptoms of maladjustment are discovered. One or all of the following methods may be tried:

1. The pupil is observed at work. The observer notes the pupil's habits of work, the character of his attention and application, the quality of his written work, and the character of his oral work. If weak or strong points are found they are noted and are observed further. A general notion of the success to be expected of the pupil with the kind of habits of work employed is arrived at and checked with the character of work actually accomplished. If a reliable determination of the pupil's education status has been made and his previous educational history is known, it is frequently possible to trace the symptom to cause and to make an accurate diagnosis.

2. Failing to find the cause of maladjustment by the previous method, the pupil may be asked to describe in his own way the conditions which trouble him. If he can be induced to diagnose himself, he will likely take greater interest in removing the cause of his present difficulty. In case the pupil is unable to define the cause of his difficulty, he may be asked to repeat to the observer step by step the method of his work in order that through the oral tracing the cause of the trouble may be discovered.

3. If either of the foregoing methods fails to result in a diagnosis, special tests are administered, the results analyzed, the whole educational history of the pupil examined, strength and weakness noted, relationships determined between the different bodies of information, further tests made if necessary to throw light on specific problems; in brief, a case history is assembled. This procedure usually results in a diagnosis, although it may require a considerable period of time.

The successful adjustment of the hypothetical case under discussion will depend on the ability of the administration of the school to carry out the supplemental remedial program advised simultaneously with the efforts of the instructors to develop more effective habits of study and a wiser distribution of the student's time. In this connection it should be pointed out that remedial treatment is invariably an individual rather than a class problem. It must be so conceived by those who undertake it, and it must be planned on the basis of definite case knowledge. To do otherwise is to waste both the pupil's and the teacher's time.

I have tried to show that the secondary school must prepare to diagnose accurately and to treat scientifically the educational maladjustments of its

varying pupil personnel. It need not hesitate to undertake this important responsibility, for the trails of progress in related contributing sciences are well marked and the practical contributions are plentiful. Systematic case study points the way, and the administrator must learn to assemble the important facts in the developmental history of his pupils, to record what goes on in his school, to measure the quality and quantity of performance, to diagnose the needs of individuals, and to adapt the means of education at his disposal to the realization of its ends. Through such educational service pupils are adjusted to school. It is a service which the high school of today and tomorrow must render if it is to have the confidence of those who support it and who entrust their children to its care.

THE CHALLENGE TO THE MODERN CITIZEN AND HOW OUR SCHOOLS MAY HELP HIM MEET IT—ABRIDGED

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For reasons which I take it are obvious, I shall not attempt to deal with the minutiae of this problem. This would be a task for the combined efforts of all of our scientific students of social life working for all time to come. I shall limit my paper to a brief outline of four characteristics which I believe modern life is demanding of the individual, characteristics which can be acquired but which are not by any means adequately developed at this time. Since they are needed, learnable; and not adequately possessed, they constitute a special challenge to the profession of education. The needs stated in terms of character traits desired in the modern citizen are:

1. A social consciousness
2. The attitude of adaptability to change
3. The habit of scientific thinking
4. The appreciation of knowledge and leadership.

I shall discuss these in the order stated. I shall then have the temerity to suggest a rather sweeping reorganization of school procedures to meet these needs with special reference to the high school situation.

A social consciousness—It seems that our problem here is due largely to the rapid change that has occurred in the nature of our society. Having rapidly developed from that situation in which the individual lived in comparative isolation to our urbanized civilization which in turn is interrelated the world over, we carry habits and attitudes of mind which were workable in the old order into a new order to which they are antithetical. We continually meet the citizen who wants to have the material advantages of modern life but who is unwilling to depart from the philosophy and behavior of the individualism of the good old days.

This to me represents a problem in education. If we want our schools to produce the type of citizen who is most worthwhile in modern life he must be the type of citizen who sees life in the whole, one who makes no separation between his own individual life and that of society at large, but

sees both as one unified, integrated process. Just as a fish cannot thrive in water that is poison to its essential nature, so the human being cannot live best in a social medium that is poisoned with narrow views and all the characteristics that are found in the person who lives in a small world. Social consciousness as a common attitude of mind is, I believe, so poorly developed today as to constitute one of the big needs that we must meet through our process of education.

The attitude of adaptability to change—The second need listed, adaptability to change, seems to be one of the hardest characteristics for an individual to acquire. There seems to be innate in every person a tendency to settle into a life of routine, a life which has been reduced to the level of automatic performance which requires no thinking. Such an individual becomes a drag upon society for social life is dynamic.

In the business world it is made very clear that the individual who does not change with the times does not succeed. He becomes worse than no good in the economic situation—he becomes a liability. Society has to stand the loss which he represents. But how is it with regard to other phases of our total life?

It is probably more serious for an individual to be static in his religious, political, educational, and other social modes of behavior than to be unadaptable to new conditions in the business world. In education, such a person insists upon the pursuit of educational objectives which have little, if any, significance for present-day life.

I hesitate to say much on the subject of religion though since life is unified, educators have a right to discuss all important phases of life. I need only to refer to the controversies that are going on in the field of religion today between those who see in our new life bigger and broader religious concepts, concepts which are applicable to modern life and absolutely necessary as a means of giving it soundness and worth, and on the other hand those who hold to religious tenets typical of the dogmatic, tyrannical, ignorant life of the Middle Ages. Our changing life we hope is also a growing life, and if this be true it is only natural that those who are growing with it should have bigger, more comprehensive, deeper, and more valuable religious concepts than the world has ever known before.

I insist that one of the greatest of human needs which we have to meet in education at this time is the problem of giving the individual that insight into the nature of life which causes him not only to accept but to relish a philosophy of life for himself individually which is adapted to any change that may occur.

The habit of scientific thinking—The third need on my list, scientific thinking, is a characteristic that I believe is entirely too lacking among our people today. Just what do we mean by it? I prefer the simplest kind of a definition for, after all, scientific thinking is a simple process. We mean by it, still speaking in general terms, just plain common sense. It is straight thinking.¹ As Dr. John Dewey has stated it, a disposition to face facts

¹ Reconstruction in Philosophy by John Dewey, p. 140.

and to begin with facts is the first characteristic of thinking. Then we must connect facts with other facts through the observance of cause and effect.

So much for what we mean by scientific thinking. The question pertinent to this paper is: How much of this kind of thinking characterizes our public today? It is difficult to say, but there is certainly much evidence of the lack of it. In order to support this statement I shall briefly refer to some illustrations which I assume have come under the observation of all.

We hear a great deal today about a crime wave. Many writers and speakers of the alarmist and sensational types make very strong statements to our public about the crime wave. Generally the second step in this tirade, although sometimes it is the first, is to connect most of the wrong behavior of today with our young people. It is interesting to go back over one's own experience in listening to these people and try to pick out one who began his discussion with a consideration of facts. If one does this, one will find that most of them have not gone to the trouble of looking up any facts whatsoever. Recently, in an effort to check up on this, I decided to do some reading from the specialists in the field of criminology. While one will find investigations here and there, each one of which has revealed certain facts that ought to be considered in relation to all other facts, yet there is no body of facts relative to crime which by a process of scientific thinking would lead anyone to the conclusion that we have a crime wave. Much less is there a body of facts which would lead anyone to the conclusion that our young people are worse than they used to be. In truth, the facts that are available indicate, though they do not prove, an improvement all around. I was very much interested in the exploitation of one investigator¹ who decided that she would go over the files of two of the largest newspapers of this country for the last fifty years in order to see if those papers were giving a greater proportion of their reading space to crime news today as compared to fifty years ago. The papers are frequently blamed for the alleged crime wave on account of the space they give to crime. As far as I know, this position has not been substantiated by any study of facts. This particular investigator found that these two metropolitan papers which she considered reasonably typical were giving slightly over half as much of their reading space to crime today as they were fifty years ago, speaking in terms of percentage. This sort of study would be necessary on a wider scale were we to draw any conclusions as to whether newspapers are giving relatively more or less space to crime than formerly. But how many of us withhold our judgments until we have a sound factual basis for them?

In politics, what percent of our citizens reason scientifically? What percent get the facts in the first place and then reason from cause to effect? I am reminded of the story of the faithful soul who was asked if he was

¹ Spectacular Aspects of Crime in Relation to the Crime Wave, by Hon. Ellen C. Potter, Secretary of Welfare, Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, May, 1926.

going to vote for Bryan when Bryan was running for the presidency for the third time. "Certainly, I am going to vote for Bryan," he said indignantly. "I voted for him twice and we have had good times ever since." In this field, this is about as close as even prominent people come, in the main, to an accurate reasoning from cause to effect. The tariff is good for one line of business, therefore it is good for every line of business, including the farmer. No discrimination is made in the thinking of our citizens on economic issues which get wrapped up in partisan politics. It occurs to me that we do not have a good sign relative to the existence of scientific thinking when large percentages of our population automatically inherit their political and religious faiths.

Educational theories are accepted and widely used without an examination of facts and without an effort to connect cause with effect.

One could go on at great length in making observations of the lack of scientific thinking on the part of our citizenship and yet our schools exist for the purpose of correcting such defects.

The appreciation of knowledge and leadership—The appreciation of knowledge and how this bears upon the selection of leaders, I have stated as the fourth need in our present situation. Democracy has been severely criticized because of its failure to respect expert leadership. No doubt there are arguments on both sides as to whether such a defect actually exists, but it is the position of this paper that there is too much truth back of the criticism. No doubt progress has been made in the attitude that the people take toward various types of experts, but it is still true that our thinking is very crude upon this question. Every school man knows that it is characteristic of the man on the street to think that he knows how school systems should be administered. There is a certain definite disrespect for trained leadership in education. People put their money into banks which are not administered by trained bankers, and I need not relate the result. All kinds of quackery in the field of treatment for disease flourishes among our people. Few people want the political scientist in political office. One could go on at great length with such examples, but time requires that I turn abruptly to the fifth division of my paper.

As stated in the beginning, I shall try to make a few brief suggestions as to how school education should be reconstructed to meet the needs here set forth.

Suggested reconstructions for the school program in consideration of the foregoing discussion—I shall limit myself to suggestions as to points of view and general methods of procedure that we must take if we are to put our program of school education upon a basis that will meet the demands that I have tried to describe. I shall begin with the last one first, namely, the problem of developing an appreciation of knowledge and leadership.

It is here necessary to use the term "leadership" in a broad sense. To proceed directly to the meaning that I have in mind for it, let me say that a leader is any person who definitely contributes a value or a set of

values to the use of others. He is a leader to the extent that he contributes values to others which they can use without having to work them out for themselves. Again using terms in the broad sense, we can speak of leaders and followers as respectively producers and consumers. A few people produce poetry, a large number consume it. The same is true with regard to music, all of the fine arts, and all of our inventions that give us our material values.

For whom is our school program, particularly the high school, organized—the consumer or the producer? My answer to this question is that it is organized primarily and almost exclusively for the producer and this notwithstanding the fact that most of the life of any student who goes through the high school is the life of the consumer. As I said in the beginning, I cannot go very far into this, but let us examine each course of study offered in the high school and see what the point of view back of it really is. Let us ask ourselves this general question: Are highly specialized courses consistent with the idea of the education of consumers? Is it not true that departmental teaching, unless most thorough precautions to the contrary are taken, tends in the direction of highly specialized teaching which is the type appropriate to the training of specialists in production? It should be kept in mind all of the time that the terms “production,” “consumption,” “producer,” “consumer,” “leader,” “follower,” are being used in the broad sense.

Consider a typical course in physics. Is it not clearly implied in such a course that those who take it are to become specialists in physics? Is not this true in the other science courses such as chemistry, biology, and the like? Let us go to the English department and there we run into the old story that we teach literature as if the boys and girls in our high school literature classes were to become poets, novelists, expert producers in the field. We even teach history as if our main job were to produce historians. Likewise, we teach Latin and the modern foreign languages as if the typical citizen were to be a linguist. Mathematics is taught as if everyone were to be a mathematician. Naturally, all courses that are immediately for the purpose of preparing for vocations are on this basis, but where in the high school do we find a broad, comprehensive, synthesized program that will give any individual a unified view of the civilization in which he must live?

I do not in the least believe that we should depart from highly specialized courses. I affirm most emphatically that it would be the extreme of stupidity for us to fail to give the most thorough-going of specialized training in order that we might have efficient producers in all lines of worthy activity. What I am trying to say is that as a foundation for this, as that which will constitute most of the life of any individual, we should have a broad program rather than a specialized one. By a broad program I mean one made up of the essential contributions that are now available from all of the important phases of life.

To get at this, probably our first tendency should be in the direction of

synthesized courses of study made up of the important findings in the various fields of life. The consumer should not think of science merely in terms of physics, chemistry, biology, or any other "ology."

But further, the organization of these general, generalized, integrated courses by subjectmatter fields would not yet represent a unified education. Each field would have to be related to the life situation or situations in which it functions. So we should probably get to a program based on life situations, the study of each situation calling for an examination of the fields of knowledge in order to see what each might contribute. Life is made up of situations. By relating a bit of special knowledge to a life situation we see its importance to life. Hence our appreciation of it and those who produce it.

But again further, let us not forget that this broad¹ program would need to be paralleled or followed by a program of intensive courses or specialized training. It is obvious that we must have ever better trained specialists or leaders. Nothing is here being advanced contrary to that idea. On the other hand, for reasons that any educationist should be able to think of immediately, a higher type of intensive, specialized education should emerge from the background provided by the broad program followed by all.

It is unnecessary for me to make an extended application of this proposed reconstruction to the remaining three needs that I have discussed in this paper. I shall conclude rather abruptly by a brief reference to each.

Scientific thinking under this program would have a better chance of emerging through the process of generalization. It is a matter of common observation that the present program of specialized courses in science has not produced the scientific attitude of mind even among those who have become specialists in the various fields of science.

Who will claim that a course in chemistry makes one's views on the race question perceptibly less prejudiced? We teach about the same program in science in the south as in the north, but has that program perceptibly developed impersonal, scientific thinking on this question in either the north or the south? Someone may say that it is the function of the social scientist to deal with such problems as the race question, political issues, and the like, and it may be agreed that that is his special function. I believe that the social scientist is on the ascendency, but he stands very much in the same position in the face of our modern prejudices as did Galileo in his time when he was forced upon pain of death to retract his statement that the earth was round and moved. The interesting thing about this to me is that, as far as I have observed, nobody is more intolerant toward the social scientist than the physical scientist. This further convinces me that we can never develop the scientific attitude of mind in general through the study of a particular science or field of science. Such a specialized process may serve the purpose for the exceptional few who will be able to generalize from the insight given them by one good, inten-

¹ The term "broad" is here being used to mean comprehensive with regard to the essential contributions made by the various important fields of learning.

sive course in science, but for the large number it will be necessary to present a program that shows definitely the workings of the scientific method in all of the important fields of life. By thus adding to the scope of the individual's observation of the workings of the scientific method and the results that it gets in every field, it should be possible to develop on the part of most people an appreciation of such a method throughout all of life.

It follows that the appreciation of knowledge, how it has evolved, how it is still evolving, and an appreciation of the scientific method, would continually disclose the fact of perpetual change. As someone has put it, nothing is permanent except change. This would become a controlling point of view in the citizen's philosophy of life and thereby the way would be cleared for social growth and development to move straight ahead, as contrasted to the present medley of spurts and reactions, with all of their attendant evils.

Likewise, the interdependence of all life would be observed and appreciated. This would produce the socialized attitude of mind stated as one of the four needs discussed in this paper. The brotherhood of man would become a scientific fact in contrast to its all too common status as a vague, meaningless sentimentalism.

PROBLEMS CONCERNING THE STATE COURSE OF STUDY

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The American public school is an agency organized in the various states to train the youth of the nation in such manner that in their maturity they will be desirable citizens. If this agency functions properly; if it justifies the financial expenditure necessary for its maintenance, there must be some centralized authority which, acting for the state, will direct and correlate the work in such manner as to attain the various objectives.

Some of the problems for solution are those involved in deciding upon the proper subjectmatter, the minimum and maximum time to be devoted to certain subjects, or even topics as subdivisions of subjects, the adaptation of directions to the ability and preparation of teachers, the varying opportunity of students to use laboratories and to consult libraries, and the inequality of length of school terms.

If the population of the state is homogeneous and the occupations of the people are generally similar, the problems of differentiation will be lessened, but if the state is large and has various interests, it is exceedingly difficult to arrange a state course of study that will be sufficiently flexible to produce the highest degree of efficiency.

The last quarter of a century has witnessed remarkable development of the vocational institutions of learning since public education of the masses has induced the great throngs of young people to aspire to higher education. The influence of the World War and the general prosperity of the country

have greatly increased high school enrolment, and if the state shall meet her obligation of educating all the children of all the people or of providing equal educational opportunity which is essential in a democracy, there must be a reversal of the old order resulting in a large degree of flexibility in the requirements of the state course of study.

The first great problem then is setting up minimum essentials, and its solution will depend upon the cooperation of the faculties of the higher institutions with those who are connected with our secondary schools. So long as certain members of the faculties of the higher institutions sneer at vocational work in the high schools, and so long as some members of high school faculties neglect the fundamentals of English and mathematics and history and natural sciences, saying nothing of adequate preparation in foreign languages, and give the students only a smattering of home economics, manual training, and commercial subjects, there will be lack of thoroughness, and large numbers of those graduated from the secondary schools will fail to meet reasonable requirements of any institution of higher learning whether it be of the humanistic or the vocational type.

While the state should be concerned in the efficiency of a system of public education which includes all phases from the free kindergarten to the university, it is also intensely concerned in the preparation for citizenship of those who drop out of the system from whatever cause, either from economic reasons or intellectual limitations.

We are all familiar with the seven objectives of secondary education which have had such influence upon courses of study during the past ten years. The committee which made this report has exerted an unparalleled influence on the education of the American citizen and no state in the Union in preparing its course of study would ignore the topics suggested.

We may not agree that the arrangement of topics is in the order of their importance, but from the standpoint of the state in the preparation for citizenship, health takes high rank. The prosperity of a commonwealth depends largely upon the ability of the individual citizen to produce at least as much as he consumes so that he will not be a burden on the social order. The problem here is to present topics in hygiene and sanitation and disease prevention in such manner as to secure the best results with the least objection from those who do not fully endorse the program. The state should require thorough physical training without emphasis upon athletics. Certainly, a sound mind in a sound body is desirable for good citizenship.

A thorough knowledge of the fundamentals of an education should be included in minimum essentials. While this should be required in the course of study of the elementary schools, for proficiency in writing, spelling, reading, numbers, etc., depends upon drill work during the memory stage of development, these subjects should not be neglected in a high school course of study. Vocational guidance should have its place, for good citizenship demands proper attitude toward labor. It is here that

the student who leaves the secondary school without further training receives untold benefit.

Is the state interested in the training for the worthy use of leisure time? The problem of how much attention is to be paid to appreciation of art, and of music—those cultural subjects that will enable the individual to rise above the coarser things of life and enjoy his leisure time—should demand most serious thought. Fifty years ago, the state was not concerned in this problem. The shortening of the hours of labor, the universal use of modern means of communication and transportation, the wonderful opportunities for influencing the thought of the public by radio, cheap literature, and moving pictures demands that the state emphasize the cultural subjects in the course of study.

The social sciences in their relationship to civic duties should have careful consideration. Loyalty to the government expressed in a practical manner by obedience to law and recognized authority should occupy a large place in the scheme set forth by the state.

The building of character is probably the most important function of public education. With right principles instilled into the youth of the nation, the ideals of individuals will cause crime to decrease and world relationships will be determined according to the principles of justice as exemplified by the Golden Rule.

Shall the course of study be constructed independent of the trend of popular textbooks? In the nation-wide study of the curriculum, authors and publishers of textbooks have had great influence. Popular books on the market have a tendency to maintain a *status quo* in curriculum making, and this is probably the most effective argument in any state against the uniformity of textbooks. But frequently authors of certain popular texts have served on nation-wide committees and their reports, it goes without saying, do no harm to the presentation of the subjectmatter in their own texts. The enterprising publisher points with pride to the fact that the textbook of a well-known author conforms to the recommendations of the very learned and esoteric committee but very ingeniously fails to call attention to the fact that the author was a member of the committee.

The problems which have been presented deal with the selection and presentation of the subjectmatter; let us now consider questions bearing upon administration. Varied conditions relative to length of term and homogeneity of interest and population require adjustment of the course of study. The village high school of two or three years should place greater emphasis on certain subjects related to the life of the community than the city high school of four years does on the same subjects. The junior high school organization in our larger cities can rarely adapt its work to the requirements of the state, and if it does, it becomes a segregation of grades and not a real junior high school. Rigid standardization hinders progress, and one of the most perplexing problems in setting up a state course of study is to provide for sufficient flexibility to encourage initiative and

originality without which the sources of knowledge become stagnant pools rather than living fountains.

The best modern pedagogical thought opposes a slavish subservience to a state course of study. It should be a guide to the teacher followed more closely by the unprepared and inexperienced but suggestive only to the expert professional teacher who is a specialist in his field. To the latter, it should be a means of keeping his feet upon the ground and giving him proper perspective of his own subject in relation to those of other members of the faculty.

The problems concerning the state course of study cannot be solved by any one person. They deserve the best thought of the college professors of education and the skilled teachers who have had practical experience in the various fields represented. In their solution, the main objective of good citizenship must be kept in mind; provision should be made for such flexibility as will recognize the needs of the subnormal; for those who are forced to have a part-time or evening program although yet of educable age. The state is responsible for such children to the same degree as those who attend school regularly. They are citizens, and a democracy makes no class distinctions.

There are many problems of curriculum-making which time forbids discussing, such as placement of subjects in the various years; the content of grades relative to factual material and the emphasis to be placed upon skills and the importance of projects. May we close with this quotation from Harold Rugg of Teachers College, Columbia University:

Curriculum making demands the cooperation of several specialists. Such matters as length of class exercise, size of classes, arrangement of school programs, range of individual differences, library facilities, laboratory and shop equipment, etc.—each is important. The day is past in which a single individual—be he professor, teacher, administrator, psychologist, sociologist, or research specialist of whatever brand—can encompass all of these tasks singlehanded.

REVISING THE CURRICULUM

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There are demands made upon public school administrators, school boards, superintendents, principals, and teachers, to increase and revise the present high school training for our young people to develop more effectively a citizenship for a changing civilization. New inventions, the application of science to modern life, machine production, specialization in industries and professions, difficult problems in democratic government, especially in cities, the critical attitudes of individuals, and the waning of respect for autocratic authority in religion, morals, and law, promise quick social changes for our young people to face. The philosophy of change is the essential element in curriculum construction. A bewildering mass of organized subjectmatter for social studies, a philosophy that we must have schools of life where learning must be connected with

purposeful, worthwhile activities, old prejudices to be removed, suggest that both curriculum and method must be constructed on the dynamic principle of change. The schools must become a place where life experiences go on. All this, and more, will call for changes in school equipment, textbooks, management, method, and objectives. Continuous curriculum revision is perhaps the best method of keeping a modern high school from lagging in a growing world. The traditional school of yesterday will not meet the modern demands of tomorrow.

The object of this paper is to suggest methods of attack in revising a high school curriculum and to attempt to answer the question, "How shall a program of revision be organized which will result in the best possible course of study?"

The experiment which I shall discuss originated in a school system with the usual advantages and handicaps of a small southern city of 35,000 population. Briefly stated, the conditions were as follows:

Six years ago, (a) the system was behind with its building program. The buildings were overcrowded and antiquated, and courses of study were, for this reason, reduced to bare essentials in subjectmatter.

(b) Socially the city public schools had been neglected because of private school domination.

(c) The course of study was of the formal, obsolete, college-preparatory type.

(d) Taxes were inadequate, so there was a deficit in the treasury.

(e) Teachers were poorly paid and many were poorly prepared.

(f) The school board was in ill-repute and school affairs rundown in general.

In less than five years, conditions have been reversed. An extensive building program has been completed. More support has been gained from townspeople. The course of study has been strengthened. Taxes and money have been provided and better teachers have been employed. The school board has adopted the liberal policy of employing experts in school supervision and management. Thus the time is ripe for some constructive, progressive movements for improvement in instruction and subjectmatter. Many mistakes have been made in the old system and many will be made, perhaps, in the name of educational principles, but it is clear that curriculum research has advanced to the place where its results cannot be ignored by those who would draft a truly modern course of study.

Curriculum revision should be impressed upon school boards and communities as a major duty. Small appropriations from school funds should be made each year. Four or five hundred dollars a year and part of the time of some of the interested teachers is not too much for such important work.

There are four ways to go about the task of the revision of the course of study. First, the "scissors-and-paste-pot" method of selecting something because some good school has it. Copies of curricula from numbers of cities are selected and the best, as judged by some executive, is put into the hands of teachers to teach. This method usually proves heartless and unteachable.

Second, specialists are paid to write a model curriculum. This has the disadvantages of the first, and the cost is usually prohibitive for small school systems with limited funds.

Third, local committees are set to work on the task. This is the best plan of the three, if expert supervision can be had as the work progresses.

Fourth, a combination of specialists and local talent is ideal. This prevents overemphasis on individual subjects, and directs inexperienced curriculum makers in the technic of the latest methods employed. It also checks novices from making vain efforts to explore in fields of research. It aids them to profit by proven investigations. There is no need to start at the beginning, but direction is needed to find the good in this field of knowledge.

It is my purpose in this paper, therefore, to suggest a plan of procedure and record some outcomes which are noticed in one system which has adopted this fourth plan.

As a preparatory foundation for this work on curriculum revision, one year was given to education of the principals, supervisors, and heads of departments to an attitude of mind to undertake the problem. The chief duty of the principal is to supervise his teachers. Usually his time is consumed with petty details about the school. A good project for this problem was a study of the question of budgeting the time of the supervisory staff, which resulted inevitably in a conscious attempt to modernize the curriculum.

When the supervisory staff, made up of the superintendent, assistant superintendent, supervisors of special subjects, heads of departments, both white and colored, began to see the need of revising the curriculum, expert advice was sought. As a result of this movement a steering committee was organized. This was made up of an expert in the field of curriculum study, an expert in the field of tests and measurements, an expert in secondary education, an expert in elementary education, the superintendent and assistant superintendent of schools.

The supervisors in the special subjects formed a local substeering committee. It was their duty to furnish special help when called upon and they were subject to the call of the local subjectmatter committees.

At the beginning of the second year, subjectmatter committees were formed. Service on these committees was purely voluntary. No provision had been made for extra pay or extra time off from other school duties up to this time. Each committee was made up of people interested in that particular subject. They organized, elected a chairman, surveyed materials available in their respective fields, made assignments to members to read and report on, and met with the steering committee when called.

The best way to revise the high school curriculum is to start in the first grade of the elementary school. The "gap" between the high school and the grammar school will not be bridged unless revision starts in the early grades. The local subjectmatter committees are made up of teachers

from the first grade through the high school. In the organization of the committees, the teachers chose the grade or section on which they wished to work. Primary, elementary, and high school teachers should see the whole field, not a section of it. This is possible only where every grade is represented on every committee.

The committees named were as follows: (a) aims of education; (b) English; (c) social science; (d) foreign languages; (e) natural science; (f) mathematics; (g) commercial subjects; (h) music; (i) art; (j) industrial arts; (k) home arts; (l) health and physical training; (m) extra-curriculum activities.

The second year, teachers read widely to set up general objectives in each subject.

During the third year of this curriculum project, specific objectives by grades, in each subject, had been set up, subjectmatter selected, correlations pointed out, materials to be used indicated, and method to be employed suggested.

A form for the use of the various committees was developed by a group of classroom teachers, representing each grade, with the help of the steering committee. This form was tried out by a teacher in each school, who discussed it with the teachers in that building. It was then revised and put into final form.

All subjectmatter committees sent in their report, by grades, on this uniform blank. To date, we have on hand, from the various committees, sufficient material to form the basis of the course of study. These reports, as they are completed, are being submitted to subjectmatter experts to check on the content of the subjectmatter proposed.

It is not necessary to go back to Adam to begin this work. The committees are making use of the professional library which is made up of the best courses of study and books on curriculum construction and method, using adaptable material for the local course of study.

Grade committees will take the subjectmatter committee reports and articulate them into lateral units. It is then our purpose to put these subjectmatter committee reports and the reports of the grade committees into the hands of four people, one from the early elementary grades, one from the intermediate grades, one from the junior high school, and one from the senior high school. These coordinators will see the subjectmatter as a whole, and organize the course of study into a unified whole from the first grade through the high school. This work will be done under the direction of the steering committee.

A careful record is being kept of all units of work developed in the schools this year, showing the outcomes in skills, knowledges, attitudes, and habits. These records, also, will be turned over to the grade committees and the coordinators, and the most desirable units incorporated into the course of study.

By the beginning of the fourth year of the experiment, certain units

in each grade will have been selected and put into the course for the purpose of selecting the best units. Outcomes will be checked against subjectmatter that has been suggested for each grade. Gradually, by trying out and testing from year to year, the best units to be used in each grade will be found. Each year units will be withdrawn and new units which come up will be tried and checked against the units which are more or less constant, until a decision is reached as to which would be of greatest value in the course of study. In this way we expect to determine (a) what units to teach, (b) grade placement, and (c) sequence of units.

Children who have come through a program in the grades which has caused them to grow in initiative, resourcefulness, and ability to think and evaluate, will not fit very readily into a formal high school program. It is to be expected that a course of study organized around units of work in the grades will project the same idea into the high school where each year's work may be organized around a central theme, as, for example, in the last year, "Problems of a Modern Democracy." The core of the course may be based on this theme and various electives will grow out of it to take care of the pupil's particular interests. This will take care of individual differences and at the same time the constants in the course of study will safeguard college entrance requirements.

In the past, the high school course of study has been influenced largely by the demands of the college. The next step seems to be to build on what the elementary schools are sending the high school and help the child continue to grow in his ability to deal with real life situations.

When should an administrator begin to revise the high school curriculum? Now. How long a period should be set for this revision? Any number of years, but not less than twelve.

The points of attack should be the first grade, the fourth grade, the sixth grade, or beginning of junior high school, and the ninth grade, or the beginning of the senior high school. We need not throw aside everything we have learned and start anew, but gradually grow into a more serviceable organization for promoting modern citizenship in our high schools. We should work fast enough on our problem to keep pace with the changing conception of education and slow enough to prevent our throwing overboard things that are good. We should start in the first grade and work through to the completion of the high school, measuring the results obtained by this group and strengthening wherever possible before and after this group.

The junior high school has no history, is surrounded by no prejudices, and is free to work out any purpose for which it may be established. In the *Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*, just off the press, 59 public school administrators and 20 college specialists listed 15 special purposes of the junior high school. Fifty-four out of the 59 public school administrators (or 91.5 percent) stated that one of the special purposes of the junior high school is meeting individual differences of pupils, enabling pupils to follow the lines of their interest and ability.

Nineteen out of 20 college specialists (or 98 percent) also stated this as a special purpose of the junior high school. This seems to be, therefore, one of the main reasons for its being. If we are going to collect from several grade schools all pupils of a certain age, and call them junior high school pupils, we ought to have some reason for it. We are sure to make serious mistakes if we allow "interest and ability" to mean a line of least resistance for pupils. A junior high school should be a place to make a wise choice for later school courses and life work, but it should also offer definite opportunity for the choices. We ought to decide early what the core of the curriculum is to be.

The early grades of the junior high school should be enriched by adding more and newer subjectmatter than is possible in the grades, but this subjectmatter should be required until the boy and girl can choose wisely from the courses of electives which are offered in the senior high school. There is no particular advantage in housing the junior high school in a separate building from a senior high school group, but a five-year high school allows pupils all the special privileges of both a junior and a senior high school. For small southern cities and rural communities, a five-year high school seems best, where we have a constant course of study, made up of many knowledges and skills in the lower grades, and a freely elective curriculum in the upper grades.

Longer periods a day for recitations, fewer periods per week for some subjects, and more courses of study for every child, seems to be the tendency in our community. This would provide specific training as to needs. When we come to abilities of pupils, we could make the proper adjustments by grouping as to ability, and offering opportunity classes for the exceptionally bright and the hopelessly backward in any subject, but the constants in the course of study would be required of all pupils.

The following results have been noted in the three years of our experiment in curriculum construction: (1) Teachers are more professionally minded; more teachers are granted leave of absence for further study; extension work takes on definite meaning. (2) Type teachers are developed in many grades. These aid in supervision by furnishing examples of good teaching. (3) Supervision becomes more effective, and professional libraries are constantly necessary and in use. (4) By placing value on merit, the experiment aids in making teaching more humane. (5) Curriculum revision takes time and convictions. (6) It is not necessarily a costly project, if use is made of local university professors for the steering committee.

One of the most important things in this curriculum revision plan is the steering committee, composed of Thomas Alexander, of Teachers College, chairman and director of the experiment; M. R. Trabue, of the University of North Carolina, whose duty it is to tell us how to measure and interpret the results obtained; Lucy Gage, Peabody College, advisor in the field of early elementary education, the superintendent and assistant superintendent.

EXPLORATION IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

EUGENE S. BRIGGS, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OKMULGEE, OKLA.

According to the authors of the "Sacred Seven," "Education should develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby that individual will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society towards ever nobler ends." Exploration is the medium through which the individual finds that place.

Exploration is, according to the great majority of those who have studied intensively the junior high school field, one of the outstanding, if not the most important objective of the junior high school. In fact, this particular phase has been stressed to the extent that it is apparent that any school that fails definitely to provide for exploration has no right to be called a junior high school.

When we realize that 96 or 97 out of every 100 members of this democracy never reach the portals of higher learning, and that 4 out of every 5 fail even to persist in high school, we are compelled to recognize the fact that we must create in each junior high school boy and girl, while we have them, an ability to adjust themselves to the work-a-day program of the world.

In the minds of many men and women today, there is a latent feeling of regret because they feel that they have chosen the wrong program in life. While they do not charge this directly to any particular agency or institution, still there is the unexpressed feeling lurking in the background that the school could have and should have helped them early in their careers, to ascertain, to some extent at least, their own interests and abilities. They do feel that the school should have revealed to them the major fields of human activity in such a way that they would have found a place for happy service.

In order that this paper be not overcome with ideals and theories, and further that it may offer a reasonable program for the organization and administration of any school capable of becoming a junior high school, attention is called to the system that has been developed and is now in operation in Okmulgee, a progressive city of 30,000 population.

Twenty-eight finding and broadening courses are offered. These courses are nine weeks and eighteen weeks in length. They offer a sampling, as it were, of the various fields of activity. They are called finding and broadening for two reasons: "Finding" because, in the opinion of those who have studied them throughout the experimental period since their organization eight years ago, they assist materially in finding the new courses to be taken in high school and which likely will be continued in finding his life work. "Broadening" because they enrich the experiences; college. In many instances they have materially assisted the individual in extend the interests and broaden the sympathies of those who follow through. Each course has for its initial objective the cross-sectioning of one major field of activity.

Before any course of study is developed or curriculum built, it is necessary that certain well-defined aims be recognized and outlined. The following aims for the exploratory courses are offered:

1. To acquaint the pupil, by a try-out or a sampling process, with the possibilities in the vocational fields of activity.
2. To offer a choice of future work, through a glimpse at the represented typical cross-sections of the major fields of activity, to explain the more advanced situation, and to show the possibilities if the pupil will but persist in school.
3. To acquaint the pupil, through a previewing procedure, with the specialized secondary school courses.
4. To give the pupil, through reliable experience, an estimate of his educational adaptabilities early in his career.
5. To present only material in itself worthwhile to the extent pursued and entirely justifiable from a pedagogical standpoint.

Attention is directed to the fact that not all finding and broadening courses are courses in industrial work, as is sometimes wrongfully supposed and advocated by some. It is just as necessary to give the boy an idea of the demands made upon one by the legal or medical profession as it is to introduce him to the desirable and distasteful offerings of the machine shop. The following list of finding and broadening courses are given in Okmulgee:

<i>Preparatory Class</i>	<i>Subfreshman Class</i>
Art	Art*
Auto mechanics	Auto mechanics
Cooking	Building trades
Electricity	Business
Expression	Cooking*
Home nursing	English-Latin
Journalism	Interior decorating
Mechanical drawing	Mechanical drawing
Music	Music
Science	Premodern language
Sewing	Printing
Vocational information	Public speaking
	Sewing
	Sheet metal and forging
	Vocational information
	Woodwork

This number seems to be most desirable in a school the size of those in Okmulgee. Fewer courses for smaller schools and a greater number for larger schools can well be offered. The selection will vary considerably, according to the demands of the community. There will always be a few courses found in common because of the demands of the state and nation, but locality will color considerably the selection.

It was the tendency at first to teach too much subjectmatter and facts. The teachers, not being accustomed to teach directly about the activities

* Those courses repeated in the subfreshman year are of two kinds: (1) Regular nine weeks course in another section of the great field; (2) An eighteen weeks course continuing the nine weeks study offered in the preparatory class.

of life, confined themselves to recorded tables and list of vocations, but soon they began to see that the important thing was for the teacher to allow the pupil to learn about these great fields of humanity by actually living in replica, "getting out and getting under," "shooting the trouble," making "The plea" in a courtroom, producing something of value in a shop.

Finding and broadening courses cost very little more than the "regular" school courses. The per pupil cost of instruction in F and B courses, based on average number belonging last year, was \$5.85, the average class cost being \$118.75.

Correlated with and in many ways supplementing the F and B courses is the activity program. These activities offer that active training in living and leading that the boy and girl needs at this age to round out the fullness and abundance of life. They, too, are exploratory in nature. Every boy and every girl is actively interested in this program. Leaders, presidents, secretaries, committee chairmen, councilmen—responsibility, organization, advisors to help and assist activities are popular in Okmulgee.

A word must be said about the activity hour. All student body organizations, clubs, student council and similar bodies meet Monday and Tuesday during the regularly scheduled time. These are intensely exploratory in nature. They cover practically all the fields of student interest. Incidentally there are no "afterschool" sessions. The student assembly, with the student-body president presiding, meets Wednesday. This assembly affords the opportunities for student participation in a public way. The assembly is a student body project for the school. No "outsiders" are allowed on the program, neither is there admitted any propaganda or announcements. The regular "efficiency" hour comes Thursday. This is a forty minute home-room period. Special school projects are discussed. All student problems attendant upon the management of the school, the school citizenship program, the student council problems, and the student programs for assembly are discussed.

With Friday come contests, the intramural and the interscholastic. In order that the regular classroom work will be unimpaired, the activity hour is shifted to 3:24. This allows all students to go to the football game or the debate—student body activities.

The activity hour and the school night programs work as "matinee and regular performance" on Friday. The lyceum, an organization for student activities, has charge of all "Friday activities" (except contests). The student body productions are marketed through this organization. Glee clubs, band, orchestra, the little theatre, the "review" and fashion shows, worthwhile and educational movies, stunts, athletic exhibitions, addresses, all are scheduled for "activity hour and evening" on Friday. The parents come to school—the community comes to school on Friday.

The home-room advisor knows through first hand knowledge the home environment, the parental handicaps and aspirations for the child, the child's own hopes for future years, his schedule, his curriculum, his grades—

in fact about all there is to be known about the individual. This makes it possible to analyze more definitely the child's interests and formulate the program that will best fit him for his future wellbeing.

While homogeneous groupings seem to classify pupils in regular English, mathematics, citizenship, and combination courses, the really democratic offering in the most democratic institution in the world is the finding and broadening courses and activities. No restrictions, except those inherent in the individual interests, aptitudes, bends, and abilities are placed upon the F and B courses. The shop foreman or "your excellency" the judge is selected by those over whom he will exercise authority. The activities probably go further in that they provide for definite organization and administration.

If your boy or my boy has been through the school shops, where manual labor has been employed, he may not choose to follow the pathway that leads from this shop into life, but he will always have a different feeling toward the laboring man, even though he is never called upon to fit a screen door, mend the kitchen chair or fix the "Hoover," he will have a better feeling of the value of that kind of work, and a more wholesome respect for the person who performs it. We need two things today in our democracy that the school shop properly managed can give. First, a respect for honorable labor; second, a broader sympathy for the other fellow. When a boy has produced something with his own hands, has experienced the "feel" of tools in his hands, has overcome the obstacles that arise in the everyday course of happenings in a shop or laboratory, he has built for himself a foundation on which a respect for honorable labor may and will in all probability find a permanent resting-place. He will, I am sure, always feel a sense of pride when he views the results of work well done. It is evident, too, that since he knows the difficulties encountered in "shooting the trouble" and in overcoming that trouble, he will have more patience for the man who earns his livelihood in that way. A sympathetic, understanding people will succeed in a democracy.

The one boy or girl who goes to college must be prepared for the future work there. The eight boys and girls who go out daily from the influence of the school into life must be prepared for work there. It behooves us, therefore, to give to each of them all of the knowledges, skills, experiences, and ideals that it is possible to give, and to so organize the work that each may profit by its influence early in his career.

• INTRAMURAL ATHLETICS

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"Supreme regard for health" was enunciated 20 years ago as a paramount objective of education. Ten years later, the notable report on the cardinal principles of secondary education properly placed health at the head of the list. During the recent world cataclysm, and for a brief period thereafter, supreme regard for health became such a popular doctrine

that its complete enthronement seemed to be secure. But the cessation of hostilities produced a new breed of 'conscientious objectors.' Not entirely new, either, for they appear periodically. Whenever a platform of re-trenchment is proposed, cutting of school costs is sure to be its principal plank.

During the war the erection of school buildings was temporarily halted. Raising of liberty bonds, building ships, and turning out munitions were given the right of way in their demands on all available resources. Naturally, this gave rise after the war to the necessity of unusual activity in construction and consequent unprecedented expenditures of vast sums to house adequately the school children of the nation. On top of that was the remarkable increase in school enrolment. War experiences of the youth had given them a vivid realization of the importance of schooling. As a result, expenditures for education began to "mount by leaps and bounds."

School expenses, amounting to such heavy "burdens" as to threaten to completely crush the taxpayer, must be cut, of course. Curricular enrichments, for which noted educators had labored for two decades, received the first onslaughts. Physical education, even child welfare, came in for their share of criticism. If children and youth possess surplus energy that has to find an outlet why not let them work it off in factories or in other useful employment? That would be more profitable and would not require gymnasiums and costly equipment. The passing of laws by state legislatures, calling for physical training in schools, so popular at the time, also came to a sudden halt. In one state, at least, such a law passed by the legislature was actually repealed at the very next session.

Are we to understand that physical education and good health are needed more in war time than in peace? Were the cardinal principles, which placed health at the head of the list, enunciated for national emergencies only? Is not a good physique the very first requisite for steady occupation, good pay, and a contented mind? And, if physical vigor is needed for war, then why in the name of common sense wait to lock up the barn door until after the horse has been stolen? Just what is preparedness anyway? Is not vigorous manhood the very first line of defense?

Let us consider the economic phase first; perhaps that will make a hit with those who look at the investment side of the question. And here I want to be on safe ground so let me quote from accepted authority. A recent report of the Department of Labor, commenting on the physical defects and the rejection of one-third of the young men drafted for war, stresses our need of a more adequate program of physical education and health service. Estimating that the economic loss for a single year from preventable disease and death amounts to the stupendous sum of \$1,800,000,000, the report makes this significant declaration: "There is experimental basis in the statement that this loss could be materially reduced and leave an economic balance in the working population alone over and above the cost of prevention of at least a billion dollars a year."

For forty years the late Charles W. Eliot was a recognized power in American education. Whenever that great leader spoke it was always with judgment and authority and sometimes with prophetic vision. His views on this subject, therefore, uttered only a short time before his death, should command our respect. In his plea for "Protection Against Ignorance," he recommends as the first step universal physical training from the age of six to eighteen. It is to include the means of remedying defects and malformations as well as develop normal bodies. It is to consist of drills and setting up exercises, but more especially of games and sports. Whenever possible it is to be carried on out-of-doors. It is to cover carriage, posture, gait, rhythmical movements, and team play. This universal physical training is to be accompanied by the universal employment of physicians and nurses for incessant diagnostic and preventive work in schools of every description. Furthermore, since the question of health is intensely national, the whole program should be prescribed by the Federal Bureau of Education or some other national board.

Now, with its implications such a program constitutes a large order. But, if we may agree with this modern seer, it will be worth the price. He assures us that with such a health service in operation, "within twenty years an immense improvement will be seen not only in the aspect of the population as affecting posture, relation of weight to height, and muscular development, but also in the comfort, health, and productiveness at daily labor."

But, those of us who are familiar with public school administration know that such adequate health education as Dr. Eliot advocates is not going to be realized all at once. Progress in the fundamental things of life is slow. It required a generation of temperance teaching in the schools to bring about natural prohibition. And if the present generation is making a poor job of its enforcement, the next generation will be trained to rise to the occasion.

Something more than we are doing is possible even in spite of retrenchment tendencies. I am pleading for the more general introduction of intramural sports, already in favor in many schools, not as a complete system of physical education, but as a step that promises large returns with a minimum of expense. Nor am I ready to offer them as a substitute for inter-school athletics which as an agency for welding the school into a social unit have no equal. They are carried on, however, more for the glory of the school, let us frankly admit, than for the bodily benefit of the students as a whole.

Again, the trend of physical education at present is away from the more formal work of the gymnasiums which does not contain enough mental relaxation and inspiration, and is often referred to as "physical torture." Such formal exercises and gymnastics are good body builders, but they make no contribution to the building of character and citizenship. Group games and play, on the other hand, have a hereditary sanction; they furnish absorbing interest, afford joyous and self-forgetting enthusiasm

which fosters a driving power unequaled by any other form of activity. "We ought never to forget that, after all, human beings, whether children or adults, do things because of certain satisfaction which they get from so doing."

Play is a spontaneous expression of enjoyment in activity; it tends to deprive even work of its drudgery. It is, therefore, of the utmost importance to encourage such play and recreation as the youth may carry over into adulthood as something that can be used in the fulfillment of his life purpose. "The final test of value for any activity," says Dr. Curtis, "is how far it carries over into life, how many months or years it is practiced after it has been taught at school." This test is particularly applicable to physical education.

Now, intramural sports have many of the advantages claimed for interschool athletics without the objectionable features of the latter. Take, for example, the inborn desire to be a winner. That is a primitive trait. Selfishness was essential to life in prehistoric days. Now, in the joyous spirit of cooperation and service of the group, this perfectly natural desire finds its normal expression, but does not degenerate into an abnormal craze to win at any price by subordinating individual honor to partisan passion fomented by thousands of frenzied followers. The players quickly sense the attitude of the spectators which in these great contests is generally not wholesome. It is then readily and, more or less unconsciously, translated into action on the field.

Again, recreation is uppermost in the minds of intramural players. The loser has had as much spontaneous fun as the winner and leaves the field refreshed and moderately invigorated. In the interschool contest, on the other hand, the loser goes off the field utterly downhearted, and completely exhausted.

Furthermore, intramural sports furnish a year-round program, rather than an intensive seasonal campaign followed by prolonged lull. Participation is encouraged in at least one of a variety of each season's sports, and this gives the player during the year a fair first-hand experience in several different activities no one of which he follows as an exclusive specialty. He learns the important lesson that he does not have to excel in any sport, or go through a grueling grind of training to enjoy participation therein. This enjoyment of and experience in several different kinds of sports is more likely also to furnish him in adult life with incentive to continue their enjoyment. Learning the rudiments of sports in early youth provides the essential condition for a carry-over interest.

The excessive exertion of the specialized athlete, on the contrary, is too often brought to an abrupt end after the season and especially after graduation. One of the main criticisms against our present athletic systems is that they do not create a lasting interest in participation. Enlarged heart and lung capacity is fraught with grave danger to the athlete suddenly forced into sedentary indoor life as is so often the case. There are instances on record where such a condition has shortened life or impaired the athlete's usefulness.

For some years one of our gymnasium instructors had been carrying on voluntarily a limited intramural program of athletics. The wholesome results of his efforts were brought to the attention of the school board who had been interested in wider student participation. The matter appealed to them and, accordingly, on recommendation of the superintendent, the board established intramural sports for boys as a part of the physical training in all of the high schools of Seattle. In addition to the physical director and athletic coach, an instructor in each of the high schools was elected to the position of intramural sports director with a small increase in salary. As a result, a salutary system of intramural sports for boys has now been in operation for two years. The girls have an athletic director of their own, but their program is more limited.

You will understand that this was not intended to take the place of interschoolastic athletics of which we have our full quota. The only change in interschool participation was the requirement of more rigid eligibility rules, calling for higher scholarship and lowering the upper age limit. The hardship thus imposed on the school athletes was easier to bear by opening up a new field for them. In fact, the seasoned athletes, thus rendered ineligible for interschool sports, found new opportunities to serve their schools as leaders, officials and managers, positions in which they are rendering valuable service and incidentally gaining experiences in leadership that are quite remarkable. Indeed, without their help the scheme would be impossible.

One of the most inspiring sights is the number of games played simultaneously on the athletic field before school in the morning, at noon, and after school. Twice a year, in September, and again in February, managers are elected. Each applicant when signing up indicates his first and second choice of sports. The director, the boys' advisor and the vice-president of the boys' club constitute the election board. These two men together with the student representative have a pretty good line on the applicants and choose managers to serve for five months.

It is the duty of the managers to take care of all equipment, make the schedules, post notices on a special bulletin board, make out reports of the games and participants and, sometimes, officiate. They wear "official" jerseys when on duty. It is their business to keep their schedules moving and how well they do this is one of the sources of gratification.

The school calendar has to be studied at the beginning of each season to determine the possible number of games in the several sports. The schedule of games is then drawn up and posted from week to week. These schedules are typed in triplicate, one for the bulletin board, one for the manager, and one for the director. The manager of each league notifies his respective teams by bulletins sent to the session room the day before the game to avoid the possibility of a forfeit. It is interesting to note that only one game was forfeited during an entire season and that was due to the failure of a teacher to read the notice. Records of games

are kept and posted regularly by managers or their assistants who also serve as timekeepers and sometimes as referees.

Similarly, but somewhat more easily, schedules are drawn up for handball, tennis, golf, horseshoes, track, volleyball, and soccer. Before all of these games, the boys of the respective teams are called together and all important rules are explained to them. The managers make their drawings, have them typed in the office-training class, and post them on the intramural bulletin, which is a constant source of interest to large numbers of boys. Results of matches are written in by the players themselves.

Just one more observation. Two years ago and again last year in the winter meetings an eighth objective, international understanding, was urged upon us. The general fostering of certain identical games among the civilized nations of the world may be more significant in the promotion of world-understanding than appears on the surface. "Sportsmanship," says James F. Rogers, of the Bureau of Education, "is only 'playing fair' expressed in one word. It has been the unwritten rule of play since play began. It is the moral code compressed and expressed in thirteen letters, and it applies to all social activities and not merely to athletics. For this reason its observance and practice in athletics leads to its observance and practice in other relationships of life. . . ." Now, the fostering of sportsmanship through identical games among nations and the meeting of international representatives in athletic competition is a thoroughly wholesome tendency at present. Who will say that it was a mere coincidence that the "allies" in the recent war were those nations which were most widely committed to international sports? Not a single one of the "central powers," on the other hand, was devoted to the cause of sports, nationally or internationally. The seeds for mutual understanding are planted when two nations play the same games and meet in competition on a common playfield where good sportsmanship and fair play dominate. Among such nations the playfield tends to replace the battlefield. Racial jealousies disappear where common enthusiasms nourish the spirit of tolerance. The representatives of small nations are received with the same enthusiasm and accorded the same honors when they win as representatives of big nations. Racial customs, religious beliefs, and provincial prejudices are forgotten there. To be sure, only seasoned athletes are honored with international participation, but whole nations share in the enjoyment made possible by the general appreciation of the rules of fair play and good sportsmanship.

REVISING THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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How shall we determine what should be taught the three and a half million children enrolled in the high schools of this country?

What demands has childhood a right to make on adulthood? In the past we have been prone to emphasize the demands that should be made

of the child. Let us consider some of the rights of childhood which society should recognize. The more or less obvious rights of childhood appear to be these:

1. *The right to be well-born*—It is estimated that of the children who live to be six years of age, less than 10 percent suffer from physical and health defects at birth.

2. *The right to physical care and protection, such as food, shelter, and clothing*—Such food, shelter, and clothing must be provided as will result in as nearly perfect physical development as possible. Today 90 percent of children who reach the age of six have some form of physical or health defect. The child has a right not only to healthful environment, but also to a knowledge of the laws of health.

3. *The right to be understood*—Since the child is not a diminutive adult, the study of children's growth needs at various levels of development and their interests and abilities becomes the duty of both parents and teachers. It has been so much easier to love children without trying to understand them, to expect them to conform to an illy-defined pattern and punish them when they did not succeed in conforming.

4. *The right to companionship and love*—The growing child has a right to the strength that comes from the knowledge that someone believes in him, has confidence in him, and expects something of him.

5. *The right to play*—The development of motor coordination, of initiative, self-control, social relationships, and joy in living demands that the child have ample opportunity to play. He has a right to the development of skill in those sports and activities which later will result in the wholesome use of his leisure time.

6. *The right to a knowledge of the tools and technics of learning*—Reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic are tools through which the child comes into possession of facts about life.

7. *The right to short-cuts to race experiences*—Such understanding of natural phenomena and social experience as past generations have achieved is a heritage which the child has a right to, insofar as he is able to acquire it through books and to capitalize upon it.

8. *The right, within limits, to freedom of choice and opportunity to experience the results which a particular choice brings*—Only in this way is character developed.

9. *The right to an environment with such stimuli and rewards as will develop right emotionalized attitudes*—Parents and teachers have the opportunity to decide whether a feeling of satisfaction or dissatisfaction accompanies the child's action. The developing child has a right to such rewards and punishments as will build habitual living and which result in right emotionalized attitudes and high ideals.

10. *The right to beauty*—If the latent spiritual powers of the child are to develop, then the inner satisfaction that comes from beautiful surroundings must be supplied.

11. *The right to interpretation of that spirit that is in and through all life, making it better, finer, more nearly divine*—A reverence for God and an understanding of man's relationship to God are among the rights of childhood.

12. *The right to a knowledge of prevailing social customs, and code of ethics*—The child must be taught the difference between right and wrong and why certain acts are considered ethical and others unethical. The desire to be thought well of by one's fellows is a desire that is common to all human beings. Youth has a right to such training as will result in the realization of this universal desire.

13. *The right to a knowledge of government*—Intelligent civic participation can only result from a knowledge of the purpose and forms of government, an understanding of the individual's responsibility to the state and the state's relationship to the individual.

14. *The right to the development of a wide range of interest*—Only upon this basis can the right of choice really function.

15. *The right to an opportunity to discover one's particular talents, abilities, and powers and such training as will develop these latent powers*—Life should offer the child sufficient opportunity for exploration so that he later can find that niche in which he can do his share of the world's work. This means also the right to creative activity.

16. *The right to social development and orientation*—If the child is expected to become a contributing member of society, then there must be developed within him a social consciousness and a right perspective as to the relationship of the individual to society and vice versa.

17. *The right to counsel and guidance*—The child has a right to the protection which the knowledge and experience of his elders affords, but they, on the other hand, have no right completely to dominate his action. Every child has a right to training in responsibility—facing life, seeing the consequences and results of actions.

18. *The right to the power that comes from experiencing success*—The school must do something for a child other than fail him.

19. *The right to work—induction into industry at proper time and under proper conditions*—The desire to be self-supporting, to be financially independent is common to all human beings. Industry has a responsibility to the young worker which has not yet been fully appreciated. Along with the right to work goes the right to an appreciation of the value of money—what money costs in human effort—its purchasing power and its earning power.

20. *The right to look forward sometime to establishing a home*—The desire for a home and children is more or less universal. It places upon adults the responsibility of inspiring youth with the sacredness of home and parenthood and of training youth for worthy home living.

If all these are the rights of childhood—then we must have courses of study that will provide opportunity for the child to achieve for himself such of these rights as the public school is responsible for. How can these courses of study be built? A survey of current practice reveals these six approaches to the problem: (1) Acceptance of tradition; (2) imitation, or scissors and pastepot; (3) acceptance of prevailing style as shown by frequency of occurrence; (4) determining activities through occupational or job analysis; (5) statement of adult abilities and selection of pupil experiences necessary to their acquisition; and (6) study of children and their normal activities.

A synthesis of curriculum theories is not only necessary but also possible—No one method of curriculum building used by itself results in a satisfactory course. "Education must clearly see child and man, but not in a social vacuum." There must be a union of the above approaches to curriculum revision. There should not be a complete break with the past, neither should the present and future be ignored.

A curriculum should not be built wholly on the basis of children's interests and spontaneous activities. These must be directed toward goals that are socially desirable. On the other hand, a curriculum should not be built wholly upon the basis of adult needs and activities. The learner must retain his rightful place in the scheme of things. Furthermore, courses of study should not be designed merely for children of one level of ability.

A curriculum can be built which has large social adult values, appeals to the interests of children, is suited to their growth wants, and at the same time is sufficiently differentiated to meet the needs of pupils of varying levels of ability.

When a curriculum is built in this fashion, the demands which childhood has a right to make on adulthood will be met, and society in turn will be served.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

The Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association met in Eagles Hall, Seattle, Wash., Wednesday, July 6, at 2 P. M. The president of the association, Charles E. Keyes, Principal of the Oakland High School, Oakland, Calif., presided.

The president appointed Bertha C. Knemeyer, Principal of the Elko County High School, Elko, Nevada, to act as secretary, as the secretary of the association, Margaret Durkin, was unable to be present.

The president introduced the speakers scheduled for the program as follows:

EXPLORATORY COURSES IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

Eugene S. Briggs, Superintendent of Schools, Okmulgee, Okla.

INTRAMURAL ATHLETICS

V. K. Froula, Principal, Roosevelt High School, Seattle, Wash.

THE HIGH SCHOOL LIBRARY

Lucile F. Fargo, American Library Association, Chicago, Ill.

Discussions touching upon various phases of the problems submitted by the speakers followed.

The meeting adjourned.

The Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association assembled for the second session as scheduled in Eagles Hall, Thursday, July 7, at 2 P. M. President Charles E. Keyes presided.

President Keyes announced a business session to follow the program and appointed a nominating committee as follows: Mr. McDaniel, Oak Park School, Chicago, Ill.; C. A. Anderson, Hamilton Junior High School, San Francisco, Calif.; Albert Netherly, Black Diamond School, Washington. The committee was instructed to report immediately after the close of the program. President Keyes introduced the speakers of the session as follows:

THE STORY OF SIXTEEN THOUSAND MANUSCRIPTS

Maurice R. Robinson, Editor of the Scholastic, Pittsburgh, Pa.

JUNIOR COLLEGE DEVELOPMENT IN CALIFORNIA

C. S. Morris, Modesto Junior College, Modesto, Calif.

REVISING THE HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Dr. Margaret Alltucker, Associate Director of Research Division, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

Discussion based upon the briefs submitted closed the regular program.

President Keyes called for the report of the nominating committee.

Mr. McDaniel, chairman of the committee, paid a fine tribute to President Keyes for the splendid work of this department under his efficient leadership. He then submitted the report of the committee. The committee recommended that

in view of the contemplated consolidation of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association with the National Association of Secondary School Principals the officers elected at the St. Louis meeting be elected to the same offices in this department as follows:

President—F. L. Bacon, Principal, Newton High School, Newtonville, Mass.

First Vicepresident—Jessie Hamilton, Principal, Morey Junior High School, Denver, Colo.

Second Vicepresident—C. F. Allen, Principal, West Junior High School, Little Rock, Ark.

Secretary-Treasurer—Harry V. Church, Principal, J. Sterling Morton High School, Cicero, Ill.

A motion was made and seconded that the report of the committee be accepted and that the officers herein named be elected to the positions as indicated. The motion was carried and so ordered. The meeting was adjourned.

The Department of Social Studies

THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES was formerly the National Council for the Social Studies and was created as a Department of the National Education Association by the Board of Directors at the Indianapolis meeting of the Association in 1925.

The officers of the Department of Social Studies for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, J. Montgomery Gambrill, Associate Professor of History, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; *Vice-president*, Edna H. Stone, Supervisor of the Teaching of Social Studies, University High School, Oakland, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Edgar Dawson, Professor of Political Science, Hunter College, New York City; *Corresponding Secretary*, Mary V. Carney, Teacher of History, Central High School, St. Paul, Minn. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier. *Proceedings* as follows:

1926: 652-663

PATRIOTISM AND THE CONSTITUTION

WALTER S. DAVIS, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, COLLEGE OF PUGET SOUND,
TACOMA, WASH.

THERE is in the world today a mighty force which we call patriotism, or the love of country. It belongs exclusively to no age or clime and illustrations of it are found scattered throughout the pages of history.

It had its beginnings no doubt, in the love of home, in attachment to the scenes amidst which one's childhood had been spent, in the feeling of possession that came to the early human families in their rude tents, in their fondness for the hills and streams and land and familiar scenes surrounding their homes.

It grows by our interest in those with whom we are most closely associated. It no doubt owes something to the spirit of selfinterest, of self-preservation in every human being, causing us to value the association with others in a political capacity.

Other sources of patriotism are the country's flag, the ideals of the Republic, great documents such as the Declaration of Independence, heroic events of our history, the character of the leading men and women of our history, our free institutions, our economic opportunity for the common man.

To each and every one of these origins, we acknowledge a debt beyond valuation. Each one is a spring running into the mighty stream of American love of country.

This afternoon more especially we stress the debt of American patriotism to the Constitution of our country and the consequent duty of the school.

Under this Constitution, the American people have grown mighty and prosperous. The three millions of 1776 have become the more than one hundred millions of 1927. The republic has marched from ocean to ocean. It has become the greatest moral and political force in the world today. In human affairs it speaks with a power unequalled.

The function of the school is to socialize the child, to fit him for citizenship in the republic.

Almost one-half of the state's income is spent in nourishing young people up into citizenship, not only for their own happiness and well-being, but for the perpetuity of the state. It then becomes the duty of the American teacher to help develop a love for the republic and its institutions.

Now, in developing love of country in the mind and life of the childhood of America through the Constitution, we must not neglect the history of that great instrument. The youth should know the biography of the men who drew it up and gave it to the country. They should know the structure, powers, and history of the three great departments created by this constitution, the congress, the presidency, and the supreme court.

They should know something of the speeches of Webster, the Constitu-

tion's greatest defender and interpreter. They should know of the struggles of brave men who died that the Union might live.

In order to appreciate at its true value the greatness of the American Constitution, the youth of our land should get some conception of the Articles of Confederation. This is necessary in order to appreciate "the more perfect union."

After studying the weakness of the Articles as a form of government and the dangers of the country outside the Articles, we see the force of John Quincy Adam's declaration. The "Constitution was wrung by grinding necessity from a reluctant people."

Contrasting the weakness of the Articles with the strength of the Constitution of the more perfect union will awaken in our students a wholesome respect for the Constitution.

There were also forces binding the states together in this Critical Period of American History. Among these were the western lands, the memories of the revolution, and the love of the people for Washington. The people knew that Washington desired "a more perfect union."

The respect of the youth for the Constitution will be increased when they come to know the greatness of the men who were members of the Philadelphia Convention and gave to the world this noble document, and that with a few exceptions they were the first citizens of the Country.

This respect for the Constitution will be heightened when the student learns that the wisdom of the two greatest living men, Washington and Franklin, was given to its framing; that the brilliant Hamilton, the scholarly Madison, gave to it of their best; that James Wilson of Pennsylvania whose name, according to Bryce, is growing larger with the lapse of years, contributed much; that these were only a few of the men of great and varied talent now met to perform a work the greatness of which only the years can measure.

In the ratification of the Constitution the student will share the anxiety of Washington, the serene hope of Madison, be deeply moved by the eloquent reasoning of Hamilton and James Wilson, and rejoice in the final victory for the Constitution.

The teachers of America must not be satisfied to teach about the Constitution. The Constitution itself must be taught and made clear.

In the Middle Ages it was said by Abelard, "God is loved in proportion as he is known." May we not believe that to the degree that our country's Constitution is known and understood by our youth they will revere and honor both the Constitution and the country.

The preamble will well repay study. According to Chief Justice Marshall, "We, the people of the United States" means just that and not the people of the states. "A more perfect union" means more perfect than the government under the Articles of Confederation. Each one of the purposes will well repay study, closing with "and to secure the blessings of liberty

to ourselves and our posterity," the purpose for which they had been fighting in the long struggle with Great Britain.

The phrase "do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America," has in it the ring of purpose, of finality, of decision.

A proper presentation of the provision of our great instrument of government cannot fail to kindle the patriotism of the youth of our land.

The statement of the eighteen powers of Congress was one of the high achievements, solid and enduring, of the Philadelphia Convention.

While Congress has not always been above censure, accompanying the study of the powers of Congress, all through American history attention should be called to the noble work of Congress.

In the debates in the Washington Legislature of 1925, and among the people, more or less distrust was expressed of Congress, that it would exercise to the full and abuse the powers given to it by the Child Labor Amendment to the Constitution.

To those of us who were friends of the Amendment it fell to point out the patriotism, the good judgment, the farseeing statesmanship of Congress as shown in more than a hundred years of legislation.

It was also pointed out that seldom if ever has Congress abused its great powers, as, for example, the power to declare war, only three or four declarations of war in our entire history.

It should be the proud privilege of the teachers of America to inspire trust and faith in the great departments of our government.

In studying Articles II relating to the presidency, the teacher has the opportunity of pointing out the powers of the presidential office, exceeding the powers of almost any other ruler of the earth; that these powers have for the most part been wisely and beneficently used.

Attention may be called to the high character of the men placed in that exalted office:

All have been men of high personal character and while in office led exemplary lives, and were animated by a high sense of duty and lofty patriotism; some, like Washington, have left names which are synonyms of love of country; certain presidents have not only exalted the office but were a great moral force, lifting up the nation.

Certain presidents were men of great courage, moral and physical; certain ones were famed for scholarly attributes; certain ones were men of rare sweetness of character; and in the presidential office certain ones exhibited rare and striking qualities.

The history of our supreme court should make the American youth take a renewed pride in his country and her institutions.

When James Bryce asked Andrew D. White, of Cornell University, to name the greatest success of the American Government, President White replied, "The supreme court."

In a letter inviting John Jay to be the first Chief Justice, President Washington expressed his solicitude to draw into the court the first characters of the republic.

If we may except certain decisions, the history of the supreme court justifies the high encomiums that it has received.

In naming the members of the supreme court, the Presidents have exercised exceptional care. For the most part only men of the highest character have been appointed to the supreme bench.

Witness Webster's eulogy of John Jay: "When the spotless ermine of the judicial robe fell on John Jay, it touched nothing less spotless than itself."

The decisions of our supreme court have called forth the tribute that they have caused renewed admiration for the strength and stretch of the human understanding.

The student's love of country will be further increased by other provisions of the great document.

The youth's loyalty to and admiration for the Constitution of his country will be increased when he makes a part of his study and knowledge the nineteen amendments. The first ten, the American Bill of Rights, should have found a place in the original instrument. In fact the agreement to secure their adoption won the ratification of the Constitution in certain close states. They are muniments of liberty thrown around the individual. They represent steps in the history of liberty wrought out by the Anglo-Saxon race in the struggle with despotic kings and governments.

The Amendments from number thirteen to nineteen inclusive represent great steps in the moral and political progress of the American people and will make a strong appeal to the right minded American youth.

In your hands, and in your classrooms, fellow teachers of the social sciences, is the destiny of the republic to be decreed, and the republic speeded onward in a grander career in the twentieth century.

SOCIAL STUDIES AND CITIZENSHIP

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

First it is necessary to see the social studies in relation to the total school program and insofar as possible in relation to the total process of education. Social studies play an indispensable rôle in education for citizenship, but the classes in these subjects in schools and colleges constitute by no means the total education of youth for his duties as a citizen.

Let us mention, then, preliminary to our discussion of the rôle of the social studies, other agencies that function often in a determining way in giving the individual attitudes, prejudices, and points of view that may govern throughout life his feeling, thinking, and acting in civic matters.

One of the results of the scientific study of education and of society is a growing realization of the fact that the individual is being educated, whether we will or no, in his every experience literally from the cradle to the grave. The home plays a rôle in education for citizenship equal to and sometimes greater than that of the school. The entire environment of the child—the home, the church, the school, the playground, the Boy

Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls, the gang, every social situation in which he is placed—is creating his personality, his viewpoints, his methods of reacting to the world in which he lives.

In recent years I have heard school men speak pessimistically of the proneness of large numbers of the American people to be swayed by one hysteria after another. These teachers have contemplated the intolerance and the fanaticism that have characterized the blatant “one hundred percenters” and their sympathizers, or the silly hunt for red revolutionists regardless of facts or of the constitutional rights of American citizens, and have been inclined to the view that there is something seriously wrong in the work of the schools in the education of boys and girls for good citizenship. The schools must take their share of the blame for situations of this kind, but we should not be assessed with more than our share of the blame. Without question a far greater proportion of the American people of thirty years hence will have been educated in our public and private schools through the secondary grades than is true of the population today, and therefore in the future it will be legitimate to assess on the schools more blame for failure than at present. But the people should be made to realize more clearly the functions and limitations of the school in the educative process and the vast extent of the responsibility of the home in these matters. You and I know that often the school cannot undo that which is done in the home, no matter whether it be good or bad. The home often saves the child from the mistakes of the school, and the school frequently cannot undo the mistakes of the home. Mind-sets and prejudices are acquired in the home that last through a lifetime.

Coming now to the school, our first observation is that we have changed our ideas as to the ways in which it contributes to the education for citizenship. We no longer hold to the view that the school contributes to this objective solely through formal class work in history, civics, and related subjects. The school is a school for citizenship, regardless of how the social studies are organized and taught. In recent years we have more and more wisely used the corporate life of the school for the education of boys and girls in their civic duties. Today in every well-administered school the pupil is a citizen. He is participating to a large extent in the management of the affairs of the school through student government organizations and through many other so-called extra-curricular activities. He is learning to be a good citizen by practicing the arts of good citizenship. But we have yet much to learn about how to capitalize fully the life of the school in this way. We have yet largely to develop the technic of this type of administration, but whether our technic is good or bad youth is being educated one way or the other, and we should remember this great fact when we talk about the function of the school in education for citizenship.

Many who are condemning us today for our shortcomings in civic and moral education know little of what goes on within the walls of a modern school in these respects. Let us never forget that the school, like the

home, by its very life and spirit, is educating boys and girls in their every relationship. For example, all the good work that is done in the civics class may be undone on the football or the baseball field, or competitive athletics may be made to contribute definitely to the major objectives of education.

We come now to the specific rôle of the social studies in education for citizenship. Before attempting such inadequate statements of the value of the social studies as can be given in this brief paper, let us ask what are the qualities of the good citizen to the development of which the social studies should especially contribute. Do you agree with me that no person can be a good citizen of our country unless he possesses at least the following qualities, and that in the development of these qualities the social studies make an indispensable contribution?

1. The good citizen has some comprehension of the present social, economic, and political order. In order to gain any understanding of the principles upon which the present order is based, it is necessary to understand its origin. This implies some understanding of the history of humanity from prehistoric to present times in all of its aspects. Formerly, it was thought sufficient if boys and girls were given information about wars, revolutions, the rise and fall of dynasties and governments, and about the mechanics of the American form of government. We now know that to understand the present order we must have some conception of the social, economic, political, religious, and intellectual life of those peoples in all ages and in all parts of the world who have contributed anything to the making of the culture in which we live.

2. The good citizen understands the form and the spirit of our government and his duties as a citizen of the United States.

3. The good citizen has some conception of the problems that confront American democracy. He is conversant with the major problems in our economic, social, political, and intellectual life, and knows something of what the leading thinkers in the various fields have said about these problems.

4. The good citizen has acquired an abiding interest in these civic problems, a divine curiosity which relentlessly urges him to acquire more information in order that his civic judgments and acts may be more wisely taken.

5. The good citizen has acquired a technic of finding out about civic problems. He knows how to look for information and evidence and how to evaluate this information and evidence. He knows how to use and evaluate magazines and newspapers. He knows something of the working of public opinion and he has the ability to distinguish between facts and mere propaganda.

6. The good citizen has acquired the habit of performing his civic duties, and assumes his civic responsibilities. He is not indifferent to the exercise of the franchise; he is not unwilling to hold public office; he will not speak or think of politics as something that is contaminating and beneath the dignity of an American citizen.

I know a man, a graduate of a great university, a success in his profession, who was willing to accept a public office that carried no financial remuneration but entailed a considerable civic responsibility, but who was prevented from becoming a candidate for this office at the solicitation of leading citizens because a decade previous he had entered into a pact with his partner in business that he would not accept public office without the partner's consent. To my way of thinking such a man can never look upon himself as a good citizen. He is a slacker just as much as the man who is unwilling to bear arms for his country in time of war. The good citizen is not unwilling to do his civic duty.

7. The good citizen understands that our government is a government of law, and he is obedient to the law. He knows that by the exercise of the franchise,

by orderly processes, the laws of the land, including the fundamental law, the constitution, state and national, can be adapted to changing conditions. The good citizen believes in the Constitution of the United States. He is loyal to every part of it. He obeys the Eighteenth Amendment. He believes that the Constitution means exactly what it says when it guarantees freedom of worship, the right of petition, trial by jury, freedom of speech, right of assembly, and protection against unreasonable search and seizure.

8. The good citizen is tolerant and sympathetic. He does not "see red." He is not a fanatic. He does not give lip service to that part of the Constitution which guarantees freedom of worship and then engage in religious persecution. He believes that the lowliest citizen is entitled to exactly the same kind of justice as the most famous or the richest. He believes in his country, but he can see good in other countries. In brief, the good citizen is a good Christian.

I have attempted to list a few of the qualities to which the development of the social studies should contribute. It must be borne in mind that the list is entirely inadequate and that in the construction of courses of study the analysis must be far more detailed. For example, one measure of the good citizen is the extent to which his aesthetic tastes have been cultivated. He exhibits good taste in the selection of his clothing, of the furnishings for his home, and in the design of the home itself. If he is an urbanite he knows something of city planning. He has a love for all things of beauty. In short, the artistic interests and tastes of the good citizen have been cultivated. To this end many activities of the school contribute, including work in the social studies. Another illustration might be drawn from the domain of public health, but I have desired to list only a few of the outstanding qualities, general in character, of the good citizen, to the development of which in my judgment the social studies are indispensable. The catalogue might be continued indefinitely. The good citizen might be viewed from many different angles.

There may be some duplication in the qualities which I have enumerated, but I think you will agree with me that the social studies should contribute to the development of these qualities. The question is how can the social studies best contribute to the development of these qualities. This involves two problems: the problem of the selection of subject matter or of the content of the courses of study, and the problem of methods of teaching, the latter involving the organization of this content into courses of study and the adoption of methods that are to be used in the work of the classroom.

I shall not attempt to enter into any detailed discussion of either of these problems this afternoon, but will content myself with a brief characterization of the spirit in which subjectmatter should be chosen and then attempt to point out the importance, from the standpoint of citizenship, of methods of teaching in the social studies.

If it is necessary that the good citizen should have some understanding of the present social, economic, political, and intellectual order, then the subjectmatter of the courses of study in the social sciences must be chosen with reference to this objective. We are all aware, of course, of the gradual change that has come about in this respect in the past twenty years.

Textbooks in history include more today of a presentation of the facts as regards the economic and social life of peoples, and devote less space relatively to a recounting of wars and the rise and fall of political dynasties. Likewise our courses in civics or in civil government devote relatively less attention to the mere mechanics of government, as, for example, to memorizing the Constitution, and more to the spirit of American democracy and to an understanding of its problems.

It is not easy, however, to decide what subjectmatter shall be included. The great question of values arises. The time at our disposal in the schools is very brief indeed. Wise selections must be made. For these selections criteria must be developed. Pioneers such as Rugg, Washburne, and others are pointing the way to new technics for the selection of subjectmatter, but these pioneers have probably only made a beginning in the development of these technics.

If the good citizen needs to know the problems that confront American democracy, this need dictates an analysis of present-day problems as one of the ways in which to determine what subjectmatter shall be included. If the good citizen needs to be enlightened regarding the forms of government, the ways of transacting business, the economic resources, the mores of the peoples of other nations throughout the earth, then these are important considerations for the curriculum maker. We need to set up the objectives to be attained in education for citizenship in terms of the qualities of the good citizen. We need to ask ourselves what contribution the social studies should make to the growth of each of these qualities in the individual. We shall have, then, in rough outline the criteria to govern in the selection of subjectmatter.

As regards methods of teaching, we face very much the same problem as in the selection of subjectmatter. For example, if the good citizen should have an abiding interest, a divine curiosity, which urges him relentlessly onward to acquire more information regarding civic problems, then our methods of teaching should be calculated to develop within him this desire, this curiosity, this divine fire. If he needs a technic for finding out the facts about civic problems, his work in the social studies should very largely give him this technic. If as a citizen he will be concerned with the necessity of helping to find solutions for the problems of democracy, the methods of teaching should contribute to this end.

The child as a child must have practice in the development of those desirable qualities that characterize the good citizen. If he does not develop some curiosity about civic problems before he leaves the school, it is extremely unlikely that he will ever develop it after he leaves the school. If he must pass judgment on civic problems as a citizen, he should have a maximum of practice in the formulation of such judgments as a youth.

It is futile to attempt to give the youth of this generation solutions for the problems which they will confront in the years to come. No one can foretell what these problems will be. Who could have foretold in the nineties, when some of us were in school, what problems we were to con-

front in the first quarter of the twentieth century? We cannot foretell what specific problems the youth of today will confront in the years to come. Solutions will be of little value to them in all probability. Methods of attacking problems, of finding solutions, will be invaluable. It is needless to point out the important bearing that this fact has on the methods that are employed in the classroom and throughout the school. We find here the true significance of the so-called socialized recitation, or problem or project method of teaching. Here again we only dimly see our way. A world of research needs to be carried on in the development of the most effective methods of teaching.

It must be more apparent, then, than ever, that the whole life of the school must be used in education for citizenship. Through participating in the solution of problems that arise in the management of the school, through holding office in student government associations, in yielding obedience to the regulations made by these associations, and in a thousand other ways the boys and girls should be given opportunity to grow in the qualities of good citizenship.

When it comes to a consideration of the part that is played by the home, by the church, by the gang, the Boy Scouts, the Camp Fire Girls, and innumerable other groups and activities, we are entering upon an uncharted sea. We only know in a general way of the tremendous import of these factors in producing the citizen. As I have said before, that which is done in the school may be largely undone by other factors in the child's environment, or it may be impossible for the school to undo that which has been done in the home or by other factors in the child's environment.

We must take cognizance of this life outside the school. We must study it and come to a better understanding of the forces that play in the education of the child. Ultimately there must be a closer cooperation between the home and the school. We must also learn how to use the communal life to foster in the youth of the city or town or rural neighborhood the highest ideals of citizenship. The movement for a more adequate program of adult education in America is most significant. A dynamic theory of education calls for the provision of educational opportunities for the individual throughout life. Certainly this whole field needs to be studied by those who make the curriculum in the social studies.

I shall now summarize briefly what I have said down to this point. Education for citizenship is a process to which many agencies contribute. The entire environment of the child is educating him for citizenship by giving him mind-sets, habits, prejudices, attitudes, which will cling to him throughout life. The part that the home plays is extremely important. The school, therefore, can be held only partly responsible for the end result of this process of education for citizenship.

Likewise, the school contributes in many ways to this end, two of which I have mentioned. Through its corporate life it does or should give the boys and girls practice in those activities that will develop in them the

qualities of the good citizen. The contribution of the school in developing in the boys and girls ideals of good sportsmanship, habits of law obedience and of assuming one's civic responsibilities, tolerance, a sense of justice, alertness to civic conditions, and other qualities that might be mentioned, is made not only through the social studies but through the life of the school. When it comes to the social studies themselves, the school must select subjectmatter and adopt methods of teaching in the light of the qualities of the good citizen. To this end we are slowly creating a technic, but have only made a beginning.

I wish now to discuss very briefly a condition that has arisen in recent years that vitally affects our program of education for citizenship. Every generation, no doubt, will face its big problems of education. We face a situation as regards the social sciences that constitutes one of the most fundamental problems of American democracy. Who shall make the course of study in the social sciences? Shall it be made by legislative enactment? Shall it be dictated by economic interests? Shall it be written by chauvinists, or by militarists, or by pacifists, or by modernists, or by fundamentalists, or by any other group in our society? Many groups are attempting to influence the course of study in this field.

Some very vocal members of societies that style themselves patriotic and have high standing in the land, men and women who ought to be exponents of true Americanism, who ought to recognize that in a dynamic, changing society political institutions must be modified to meet changing conditions, would have us teach that the Constitution is so sacred that it must not be touched or modified in any way whatever. Even some members of our most worthy hereditary patriotic societies seem to have their faces turned entirely to the past.

Unfortunately, some of these people would keep alive ancient animosities. The truth cannot be told about the Revolutionary War, and those who would tell the truth in history textbooks are outrageously charged with disloyalty to our country. Apparently these narrow-minded bigots cannot understand that the historian may tell the truth about the Revolutionary War and yet believe in the cause for which the patriots of that period fought.

There are a few among us who look backward to old allegiances and would keep alive even in America old national hatreds. There are a few Americans of Irish extraction who apparently can see nothing but evil in the British Empire and would have their extreme point of view written into our textbooks, and there are jingoists who are so wrought up about the Yellow Peril that they can only look at Japan and China through yellow glasses. It would be nothing short of a calamity if such schools of thought should be permitted to influence teaching in our schools. The most important problems which America faces in the future are problems of foreign relations. We are all nationalists; we are intensely loyal to our America. But you and I know that the fate of civilization itself hangs on the cultivation of a better goodwill among nations.

When we come to domestic affairs we are confronted with a similar group of problems. It is inevitable that each economic and social group should have its peculiar slant on economic, social, and civic problems. The American Manufacturers Association has one point of view, organized labor has another, the farmers have another. We cannot avoid the discussions of controversial issues in the schools. In the discussion of these issues teachers must preserve a judicial point of view. Our function is not to teach you what to think but rather to think. Above all, we should remember that all of these groups are composed of good Americans. Although we shall find among them extremely shortsighted radicals and reactionaries, it is very rarely that we find in America a person who believes in changing our political or economic order by violence.

And yet the influence of these minority groups has been felt already to an extent that must give pause to the thoughtful citizen. Witness the inquisitions into textbooks that have been conducted in New York and in other places by groups who would use the public schools not for the teaching of truth but for propaganda of one kind or another.

Finally, I must call your attention to the attempts to write the curriculum by legislative enactment. Miss Bessie Louise Pierce, Associate Professor of History, University of Iowa, in her excellent study "Public Opinion and the Teaching of History," depicts in a vivid manner the growing tendency to legislate the curriculum, particularly in the field of history and government. Some of this legislation is not to be condemned. It is general in character. It sets up the broad objectives to be achieved in the schools. But other proposals go into details as to how certain subjects shall be taught. For example, last winter a bill was introduced into the Colorado legislature requiring the teaching of the Constitution as a separate and distinct subject thirty minutes each week in the seventh and eighth grades and one hour each week through the high schools and colleges of the state. Such a schedule would cut right across the program of the school. To fit it into a scientifically planned course of study would be impossible.

This bill was sponsored by the local bar association and in a general way by the American Bar Association, although we found that many of the most intelligent lawyers of the community knew nothing of the provisions of the measure, and when they were informed about it were strongly opposed to it. The proponents of the measure were good citizens. They did not know what we were doing to teach the Constitution. They did not realize the absurdity of such a measure. They did not realize that if one group could secure the passage of a measure of this kind some other group holding exactly opposite views might in time secure similar legislation. They did not realize that in time, through such a process, the curriculum would become crystallized and soon with the passage of years sadly out of date, and that those charged with the responsibility of the administration of the schools and of the teaching of youth would find their hands tied.

Who, then, shall make the social studies curriculum? It should be made by the teachers and specialists in education and in the social sciences who are devoting their lives to study in these fields. That means that you and I must measure up to our responsibilities in this respect. Our work must be so broad, so soundly based on scholarship and on considerations of good citizenship, so excellent from a technical standpoint, that it will command the respect of the public.

America faces no greater problem in the next generation than that of deciding whether the schools shall be used for propaganda purposes or to teach the truth about American history and institutions. Those who would use the schools for propaganda and who at the same time as good citizens believe in American institutions and in the American spirit, are very short-sighted indeed.

A few years ago it looked as if this situation would become very acute. It now appears that there is less hysteria and that if we teachers, students of education, and historians rise to the occasion we may lead the way in making a curriculum in the social studies that will contribute the utmost of which the school is capable to the perpetuation of the spirit of American institutions.

THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL SCIENCE IN WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOLS

READ BAIN, ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF
WASHINGTON, SEATTLE, WASH.

A more complete investigation should be made of the actual preparation, pedagogy, and objectives of the social science teachers, as a preliminary to a thoroughgoing definition of the aims of the social studies, of standards of training for teachers and methods of teaching.

This should be followed by a fundamental revision of the entire course of study but especially for the social sciences, and this revision should be followed up by a campaign for cooperation of the teachers, school authorities, and the community in carrying out the provisions of the new scheme.

Although about 95 percent of the teachers of social science conform to the law which requires a college degree for teaching in high schools, it is found that over one-half have had comparatively little preparation in their particular subject. The scholastic training for teaching civics and American history, the only two social studies required by law, appears to be especially defective.

About 87 percent of the teachers belong to the Washington Education Association, 45 percent to the National Education Association, and 38 percent to local organizations. Moreover, the periodical reading of the teachers seems to be quite professional, of high quality, and of considerable quantity.

The most common participation of the teacher in community work was Sunday school teaching. Twenty-five percent of the teachers engage in this activity. Girls' work, including scouts, camp fire, etc., was participated in by 12 percent; boys' work, scouts, Hi-Y, etc., by 11 percent; and church work by 9 percent.

The principal obstacle to the teaching of the social studies appears to be lack of library equipment. This is followed by inadequate teaching force and too many subjects. There was slight indication that patrons' fear of radical ideas being propagated by the social studies was operating to prevent the extension of such work.

LEGISLATIVE REQUIREMENTS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CIVICS

E. D. RANDOLPH, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF
WASHINGTON, SEATTLE, WASH.

In the last few years legislators, persuaded by organized societies representing the convictions of small minorities, have given the schools of many of the states certain specific topics for courses in civics and "citizenship,"—namely, the study of the origin, sources, and principles of the constitution, and "the study of and devotion to American institutions and ideals."

This phrasing seems to have emanated from the citizenship committee of the American Bar Association; and the legislative drive upon the teaching of the Constitution seems to have been fathered by the American Bar Association (with curious unconcern about some important American ideals and institutions). The prestige of this powerful organization has furnished for the numerous patriotic societies the assurance needed for vigorous lobbying at state legislatures, with the result that most of the states have enacted laws requiring the teaching of the Constitution in the elementary schools. These laws vary in character from the general and unobjectionable type to the highly specific and prescriptive type which ignores the expert knowledge of teachers. It is the latter type which the bar association now apparently favors.

Everyone must be sympathetic with the bar association's concern about the quality of American citizenship, and about the importance of the study of American institutions and ideals. Everyone must concur in their belief that the study of the Constitution (written and unwritten) is a valuable part of such orientation for pupils old and able enough to engage in it.

There is serious doubt, however, whether the bar association is right in its insistence upon a separate course on the Constitution for elementary school children. This doubt becomes conviction when the details of the bar association's idea of a proper elementary school course on the Constitution are examined.

It is no exaggeration to say that it is such a course as is proper for a political science major in the university. The time allotments necessary to make such a program effective could not be had without serious prejudice to other crucial courses in the elementary school curricula. And no possible time allotment could make it largely effective with elementary school children. The curricula of normal schools would have to be substantially reshaped to prepare teachers of such a course for anything but perfunctory work. Extensive in-service education would have to be inaugurated for teachers already in the field.

If the bar association's view of American needs in regard to knowledge of the genesis and development of the Constitution is a sound one they are right in insisting upon a separate course. But they are assuredly wrong in their idea of the equipment necessary to pursue it. Their course belongs in colleges and universities, primarily. At the lowest it might in parts be attacked in the senior year of high schools. It is impracticable in the elementary school.

Two principles of selection of curriculum materials must always go together: (1) "What society needs" is doubtless the first one; but (2) "What little children can learn" will always limit it severely; and the equities of other subjects of study will continue to deserve consideration. About the first, the bar association may in most cases be a better judge than most teachers. About the second, the professional teachers will in most cases be better judges than the bar association.

May we rely upon the bar association's sense of the nature of evidence to make them moderate their zeal for political science education to the capacities of little children? Is it not our duty to appear as advocates of children, with a brief for what is attainable in the elementary school period and a statement of the equities of the other school subjects?

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

Joint Meeting with Faculty of Social Science of the University of Washington—The meeting was held Tuesday, July 5, in Philosophy Hall, Room 233. It was called to order at 2:10 P. M. by the presiding officer, Charles E. Martin, Dean of the Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Washington.

Dr. Martin welcomed the audience—over three hundred in number—and then called on Edna H. Stone, Vicepresident of the National Council for the Social Studies, for remarks. Miss Stone conveyed the greetings sent by letters by J. Montgomery Gambrill, President of the Council, and Edgar Dawson, Secretary of the Council, who voiced their sincere regret that they were unable to attend the convention.

Walter S. Davis, State Senator, and Professor of Political Science, College of Puget Sound, Tacoma, gave an address on "Patriotism and the Constitution."

Then followed an analysis of "The Social Studies and Citizenship," delivered by Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado.

"Teaching the Social Science in Washington High Schools," a study made by

Read Bain, Lecturer in Sociology, University of Washington, was read by a colleague of Mr. Bain, in the absence of the writer.

Edgar Randolph, Professor of Education, University of Washington, then gave an address, "Requirements for the Social Studies in the Primary Schools."

In all of these papers there was evidence that the writers were cognizant of the importance and value of the social studies, and they thoughtfully and seriously presented views as to guidance and control.

After announcing the session for the following day, Dr. Martin adjourned the meeting.

Second Session, The Teacher as a Factor in Social Studies Teaching—This session, held July 6, in Philosophy Hall, Room 233, was called to order at 2:10 P. M. by Edna H. Stone, Vicepresident of the National Council.

Following a word of welcome to the audience and the delivery of messages from Dr. Gambrill and Dr. Dawson, Miss Stone voiced the appreciation of the officers of the worthy services of the local committee and speakers.

Then came the introduction of Frederick E. Bolton, Dean of the School of Education, University of Washington, who delivered an address on "The Teacher's Opportunity Through the Social Studies."

Next came the address by Miss Crystal Harford, Assistant Supervisor of Social Studies, University High School, Oakland, California, on "The Teacher and the Need of a Social Viewpoint Throughout the Social Studies." Miss Harford had an illuminating collection of illustrative materials displayed.

The final address was given by Milton Bennion, Dean of the Department of Education, University of Utah, whose subject was "The Place of Ethics in a Program of Teacher Training for the Social Studies."

A lively discussion of the three papers followed, many taking part.

As a result of a motion to the effect that the papers of both sessions be printed and made available for reading by all interested, Miss Stone stated that certain publicity would come through the Proceedings of the National Education Association and that in the Historical Outlook doubtless at least part of the papers will be printed. She appointed a committee, headed by Dean Martin, to look into the matter still further.

There was no election of officers as those elected last February are to serve until next July, at which time regular election will take place.

The meeting was adjourned.

The Department of Superintendence

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE—At the meeting of the National Teachers' Association in Harrisburg, Pa., 1865, the state and city superintendents present decided to form an organization, to be composed exclusively of those engaged in supervisory work in the schools. This group decided to meet in Washington, D. C., in February, 1866, at which time the work of organization was completed. The new organization was called the National Association of School Superintendents. Nine states and twenty cities were represented

In 1870, the National Association of School Superintendents merged into the National Education Association as a Department. Following a change in the Bylaws of the Association, adopted in 1921, the Department was reorganized under a new constitution, with a full-time secretary. It publishes a report of its annual meetings, which appears also in the Association's *Proceedings*, and a yearbook which is sent only to members.

The officers of the Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Joseph M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, Calif.; *First Vicepresident*, Randall J. Condon, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio; *Second Vicepresident*, Frank D. Boynton, Superintendent of Schools, Ithaca, N. Y.; *Executive Secretary*, S. D. Shankland, 1201 16th St. N. W. Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*: M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa; Norman R. Crozier, Superintendent of Schools, Dallas, Texas; E. E. Lewis, Professor of School Administration, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; Frank M. Underwood, District Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1873:244-271	1886:335-353	1897:195-317	1907:145-329	1917: 661-853
1874:297	1887:511-538	1898:303-489	1908:129-329	1918: 473-685
1875:291	1888:515-547	1899:251-380	1909:159-232	1919: 483-675
1877:253-261	1889:613-617	1900:183-297	1910:143-307	1920: 407-537
1879:223	1890:367-545	1901:189-349	1911:161-331	1921: 679-851
1880:235-237	1891:379-527	1902:151-306	1912:329-499	1922:1295-1465
1881:252	1892:559-745	1903:139-301	1913: 99-355	1923: 881-1025
1882: 7-112	1894:252-592	1904:173-333	1914:133-293	1924: 803-963
1884:281-292	1895:213-429	1905:155-271	1915:253-527	1925: 633-863
1885:160-192	1896:231-391	1906: 29-215	1916:895-1099	1926: 663-838

OPENING OF THE EXHIBITS

RANDALL J. CONDON, PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF
SUPERINTENDENCE

FRANK BRUCE, *presiding*—Ladies and gentlemen: This is the formal opening of the Convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association. This monumental exhibit has been built for you. It is unfortunate that we cannot give you some appreciation of the time and effort that has been spent on the preparation of this wonderful exhibit. Dr. Condon will tell the story of the exhibit.

On behalf of the commercial exhibitors I want to thank the local committee and the officers of the Department of Superintendence for this unusual and very highly appreciated exhibit hall.

It is unfortunate that you cannot understand the professional service, the professional background, which has preceded the planning and which is now expressed in these exhibits here today. Professional service is the keynote of the commercial exhibit. In the past decade we have equipped thousands of schools of all kinds. We appreciate that in the next decade we must equip thousands and thousands of schools for you. We sincerely trust that as professional school men you will come more and more to the commercial exhibitor with the idea that the commercial exhibitor is with you, rendering you a professional service.

Dr. Condon has sensed the significance of this idea in suggesting this opening meeting this afternoon. It is the first time in the history of the Department of Superintendence that a president has come forward with a real appreciation of the place and function of a technical exhibit of this character. It is a privilege to present to you at this time President Randall J. Condon of Cincinnati, who will formally open the Convention.

President Randall J. Condon—Friends, I am pleased today to meet you here on this Fifty-Seventh Anniversary of the founding of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, and officially to say the word which brings this Convention into being. And yet this Convention has been in process of evolving for one year. From the time the meeting adjourned at Washington last year the officers have been busy projecting this meeting. We went to nine cities and the Executive Committee went to two or three others looking for an exhibit hall, among other things, that should be worthy of the installing of an exhibit such as is in place here today. When we came to Dallas and looked into this hall and saw the stretch of it, 92,000 square feet of floor space, I said there was no other place where the Convention ought to be held in 1927 except in Dallas. The Executive Committee agreed, for I said we could afford to be crowded a little bit in the hotels if we could have plenty of space to exhibit the things that make for educational welfare, the commercial, the technical, and the school product of America.

I came again in October when the State Fair was in progress that I might see that great exhibition and see whether it fully met my expectations.

Mr. Allan came down when the American Medical Association was in session and had its exhibit here. As we came into this hall and visioned it, it was as we see it today. Whether or not you are satisfied, we are, for it expresses the thing which we dreamed for you—plenty of space, with fine environment, with an opportunity for all the technical and educational exhibits to have free access, with plenty of circulation, a lounge where the people might gather and converse and rest, and then beyond, the products of the school.

We see American school education at its best as it is being exhibited here today, and in all of the school houses of the land you will find some of these things in process of development and in use by the children and the teachers of America.

As Mr. Bruce has said, for fifty-seven years this Department has been meeting, and it has not occurred to anyone, or if it did occur it has not been put into operation, that this exhibit ought to be opened formally and dedicated to the cause of education. When I said I wanted the opportunity to open formally this great exhibit and to dedicate it to the welfare of education in America, and then I wanted to make clear that six days thou shalt labor and on the seventh thou shalt rest from thy labors, I had in mind that the exhibit closes its doors tonight, but they will open at 7 o'clock on Monday morning, and from that time on we want the 10,000 superintendents and others who are in Dallas to circulate through these corridors, to look into every exhibit that is on display, and to pass beyond and to see the exhibits that are installed there.

Great work and much expense has been involved in bringing together this great exhibit. We have not assembled this exhibit primarily for the purpose of making money. The Department of Superintendence is a going concern, we can meet our own bills and pay them from the income we have. But we do believe that no meeting of the Department is as it should be unless it brings together with the superintendents the men who supply the material that makes it possible for the superintendents to give education to the school children of America. We are one, and from this time forward, whether you are producing books or furniture or equipment or visual education or radio or what-not, you and the superintendents of the country are one in the process of working together to use this material to produce finer and better citizens for America, and we join hands with you today in this one common purpose and pledge ourselves that the doors of all the superintendents of this country shall be opened to those who make textbooks and produce furniture that you may come in and tell them the thing that you have to produce and to sell that it may be better for the children. But we ask you in coming to leave outside anything except the merits of your production. You shall always be welcome when you bring that thing which calls to our attention the thing we ought to have based upon its merit, upon its use to the children. But the doors shall be forever barred against any man or woman who attempts to influence the superintendents or teachers of this country by any unworthy means.

This has been planned that you may have the opportunity of circulation. When we laid out all these avenues and within forty-eight hours every foot of space was taken either by long distance telephone or by telegraph or letter, then I said, "There is just one other thing that I want, and that is the thing which shall give the idea of national unity, of patriotic citizenship motive, and I know where that thing is; it is in the Town Hall of Lexington, Massachusetts." I sent to Lexington and I said to the selectmen, "Will you let us have the flags that were flying on Lexington Common when you celebrated the One Hundred and Fiftieth Anniversary of the first battle for independence?" And the selectmen met, and they said, "No. We have had innumerable requests. They asked that they might have our flags for the Sesquicentennial Celebration, and we refused." I refused to take that no as final. I wrote to Mr. Allan to go from Washington to Lexington, and I sent this telegram to him:

We expect Lexington to be as patriotic
in 1927 as she was in 1775.

Then I said to him: "We must have flags from Lexington. Go to Boston and take Payson Smith with you to Lexington. Put it up to them as a patriotic duty. We cannot have the kind of convention we have planned without their flags."

They are displayed along the walls here. Every state flag is represented, beginning with the last states admitted, Arizona and New Mexico, and coming down far beyond to our national flag flanked on either side with the flags of the thirteen original states, Massachusetts on one side, Virginia on the other, to symbolize the fact that at Jamestown and at Plymouth was laid the foundation of our great country. We have gathered here, with these flags about us symbolizing not only the unity of all the states into the one great flag of our country, but symbolizing the fact that Lexington sends her choicest possessions to Dallas, that Massachusetts sends them to Texas, that New England sends them to this great gathering of the superintendents of the nation, to make clear that national unity and the ideals of the nation must be born in the hearts of the youth of today.

We gather, then, under these fine auspices, we gather under sunny skies and with peach blossoms all about us. When I sent the letter saying that on Sunday we would ride through peach blossoms, some of you fellows who live in the north said I must be stretching it. On the train coming down, a man from Illinois said, "I guess you will be able to deliver your program, because it is in print, but I don't have much stock in your peach blossoms."

I said, "Wait until you cross the Texas border." And my heart was glad when I looked out of the window and actually saw the peach blossoms on the trees, for I was a little in doubt whether the cold draft from the north wind might have kept them from developing. I said, "We will take a chance on it, and I don't believe Texas will disappoint us." Texas has not disappointed us; Dallas has not. The city and the state are here

to welcome us into an environment of good will and cordial cooperation and hearty greetings that make it worthwhile for us to meet within the borders of this city.

We are here to open this Convention formally, and to say that this exhibit is yours to look at, to use, to buy, to produce. I don't like to use the word that Mr. Bruce used; it comes better from him than from me; I don't like to use the term "commercial exhibit." Mr. Allan, you know, has coined another one—"technical exhibit" and "school exhibit." I have been trying for six months to find one expression which ties the two things together and I haven't got it yet. But it is one from this end to the other end; there is no separation. In the lounge are the finest examples of school architecture; beyond are the finest exhibits of schoolroom interiors; there is a model schoolroom showing not only how children's vision may be saved, but how it may be prevented from becoming defective. I have not the slightest hesitation in saying that it is the finest exhibit of art products applied to life that has ever been assembled. Then there are the finest printing products from all over this country, with seventy-five cities from thirty states represented.

We are in the presence of a living exhibit, a piece of applied education, a piece of education applied to useful ends. I believe that is about the only kind of education that amounts to much anyway. Back in Timothy II, there is something like this: Ever learning, and never able to come to the knowledge of the truth. The reason so much of our learning is fruitless is because we never apply it to anything that is worth something. If we somehow find out how to apply the thing that we are learning to a useful end, it shall function in terms of character and citizenship.

Some years ago I had a dream that I had been visiting the night school and I had been looking into the faces of something like a dozen or fifteen different nationalities, and I thought somehow in my dream that it was my business to help Americanize those people. In my dream I thought the way one could do it was to give them a cheer as the college does when it urges its team to victory. I gave the word to them, and it came back in confusion and discord, without any harmony of action, one voice against another. I gave it again, and it came back a little clearer, but still very much confused. Still again I gave it, until by and by there came back to me the clear words that I arose that night and wrote on a slip of paper that I might not forget them. These were the words I gave: "Now all together, once again, each for the help of the other."

I would say to every one of the 200 exhibitors and to all who have a part in this great exhibit, in Americanization and in working for the good of the children of America that is the call which must ring in our hearts: "Now all together, once again, each for the help of the other."

This Fifty-seventh Convention of the Department of Superintendence is officially opened.

THE IDEALS OF THE NATION

JUDGE WILLIAM H. ATWELL, UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT
DALLAS, TEXAS

The dictionary advises us that the word "ideal" means existing in the imagination only, visionary, a mental conception. Idealism in art means the elimination of or the adding to so that there may be an ideal object attained. An idealist is one who pursues an ideal, of course; he is the visionary.

In thinking of the subject during the last day or two days, I have asked myself this question: Is it true that if all of the minds in America were placed in a gigantic receptacle and shaken from side to side and up and down by some giant hand, there would appear upon the surface eventually certain outstanding national ambitions, a composite of the American people? Is that true?

A survey of America, of course, is more difficult than a survey of any other nation. England is inhabited by the English, France by the French, Germany by the Germans, Russia by the Russians, Japan by the Japanese, China by the Chinese, but America is populated by all of these people I have named and by every other people on the globe, and they become Americans, if at all, after having lived between our oceans and upon our rivers and in our forests and in our mountains and after having visioned to a little degree something of the great dream of our founders.

So, after all, the subject is fraught with great difficulty. But there is a principle, my friends, in individual life that is invariable. Whether it holds good in national life I do not assert. I merely display it for you and leave it to the individual judgment as to whether it is equally true there. That principle is the growth that comes in solitude. I ask you to go with me in the full measure of that word and that phrase, the growth that comes in solitude. The heroic figures of history, the rugged characters, the great fellows who have towered above their associates in all generations have found their strength just there. Gianthood is within us. The Scriptures tell us that the kingdom of God is within us. If so, the king is in his kingdom.

Henry Knight Miller, in an impelling article called "Can we go alone?" takes us into the mountains with the Savior and there in the very center of solitude, at the very heart of power, there comes the exclamation, "I and the Father are one." It is then that history is unrolled; it is then that destinies are made; it is then that the tents are moved forward into a new initiative. This solitude is impervious to the attacks of those who are outside; ineffectual are they against it. Shifting sands are the foundation of the man who builds his life to be in harmony with the scoffs or the congratulations of the world that is about him, because the world may criticize in the morning and congratulate with the going down of the evening sun.

Dewey, when he returned, as we all remember so well, from his great work in the Far East, was received in his land as a conqueror, he was paraded and feted and congratulated and loved and honored throughout the nation. A popular subscription was taken, and he was presented with a home in the capital of the nation. Later he took unto himself a wife and he transferred this property to his new queen, and instantly, almost, the people who had been at his feet were at his throat, so fickle is even the popular opinion of a great nation like America.

This very strength that comes from solitude, however, is the strength that sent Ulysses S. Grant tunneling beneath the embankment at Vicksburg, charmed a Stonewall Jackson at the head of a matchless cavalry, fired the heart of Martin Luther as he stood in the Diet of Worms exclaiming, "Here I stand, God being my helper, I can do nothing else." It was the fire and the soul of George Washington that he found on his knees in the snows of a forest of the East, which carried almost naked soldiers to glory and to victory. That is what it was, I am sure, that sent a praying Columbus to America in 1492, and I believe that is what it is that sends the great souls out from their loved ones, whether they come from Europe or from great distances, seeking after the victory that calls to them as they come. That is what inspired the heart and drove the hand of the fathers in the Constitutional Convention at Philadelphia when they penned the preamble to our Constitution, saying: "We the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."

Ay, also, perhaps it was the flowering of Washington's great wisdom when he wrote in his farewell address for this same nation: "Keep clear of entangling alliances." The nation was literally going it alone; it had cut all the cables, shattered every tradition, formed a new sort of government, repudiated kings and emperors. He said there should be no longer birth by blood or rule by preference, no longer government monopoly or distinction, but a new order of things when all men were equal and these equal men were to choose one of their number to rule for a limited time. Literally the nation was going it alone and rapping on the knuckles any hand that was reached toward it.

Again, solitude had answered the statesmanship of the mountains, the fundamentals of the forests and the everlasting prairies, and had proven the efficaciousness of that wisdom in the formation of an unknown government.

Oh how it does reach to us and call us this morning!

Having builded a new government, having erected a new mansion out of their own material, having founded their own architecture the like of which had never been known before, a new something that an hundred

and fifty years afterward is more glorious than it was at the hour of its completion, whose solidity is more astonishing through the centuries than it was then, the cynosure of all the eyes of all the statesmen of all the world, they were then out of their virile wisdom to fashion simple faiths for those who were to live in that mansion.

First of all, it was to be a godly nation. Where that God was to sit, how that God was to be worshipped, where that God was to rule was to be a matter for the individual citizen. That God was to have a crest expressed on every coin; His name was to be lisped by every witness in Christendom's courts so far as this land was concerned. There was to be public obeisance by every executive, whether of the state or of the nation, in covenant with that God before he could become such executive. Oh, let the discussion of no scientific accomplishment or no scientific discovery rob America of her God!

Then there was to be in this new nation the solemnity of the family, of family life, one man for one woman, a monogamous civilization. All the new-fangled theories and writers and doctrines that would suggest or would substitute anything else are mere sounding brass and tinkling cymbal. The man was to hew and draw, and the woman was to sew and prepare and shed the glory of womanhood throughout the home, and the twain were to teach the little ones something of the God of America, something of the glory of honest toil, and make them love the warmth of the home in which they lived.

And then this nation was to have schools, schools for the rich and schools for the poor, schools for the black and schools for the white, schools for all creeds and all conditions, and these schools, like the religion, were to be without money and without price, and millions of children during certain seasons of the year were to wend their way toward the school-house where they were to receive from the emperor and empress who presided there great arms full of the common knowledge that should make them foursquare men and foursquare women.

Since the time when Betsy Ross sewed with her nimble fingers our first banner, since the time when the blue jacket and the red lining and the white petticoat made the first starry banner, since the time when the first blood was shed upon land and upon sea, everyone who has had the opportunity to be an American citizen worth while has been proud to be called such and has gloried in the majesty of the institutions of his country. And that has been the fourth pillar in the great foundation of American ideals. America has never sought to be known as the greatest nation in the world, the richest nation in the world, whose coffers were bursting with coin and gold; America has always loved her flag more than she has her dollars, and America has had the quickest heart and the strongest arm and the men who were more willing to fight than has any other nation in the world.

Today, big, magnanimous, strong America is disappointed when she

hears from across the waters criticisms from the same lips that begged her to help them just a few years ago.

This, in short and in brief, is my conception of the ideals of America in composite: simple faith in God, a simple home life, a simple universal education, a simple immortal, everlasting love of country. An approximation of this simplicity will build anew, not only liberalizing the churches and filling the need of the country, but filling the churches themselves with the people, rekindling the fires on the home hearth, filling our schools with school teachers who have a vision of their duty and its bigness rather than a desire to have position, and finally promoting the general welfare of the country by diluting and decreasing the stream of 500,000 prisoners who go every year to and from the American prisons.

God bless this God of America, if such a prayer is possible. God bless the American home, God bless the American school and all those who represent that school here today. God bless America with all of her greatness from ocean to ocean and with all of her entrancing beauty. Does America have ideals?

THE CONSTITUTION

HERBERT WENIG, LOS ANGELES, CALIF., WINNER, INTERNATIONAL
HIGH SCHOOL ORATORICAL TROPHY, 1926

There is a movement in our schools known as the National Oratorical Contest which seeks to teach the necessity of maintaining that democracy which allows education and thought to flourish, and of teaching patriotism and citizen responsibility to the government. The field of education is daily becoming wider, and the teaching of patriotism and citizenship is just as important a part of the school curriculum as the proverbial three R's. But the teacher must do more than teach; he must imbue the student with a love of country. The year 1927 witnesses the fourth National Oratorical Contest.

The first International Oratorical Contest was held in Washington on last October 15. On that occasion five boys representing Great Britain, France, Mexico, Canada and the United States, speaking in different tongues, spoke on their respective governments and institutions. On that occasion a bond of understanding and good will was formed. But that was but the beginning, but the basis. Rather do I prefer to look forward ten years hence to another International Oratorical Contest, and there I believe you will see the true basis for the realization of that world ideal when race will live alongside of race, nation will help nation, and man love man, when the war drums will roll no longer, and the battle flags will remain unfurled in the Parliament of Man, the Federation of the World.

My oration today is the one which I delivered at the National Oratorical Contest in Washington on June 4, and which I delivered again

at the International Oratorical Contest in Washington on October 15.

From the beginning of recorded time, the force that has propelled civilization onward has been man's desire for freedom. When that desire fails, the nations must give up hope.

Born beneath the sunny skies of Greece, nurtured in England's island empire, fostered in the United States by the men who had to write our Constitution, their greatest task was met by those men who in May, 1787, in the city of Philadelphia took up the task of consolidating and perpetuating our Constitution, for the crown and the consummation of freedom's forward march was the American Constitution.

Look with me at that group of men who in four months wrought out of the chaos and the confusion of the Confederation a Constitution for all time. Into that Constitution went the wisdom of Franklin, the majesty of Washington, the vision of Hamilton, and the legal learning of James Madison. It had as its inspiration the dash and the vigor of the Minute Men at Lexington and Concord, the courage in the battery smoke of Bunker Hill, the prayers at Valley Forge, and the patriotic sacrifice in the ice and snow along the frozen Brandywine.

For the first time since governments had been instituted among men that Constitution provided for a government whose base was in the bedrock of the God-given rights of the individual. For the first time a government had been formed which protected its citizens against the encroachments of class and arbitrary power. For the first time man's desire for freedom found complete fulfilment in the Constitution of the United States.

In its check and balance system, safety is assured; in its presidential message and presidential veto, in its representative initiative and senatorial clarification, in its judicial review for constitutional violation, and finally in its amendatory prerogative, the Constitution furnishes to the United States of America the greatest written guide for law making and potential progress ever devised by the human mind. And almost as a part of the covenant itself, incarnate and forever enshrined, a Bill of Rights guarantees to the individual his life, liberty and property, undisturbed except by due process of law.

One hundred and thirty-eight years have passed since Washington took the oath of office to uphold that Constitution; one hundred and thirty-eight years of constitutional blessing to America is the gift of the immortal men of '87.

My fellow countrymen, only an American, one who knows our history, can feel the sacred symbolism of that Constitution; only one whose soul is steeped in the spirit of the far-off days, when the old Meeting House in Philadelphia felt the throb of the great hearts of the Constitutional Fathers can understand. What solemn obligation ours to teach those who come amongst us from foreign shores and who often, all too often, come to scoff because they do not understand. Here is our duty and here is our obligation, too; for those who do not know must be enlightened, and

those who do not care must be taught to love our institutions and the Constitution by which they live. And for those who come with hatred in their hearts, ladies and gentlemen, no words of mine could fully express the indignation which should rouse every true American heart to stand on guard as they did on Concord Bridge who gave to us our flag, our country, our Constitution.

For this sacred Constitution the soul of the great John Marshall still speaks to us from his tomb. At the foot of the storied statue of the immortal Chief Justice, within the shadow of our Capitol's dome, in grateful remembrance the American people shall always kneel in devout recognition of the vigor and vitality he wrote into our national document. For this flag, for this country and this Constitution, Webster's voice still reverberates in the old Senate Chamber. Grant fought before Vicksburg for this Union and this Constitution; Lincoln wept, prayed, and died.

The flag, says Justice Holmes, is but a piece of bunting to one who insists on prose. Oh! but its red is our lifeblood, its stars our world, its blue our heaven. It owns our land at will; it throws away our lives. Without the Constitution there would be no flag with its beautiful symbolism, there would be no united country, no Supreme Court to safeguard our liberties. Without the Constitution there would be no American Republic founded upon equality, no justice founded upon law, there would be no representation founded upon the ballots of a free people. Was there ever a document like this? Was there ever such a challenge to intelligent citizenship? Was there ever a martyrdom so sweet as death for its perpetuity?

The past has given us this Constitution. Let us guard with hallowed hand our inheritance and transmit it to the generations yet to come, with no blot from our neglect and no blemish from our misdeeds.

The indifference which exists today toward our government institutions must be replaced by a spirit of interest upon the part of an intelligent and courageous citizenry. We must exercise that eternal vigilance which is the price of liberty. If our Constitution is to remain a vital, living organism of government, if we are to hand down to posterity a constitution stronger and better because we have lived under it, you and I must stand sentinel at the gate of constitutional promise, guarding our education and our Constitution. For there are real dangers appearing on the horizon. Today disturbing reports reach us of the activities of organizations seeking to teach the necessity for a new national constitution. We are asked to throw away our Constitution and to replace it with another made to satisfy the personal and selfish desires of class.

Ladies and gentlemen, if ever such a call comes, may every true citizen set his face like flint against the change and with universal voice let us bring back the answer, Remove not the ancient landmark which thy fathers have set!

The pages of this sacred document are fast crumbling away, but their meaning and their significance are carried in your hearts and in mine.

baptized by our fathers' blood, consecrated by our mothers' tears, dedicated to immortality by the sacrifice and prayers of a free people. May our Constitution stand, the sacred embodiment of the soul of the American people, the charter of peace on earth, good will to men.

THE BIRTHRIGHT OF AMERICA'S CHILDREN

SARAH LOUISE ARNOLD, NATIONAL PRESIDENT, GIRL SCOUTS, LINCOLN,
MASS.

When Helen Keller, blind, deaf, dumb, an imprisoned soul, found her teacher, she began to understand, and when that silent child began to ask questions about the beginnings of things, about God and His message for her, they led her to Phillips Brooks, the great teacher. He talked with the child and answered her questions, and when he had done she looked up into his face and said to her teacher with her finger language, "Ah, but this I have always known. How did it come?"

I shall bring to you a very simple message. As I have been thinking of it I have been seeing three pictures. The first is of that twin brother who came back from the hunt laden with the toll of his hunting, tired, hungry, as he smelled the pottage that his brother who stayed at home had been served. "Give me of your pottage," he said, and the brother answered him, "What will you give? Your birthright?"

"Anything," answered Esau, and he gave his birthright for a mess of pottage.

The story has followed down the years. How can we help it today? My answer is only a hint, and you will say when I am done, "Ah, that is what we have always known."

My title really is "Safeguarding the Birthright of America's Children." How can it be safeguarded?

The next picture which I want you to see is that of a small boy, the son of a professor in the West. The absent-minded father took the child with him when he went into a book store, and after he had sought his wares at the various counters he went home and left the boy. The small lad, half frightened, yet knowing what to do, went out into the street, and when he met a policeman he said to him, "Mister Policeman, have you seen any man walking around here without his little boy?" Let us hope he found his father. That is where he belonged—with his great teacher.

But the third picture of which I shall be thinking as I speak my few paragraphs is that which I found in the Grand Canyon long ago. It was a picture of an Indian chief sitting at the door of his wigwam, if that is what one calls the door, and prone on the sands before him was the Indian lad, lying flat, with his chin in his hands, and looking up into the face of his chief, who was safeguarding the birthright of the lad by telling him the story of the tribe. How does it come?

In the heart of youth is that infinite longing, that urge, that asking of the hungry heart, and we are told that it is the asking soul that shall receive, it is the seeking soul that shall find. In the heart of youth, as the

blind and deaf and dumb Helen Keller proved, is heard that voice of God urging the child onward and forward to the thing that is to be, hungry, how hungry to know.

Next to that divine hunger is the hunger in your heart and mine to safeguard the youth in his search for his ideals and to insure his finding when he seeks, and his hearing and receiving when he asks. Seek and ye shall find. Ask and ye shall receive. How can we make the promise true to him?

First and foremost let me say that there is no greater error into which we can fall than to think of education in the terms merely of the school and to assume to ourselves the only part in this marvelous process which we call education. Schooling is not the whole of it. All life is a climbing toward understanding. We thank heaven that in the heart of youth has been placed that undying desire to know, that will enable him to be taught. It is because of what he brings to the school that the school is able to give him its most precious gift.

I sat once as a pupil in the railway station at Springfield, Massachusetts. It was during the war, when we were at work all times of the day and night. The station was crowded, and there was a heavy storm outside. I heard the door bang, and I looked to see a young mother leading in a little girl of four or five, beribboned, becurled, wet, dripping from head to toe. The dear old Irish woman who had been teaching me, sitting beside me and telling me what she had learned in life, handkerchief on her head and shawl over her shoulders, and a face beautiful with understanding, turned to me, looked into my eyes and said, "You can't learn 'em nothin' because they don't want to know nothin'." Ah, how I've loved it ever since.

Heaven be praised for that urge in the heart of youth that wants to know, that wants to be taught. If there is any miracle on the face of the earth it is when you and I help youth to want it more. That is the victory in our teaching.

Along with us in this adventure in understanding which we call education are those other great teachers of whom I want to say one word. The home, ah, the indispensable one; the school, we have always had it and known it; the church, we must maintain it; the task, do we ever give it its due? Then the neighbor without whom we should never come into our own; and God's out-of-doors. These are all part and parcel of the birth-right of America's children, and you and I have done our work only when we have helped to make the home better and have multiplied its teachings and redeemed its weaknesses, when we have enabled the neighbor to lend a hand and have understood the one who lives next door before trying to teach his children and his children's children, and when we have bowed reverently with those who remember that God is in His heaven and is the light of His world, and when we have toiled with those who work from sun to sun, almost, to earn the bread for their children, and when we too have been taught in God's out-of-doors.

It was in Oregon when we had been having a week's session of their state teachers, 8000 of them, that we sang at the end of the session, "My Country 'Tis of Thee," and all at once there came to me in the heart of

that great throng the consciousness that I had sung into the woods and rills and templed hills only those of New England, and there I was in the heart of the great Rockies, with their sky above and their earth below, and all at once I knew that that, too, was my country. As I have seen your broad dome of sky and your far-reaching plains down here in the South, I have thought that I do not envy them to you, I share them with you, and I love my country more and sing into that hymn more because I know your priceless treasures. Ah, God's out-of-doors must be the heritage of America's children.

Now only a word as to each and to ourselves. We have done our part not when we have graduated our boys and girls and counted their credits and given them all that the law requires. Ah, unless we know the heart and spirit of their homes we can never speak their language.

In a great city where my work for seven years was with the public schools, as I visited a teacher I saw a little waif come in from what we called the entry where the children's cloaks were hung. The teacher looked down at her feet as the child slipped in late, and said, "Mary, you didn't take off your rubbers."

Mary said, "No, mother told me not to."

"I don't care what your mother said. Go out and take off your rubbers."

How it hurt then and how it hurts now to think that any one of us could forget that our highest duty to Mary is to help her to love and to understand the teachings of that home from which she comes.

I hope that always and always as the days go on, those of us who administer and those of us who teach will realize the sacredness of the teaching of the home, the rightness of its traditions, and the hope of the country that lies in our making it more sacred, more true, more intelligent, and more and more the first and always the best teacher of our youth.

Then the school we deal with in passing is to take the neighbor who interprets life for us and leads us beyond this little circle in which we have grown up.

When I was a little girl and went berrying I went after huckleberries and blueberries growing low on the ground, and each and every one of us ran to the place where we thought the berries were thickest drew a circle with a fat forefinger, and said, "This is my spot." That is the beginning of understanding.

Another picture of our later growth is the prayer of the man who said, "Bless me and my wife, my son John and his wife, us four and no more."

It we have good neighbors we grow to understand that no life can be pure in its purpose and strong in its strife without them, and all life ought to be stronger and purer thereby. It is our neighbors who teach us; as we go out more and more we discover that all of us are neighbors. Texas will be nothing less than a neighbor from this day on to Massachusetts and Maine and Oregon. How good for all of us that we walk abroad amongst our fellowmen and travel far and wide and find them all to be neighbors. And our teaching will fail, too, unless we understand the work of our fellowmen, those who work in the factory and in the field.

Recently in Washington we had a very remarkable document written by a man who looked into the heart of the farmer and looked into the heart of the shopmen and dared to say what he thought was right, seeing the whole field, and remembering that everybody is there and climbing toward understanding. If he tried to help us all to understand it was because he himself is beginning to read the hearts of men more clearly than ever before, and is seeing what it means for men at their work to face the obstacles that their very work brings to them. Oh what long patience and what depth of understanding must come before we can half begin to understand the problems of toil. And beside that put this truth, which will always be a truth, that there is no more sacred teacher given to humanity than toil itself. The child is to be congratulated who has to do a genuine work that the world needs and who is taught by his school to do that work better than it has ever been done before. Heaven bless the task and teach us as teachers to interpret the task truly to the hearts of our children as a blessing and not as a curse, as an indispensable teacher without whom the words of our books are idle in the extreme.

Then the blessing of the out-of-doors. Go back to your New Testament and read it again and take out of it every word that refers to God's out-of-doors, and then see how much you would understand of its teachings. "Behold the fowls of the air," "Seedtime and harvest shall not fail," on and on and on, and your thought goes back again and again and again to the thing that helped you to understand. Out under the wide sky, or there in the shade of the woods, or sitting beside what would be with us a brown brook, but not quite like your brown brook, bathing your feet in it and loving the whisper of the leaves in the trees, you were being taught by God Himself, and there is no other teaching like that.

If you were living in the heart of Massachusetts as I must be today, and if you were seeing the rural population dwindling and the children hurried into the towns to live, if you were seeing, as you would in New York or Chicago, children playing in the canyons that we call streets, sitting on the curbstone in the crowd, then you would understand about the little lad who went out with his mother for a country week, sent out from the city by wise-minded, charitable people, and who, as his mother came on the hilltop with him, pulled her skirt and whispered to her, "Mother, the sky is round!" The child had seen only an arc from the bottom of those deep-walled streets of New York. Think what we have taken out of the lives of the children when we have defrauded them of this great birthright, this one great tongue through which God speaks to the children of men.

Whatever may happen down here, don't build Dallas so high and so close that your children will forget that the sky is round.

That is all. It does not matter whether we say more or less. We are part and parcel of the teaching universe. We work with the home, with the shop, with the country; we work with the fields and the winds and the sky, and we are here helping to teach God's truth.

The method? I don't dare to say to you, after many years, with heated discussion of method at almost every one of your meetings, that I have come

to think it doesn't matter much how they come and go, still we are slowly, yes, slowly, climbing toward understanding. But the thing that does matter is that we ourselves are safeguarding the birthright of the children and answering the askings of their hearts by living the lives that we long to have them live, and that is the only answer.

Through purer and finer and sweeter and kinder homes, through honest tasks well done, through giving and maintaining always to them the sky that is round and the air that is pure and the world that God made, not shutting them into the canyons that men make, then we shall help children to come into their birthright, we shall have sacredly guarded it, and that cannot be done except as we reverently guard in our own hearts those deepest askings, those heaven-sent askings for our own souls.

THE KEY THAT UNLOCKS THE DOOR OF UNDER- STANDING

MRS. PERCY V. PENNYBACKER, AUSTIN, TEXAS

We are today the most disliked nation on earth. This does not mean that visitors from the United States are badly treated; this does not necessarily mean that we deserve unpopularity; but it is the truth, and thinking people are willing to face the truth. Some of us say: "We don't care. We are absolutely independent of the rest of the world. It makes no difference to us what they think." But is this true? You care and I care. It is only natural that we should. We want to be on good terms with our neighbors in the communities where we live. We don't ask flattery or fulsome praise, but we are human, which implies we like for others to feel kindly towards us. In my home town of Austin for three years some man has been selected as the most worthy citizen. He has always been one who served his fellow man, sharing all blessings that came his way; he has always been a sympathetic neighbor—loved, trusted, respected by his community. Is the United States a sympathetic neighbor in the family of nations? Or are we standing outside the broad door that opens into the shining highway of understanding, down which we must all travel to bring lasting peace. The key to this door is sympathetic knowledge of other nations. You, the teachers of our Republic, are the forgers of this key.

Today we must know real conditions in other lands. My judgments may be wrong, but I beg you to share with me a few impressions formed in 1925 and 1926. Come first to beautiful Salzburg, Austria. From the moment of our arrival we were impressed by the friendliness of the people. If one asked his way, at least five people answered. Everywhere we met signs of poverty, signs of a kind of hopelessness, because no one can understand what is to become of Austria, since the great treaty did not leave her enough territory to support her cities. Max Reinhardt, whom we all admire for the creation of *The Miracle* loves Salzburg: each summer, he spends weeks presenting there the choicest plays and most alluring music. Day after day we went, each day seeming to reach the climax. The dramatic artists of the German speaking world gave their services, for it

is considered an honor to serve under Reinhardt and to work out the vivid creations of his art. The Austrians were unable to attend most of these performances on account of their poverty, but this seemed to arouse no ill will. It moved us deeply to see the adoration of even the rank and file for beauty, harmony, and exquisite setting. This was all the more remarkable, because down beneath the surface, they were sad. We saw many coming at midday into the restaurants bringing their bit of bread and perhaps a slice of cheese, ordering only something to drink. They fear cold and hunger. The war is to them a horrible memory.

Germany came next. Far back in 1909 we had spent a happy year in Munich. Now we heard that all South Germany was hostile to the United States. We could not believe this because the Bavarians had been noted for their friendliness and a certain sympathy of understanding, so we resolved to go back and see for ourselves. Fair Munich impresses one as living under a shadow, but her people are still kind. Buildings are neglected; there is no money to keep fresh the ornamental facades. The comfortable pension where we were housed gave delightful rooms, with three perfectly cooked meals, for two dollars per day. The landlady was struggling to make ends meet, for ten of her eighteen rooms were vacant. Two German friends asked us to dinner. We found that this was the second time since the war that they had entertained guests. Their most bitter memories concerned the suffering endured by their grandchildren. One little grandson will never be of normal strength because his mother was undernourished before his birth, and he himself for a year and a half afterward. No baby of more than seven months in Germany was allowed milk. They described how the food blockade on England's part crushed them into deepest suffering; how the morale of the German army was destroyed by letters from wives and mothers telling of the starvation of the children. Germany has passed through deep waters, but she has a more hopeful attitude than either France or England. She stabilized her mark, although this meant, literally, the destruction of the property of the middle class. One can picture the feeling of those who had saved for old age, when the investments made in governmental bonds so decreased in value that one had left only bare existence where plenty had seemed assured. Germany has now become partly accustomed to her republican form of government. There is little strife in Germany between labor and capital. Most of the people have work, though there is more unemployment than we realize.

The picture in France is more dark. The franc has no fixed value. The small moneyed people have loaned their government some twenty-five billions of dollars. In order to stabilize the franc, in all probability, this middle class must be reduced from moderate comfort to poverty. A great Frenchman told me that he saw no possibility of the franc's being stabilized at more than four cents, but even that would be better than the present uncertainty. Think what it means when one never knows in the morning what the unit of currency will be worth at twelve o'clock. France has no settled leadership. It is encouraging to note, however, that France and Germany are growing more and more to realize that they have much in

common, and that economically they must stand together. The French have work; but France is grey today with despair. She knows that when her money does assume a fixed value her foreign trade will decrease and many will be idle. I heard from many, many sides, "How cold we shall be this winter because of England's strike and our depleted currency!"

England presents a still gloomier picture. To be sure, long ago she stabilized her pound sterling; but, to do that, she increased her domestic debt until now her taxes are unbelievably enormous. Labor and capital are arrayed against each other. The coal strike, so long drawn out, sent dismay to all groups. Her unemployment problem more than two million with nothing to do with the makeshift of the dole brings ten thousand terrors in its train. Long ago she gritted her teeth and without a murmur refunded her war debt to us; and what terms did we grant her? Added to this, Great Britain's critics rise on every side. Ireland is always ready with an additional stab, and this summer several of the other nations of the League never lost an opportunity to take a fling at the British Empire.

It is a sad, sad world in Europe today. If returning visitors, who perhaps stopped at hotels where they saw only other foreigners, tell you that things seem quite as they were before the war, or that the people are happy and prosperous, I beg that you do some investigating on your own responsibility before accepting their verdict. The people are literally obsessed with terror of the cold and the uncertainty of food; war is to them a diabolical nightmare. While these conditions exist, they know that across the ocean there is a great Republic rolling in wealth. It is hard to convince them that any of us Americans must practice economy. They read of our lavish living and then they think of what life has dealt out to them. You know human nature well enough to realize that no one likes to have enormous prosperity come to a neighbor while hard trial and rigid poverty are his lot. They admit that we have been most generous in our philanthropies. They are willing to give us full credit for this, but they ask themselves again and again, "Why did the United States desert us in our hour of greatest need just after the war? When the American Republic has all the money it needs and more than it needs, when it is the great money-lender of the world, why will she insist upon our paying the money loaned us to carry on the war, the goal of which was, as she herself said, to save civilization for the world? "When we borrowed to repair war wastes and ravages (which happily she was spared) what became of the money? Where did we spend it? Did it not go to increase her colossal trade and thus add to her wealth?" I am not defending their opinion. I am only trying to show their side, for we must study questions from every angle. More and more are other nations realizing that they must come to an understanding one nation with the other. More and more do they despair of the United States in her aloofness being a helpful agent in bringing order out of chaos.

Let us turn now from these more or less dark pictures to Beautiful Geneva, that each September opens wide her doors to the meeting of the Council and the Assembly of the League of Nations. One cannot linger

in Geneva, one cannot enter even the Secretariat without being thrilled. In the space of five minutes I heard nine different languages. I saw a conference arranged between people from South Africa and Norway; a luncheon set up between visitors from China and South American Countries; everywhere one saw people journeying down the road of understanding; everywhere one saw men and women meeting around a council table to talk over amicably problems on which they differed. This has grown to be called "the atmosphere of Geneva."

The great day in the Assembly of 1926 was that never-to-be-forgotten Friday, September 10. The sun shone as if glad to have a part in such a day. Long before the time of meeting the Hall of the Reformation was packed from top to bottom. Even downstairs, where the elect of the earth are supposed to be, people were standing in the aisle, crowding everywhere; no one entered without a ticket. The second gallery looked suffocating, except for the press sections, and they were bad enough, while the top was simply a seething mass of eager spectators gathered from the four corners of the earth. Calmly, the President called for the report of the Committee on Credentials. The chairman stated that the Committee had examined the credentials of the German Reich and found them to be perfect; whereupon, the President said "I now call upon the delegates of Germany to take their place among us." A side door opened and in filed the German delegation; the spot lights of the world flashed upon them; there was unanimous and prolonged applause from the Assembly. After a few words of welcome to the new delegates, the President said, "I now call upon Herr Gustav Stresemann, first delegate of Germany, to address the Assembly. He is requested to mount the platform." A moment more and there stood before us the representative of the German Reich. He is a man of good presence and excellent voice. He was logical, serene, dignified, free from all bombast, all mock humility, blest, however, with no marked charm of personality.

His was a most trying position, but he measured up to it, and the audience showed a certain fine appreciation. He was wise enough to say nothing to offend, and thus disappointed those who were looking for trouble. He indicated that "Germany would like to see the League of Nations stress economic problems and hasten to remove barriers and to bridge over the gulf separating different national economic systems."

Great applause came at these words: "The Divine Architect of the world has not created mankind as a homogenous whole; he has made the nations of different races; he has given them their mother tongue as an expression of their spirit; he has given them countries with different characteristics as their homes. But it cannot be the purpose of the Divine world-order that men should direct their supreme national energies against one another, thus ever thrusting back the general progress of civilization. He will serve humanity best who, firmly rooted in the faith of his own people, develops his moral and intellectual gifts to their highest significance, thus overstepping his own national boundaries and serving the whole of mankind." He closed with "May the great destinies of the League of Nations be ful-

filled on the basis of the lofty conceptions of peace, freedom, and unity. It is the firm resolve of Germany to assist whole heartedly in that task."

Again the President spoke: "I now call upon Monsieur Briand, first delegate of France, to address the Assembly."

Then the crowd went wild. Few statesmen have received such an ovation. It was so spontaneous that you knew the man was tenderly beloved and fundamentally admired. The highest praise that can be paid is to say that Monsieur Briand excelled himself. He was a true orator, he had logic, he had pathos, he had wit. What a blessing it is to be able to cause smiles just after you have brought tears. You knew Briand meant what he said. His whole body yielded itself to the deep emotion that stirred his heart. He was alive to his finger-tips and his audience responded to every motion. He played upon us like a harp. He did not hesitate to turn directly to the German delegates and speak to them as man to man. I wish my countrymen would read every word he said. There is so much that belongs to all of us. It is a great human document. Listen:

Generally speaking it is not the people themselves that are to blame for war, but their leaders. Let us, therefore, make the leaders, and through them the people, whom they direct, understand that it is in arbitration and the acceptance of the reign of law that hope lies for the future and for the peace of the World! That is the spirit that inspires Germany, and I am very happy to be able to welcome Germany here. This day it means no more mourning, no more suffering, now that we have accepted a judge and will appeal to the law; when we want to settle our disputes, we will go before the courts like private individuals and we will no longer regard rifles and cannons as our best arguments. It is not only heroism on the battlefield that makes a country great, it becomes even greater if it can show patience and appeal to law rather than to force to protect its interests. We need no further demonstration of heroism and no more does Germany. We have both shown heroism in the past; there is glory enough for both. We have had enough of the glory of the battlefields to satisfy both countries. Let us now seek peace.

It is generally acknowledged that Briand's speech has never been excelled in the history of the League and that Friday morning was a supreme moment.

While I was deeply touched by this whole scene, yet I was more profoundly moved by the effect that this Friday morning had upon the atmosphere of the Assembly. Up to that time, the delegates had been more or less depressed; but out of the spirit of such noble eloquence hope was born; trust took the place of distrust; delegates and visitors alike were lead from the dark valleys to the mountain tops and caught there a glimpse of the Promised Land.

This meeting will go down in the annals of history not alone for the admission of Germany into the League, but for two other great achievements: the Assembly voted to hold an Economic World Conference; also to call a conference for the study of the beginning of limitation of armaments: these are decided steps toward bringing about understanding between the nations, which is only another way of saying towards the bringing of lasting peace.

*THE EVOLUTION OF A SUBSTITUTE FOR WAR, AND HOW
AMERICA MAY SHARE IN IT WITHOUT BE-
COMING ENTANGLED IN EUROPEAN
POLITICAL AFFAIRS*

JOHN H. CLARKE, FORMER ASSOCIATE JUSTICE OF THE UNITED STATES
SUPREME COURT, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Just about 100 years ago, in 1818, when a case involving the atrocious murder of a young girl was called for trial in the court of the King's Bench in London, the defendant arose and addressing the judges said in substance, "I demand trial by battle." No such demand had been made in a British court for three centuries, and the judges were amused at first, but when they saw the man was in earnest they adjourned the hearing, and after looking into the cases, announced that the case being what it was and the demand having been made in the form in which it had been made, the defendant was entitled, under the laws of England, to trial by battle.

The battle was never fought because the prosecuting witness, the appellee, was not as belligerent as the defendant and declined to fight, and so the case was dismissed.

That was the last case in which trial by battle was allowed in any court in England, because the whole Empire was so shocked when it realized that such a barbarous method of trial had been continued as a legal institution almost to the end of the first quarter of the nineteenth century that the statute was promptly repealed.

But now, ladies and gentlemen, although this method of trial by battle has not been in actual use for many centuries, I hope it will interest you for me to describe it very briefly. During the last two or three hundred years in which trial by battle was allowed, it was permitted only in certain cases of murder and in certain cases involving the ownership of land. Whenever it was allowed the case was set down for trial on a given day and on that day the judges, the court officers, the parties, and you may be sure a great crowd of spectators, adjourned to a near-by field to fight it out. The parties were each given a staff or club and a leather shield, and thus armed they were ordered to fight to a conclusion. If the man charged with murder was able to beat down his adversary to the earth until he cried "enough," or if not able to do that he was able to maintain the fight until in the evening when the stars came out, he was solemnly adjudged to be innocent, and if the man in possession of land was able to beat down the claimant to the earth until he cried enough, or if not able to do that he was able to maintain the fight until in the evening when the stars came out, he was solemnly adjudged to be the owner of the land.

Women had some rights in those days—even the right to trial by battle, but since women in general are not so strong physically as men, provision was made in the trial to compensate for this difference. The man was

buried in the earth up to his waist and his left hand was tied behind his back, and then he was given a mace, which as I make out was a small club. The woman was free as to her bodily movements, but she was not given a club; but only a stone tied in a piece of cloth, or, as the old cases call it, a piece of "stuff," for a weapon, and thus armed they fought.

It doesn't take much imagination to see an athletic woman dancing about a man buried up to his waist in the earth, avoiding his blows and trying to get in a blow in her own behalf, but careful all the time to keep in condition to keep up the fight until in the evening when the stars should come out and she would be declared innocent.

Now how preposterous! How utterly absurd! How irrational all this seems today as a method for determining whether a man was guilty of a crime or whether or not he owned a piece of land. And yet this is precisely the method to which thirty civilized nations resorted between 1914 and 1919 for the purpose of determining where the justice, the right, and the righteousness of the differences that had arisen between them lay. It is the amazing truth that Britain and France, Germany and Austria, assembled great armies on fields of battle and great navies upon the high seas for the purpose of fighting until one or the other should cry "enough" and thus determine where the right and the righteousness of dispute between them lay. Yet more amazing, if possible, is the fact that not one of those thirty nations would have permitted any two of its own citizens to resort to this method for settling a dispute between themselves. If they had resorted to trial by battle they would have been arrested and punished for offending against the peace and dignity of the commonwealth. Thus all of the civilized nations resorted to a method for settling their international disputes which resulted in the greatest slaughter known to human history, when not one of them would have permitted two of its own citizens to resort to the same method to settle a private quarrel.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, we all know that the World War produced a great many desperately unfortunate results, but it produced some good results, also, and I think the very best result of the World War was that it convinced not only the statesmen of many nations, but the peoples of many nations that resort to modern science has rendered war so destructive of life and property that unless our civilization shall find some means of making an end of war, the next war will very certainly make an end of our civilization.

Since we are a people of short memories, I think it is worth while to ask you to let me recall in a few words the evidence upon which this fateful conclusion was reached by all the nations in the world except Russia, Turkey and alas! our own United States.

Seven million five hundred thousand of the youth of the world were killed in battle during those four years of dreadful war; 5,500,000 more were so desperately wounded that they died within a few days after the battles, so that it is fair to say that the battle deaths of that war were

13,000,000 young men. Of course, it is impossible for the mind to grasp what such great numbers mean, except when aided by illustration. It may help us to realize what the slaughter of 13,000,000 young men means, to remember that the number is just about equal to the aggregate population of the cities of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Detroit, and Chicago as they were in 1920—the loss was as great as would have been the blotting out of all the men, women and children of all of those great cities. It was more than that, because the aggregate of the census of those seven cities includes the old, the middle aged and the young, but the 13,000,000 who died were all young men, all under twenty-five years of age, most of them under twenty, and all of them medically selected for the sacrifice.

Twenty millions more were wounded, not mortally, but so seriously that death will be a happy release to many of them, come it soon or late. Never was there such slaughter in the history of the world before in the same length of time.

Consider for a moment the destruction of property. The direct losses of property are estimated by the best authorities at \$186,000,000,000; the indirect losses at \$151,000,000,000, or \$337,000,000,000 in all. The mind cannot grasp such totals, but by comparison let me say that it is as great a destruction of property as if the United States, with all that we possess, had been sunk to the bottom of the sea by an earthquake or other calamity. Never was there such destruction of property before in the history of the world.

These are among the facts that convinced more than fifty nations that unless our civilization can find some means of making an end of war, modern war will make an end of our civilization.

Let me now remind you, just in a word, of what the next war will be if it is permitted to come. Military men all over the world are writing about it, and this in barest outline is something of what they say. Submarine boats have already become undersea men-of-war, with greatly increased power and sailing radius and armament for destruction. I wonder how many of you saw the recent picture of the latest British submarine as it appeared in the New York Times, a huge affair, carrying two great six-inch guns, and oil enough to drive her across the Atlantic and back again without refueling. Tanks have become land battleships to add to the horror of the struggle in the field. Airplanes of constantly increasing power, sailing radius and armament for destruction are being devised to carry death and destruction to the women and children remote from the battle front as certainly as to those in the trenches of the fields. Bombs are already in use a hundred times more destructive than any used in the late war, and gases (some say they have already been devised, others say they can be produced upon demand), so deadly that when compressed into small compass and dropped from the air or fired from long-range guns, expanding by their own force, they will smother whole armies and cities in a single night.

Facts such as these have made the conviction general that the next war, if it be permitted to come, will inevitably make an end of our civilization. Let us now consider how all this has impressed the other nations, and what, if anything, they have been doing during the last eight years for the purpose of avoiding the coming of another world war.

There can be no doubt at all that every representative of the victorious nations who went to Paris to formulate the treaty of peace, went there with the express and implied instruction from his nation to do all in his power to devise some substitute for war, some rational substitute for the irrational method of settling international disputes by trial by battle. And so the very first thing they undertook to do was to frame a constitution for a new institution to occupy an entirely new field, to accomplish the entirely new purpose of making an end of war. This institution they called the League of Nations, and the constitution of it they called the Covenant of the League of Nations. It consists of 26 short articles, the first 26 of the 440 articles of the Treaty of Peace.

The dominating provision of the constitution or Covenant of the League of Nations is the agreement upon the part of each nation not to go to war with any other, until the subject of dispute shall first have been submitted to the Council of the League of Nations for investigation, until the Council shall have published a report recommending a basis for settlement, and until three months shall have passed after the publication of that report.

This was a great advance upon anything that had gone before in the history of the race. It furnished not only the cooling off period of the Bryan Peace Treaties, but it went further and thus provided that before any nation should go to war with any other member nation it should submit the dispute to the members of the Council of the League for investigation and report. That is to say, they must come to a council-table where the parties would be confronted not only by their immediate adversaries, but where there would be many representatives of other nations who would have no interest in the controversy except to find a just settlement of it and to prevent war.

There never was anything like this in the history of the world before—a provision that before statesmen should break away in pride or anger and go to war, as they did in 1914, they must sit down at a council-table and discuss the subject with the representatives of eight nations, fourteen now, and always of the great nations.

It was believed, and is still believed, that this will serve to prevent many wars. But please observe that if a nation submits to the required delay, and investigation, it may still go to war if it chooses to do so over the dispute, that is to say, while the Covenant of the League has provisions for preventing war, it still recognizes war, trial by battle, as one of the legal methods under international law, for settling disputes between nations. That was as far as the statesmen of the world could be induced

to go in 1919, even in the shadow of the great war, for the purpose of securing world peace.

No men understood better than the men who framed that constitution or Covenant of the League of Nations that it would be necessary to supplement it by other treaties defining more definitely than was possible in a constitution the circumstances which would amount to a violation of it, and how the various nations are to be notified when there has been such a violation that it is proper for them all to unite against the treaty-breaking state, and various other provisions. They fully realized that the general principles of the Covenant must be supplemented by treaties, further defining the rights and obligations and duties of the various nations. And further no one understood better than those statesmen who carried the great nations to a successful issue of the war that permanent peace was impossible except with a reduction of armaments, and therefore, realizing that permanent peace is impossible except national armaments be reduced to the lowest point consistent with national safety and with the enforcement by common action of international obligations, they direct the Council to formulate a plan for the reduction of armaments. And one of the first acts of the Council was to appoint a committee to devise a plan for the reduction of armaments and to report it back to the nations for discussion and acceptance or rejection.

It seemed a very simple thing (there seem to be many statesmen at Washington who still think it a very simple thing) to assemble the representatives of nations about a table and require each one to cut down its armament to a point which the others may think satisfactory to them, and thus cause the reduction which would make permanent peace possible. But as soon as serious study began, it was found that it was one of the most difficult problems to which statesmen had ever addressed themselves. They made little progress throughout a whole year, although the committee was made up of as able men as could be found in the world. Thereupon a second committee was appointed, and the two cooperated for a year and a half, and finally concluded that the most promising prospect for reduction of armaments lay in a Treaty of Mutual Assistance, with various provisions which they outlined to the Assembly of the League of Nations. The Assembly was so impressed by this proposal that they directed the committees to put their views in the form of a treaty and to send it to the various nations for discussion as soon as possible.

This was in September, 1923. The committees thereupon formulated a Treaty of Mutual Assistance and sent it to the nations, asking them to return their views of it promptly so that a report could be made to the next meeting of the Assembly in the following September. But long before September arrived it was apparent that sufficient nations would not accept the treaty to put it into operation or to give it any kind of value. Thus it seemed as if all the study and effort of both of these committees had failed utterly. The League of Nations seemed to have come to an impasse, and its critics, especially in the United States, declared: "The

League always was a visionary project, it is a thing contrived by dreamers and doctrinaires; and now it has failed, and must disintegrate and disappear."

But the statesmen of the member nations realizing that they must find some substitute for war, if they were to save their nations and civilization from destruction, came together in September, 1924, accepting this apparent failure not as a failure, but as a challenge.

Great Britain and France sent their prime ministers, and fourteen other nations sent their ministers of foreign affairs, all under instruction to do everything that was humanly possible to solve this fateful problem.

You remember how they debated for a week, and then referred the subject to two committees with instructions to take into account all that had been done and all that had been said and to report a plan for further action. The result was the Protocol for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes.

I like to think of the Covenant of the League of Nations as the first stage in the evolution or development of a substitute for war. And I wish to describe next the contents of this protocol which I like to think of as the second stage in the development of a substitute for war. As I have said, the Covenant permitted nations, if they would submit to the required delay and discussion, to go to war for final settlement, but the very first declaration of this Protocol was, "All aggressive war constitutes international crime." There never was such a declaration as this made before by responsible statesmen in authentic history. Then it goes forward and pledges the signatories not to be guilty of such a crime under any circumstance and provides that all disputes shall be decided, not by trial by battle, but by reference to the World Court if they are questions of a legal nature, and if not, then by arbitration for which elaborate provision is made.

Without going more into detail here is sufficient to show that this movement toward world peace is simply the effort of the representatives of many civilized nations to carry forward into international affairs the process for settling differences which they have slowly developed through the centuries and have long been using for the settlement of private affairs between their citizens. This can fairly be described as an advance in civilization, an advance away from trial by battle to the use of the processes for the settlement of disputes which civilization has slowly developed.

This Protocol was sent to the various nations for discussion, and it soon appeared that they were not sufficiently civilized to accept it—that sufficient of them were not sufficiently civilized to rise to the level of its declarations. They said that it was too general in its terms and that its obligations were too indefinite, and with Britain in the lead they rejected it.

Then, ladies and gentlemen, came the darkest hour to the friends of peace that had been seen since the day the Armistice was signed. It

looked for a time as if the ablest statesmen of all the civilized nations were wholly unable to solve this problem involving the greatest scourge of the human race. Again the critics of the League all over the world declared that The League of Nations had failed, that there was nothing for it to do but to disintegrate and disappear. I often wonder if the men at Washington and the editors of the newspapers who oppose this effort which the many nations are making to establish The League of Nations realize that it is the only attempt which is being made in all this world to organize the world for peace. I wonder if they realize that if the League fails and disappears, the next generation of young men will stand defenselessly, awaiting the oncoming of another world war vastly more destructive than the last one was, the moral, political, and social effects of which no man can measure.

But just when the heavens were darkest above us, there came a great light from a direction from which it was least expected. The Republic of Germany sent word to the Republic of France that it was ready to enter into an agreement not to invade or attack or make war upon France for many years to come if France would likewise agree not to invade or attack or make war upon Germany. They said: We are willing also to agree that the boundaries between Germany and Belgium and Germany and France shall remain as settled in the Treaty of Versailles; and we are willing to have Britain and Italy join as guarantors of such a treaty.

That was on the ninth of February, 1925. You all remember how the correspondence between France and Germany and Belgium and England and then Poland and Czechoslovakia and Italy resulted in the meeting at Locarno on the fifth of October, 1925. There were present the representatives of Germany and France and Britain and Belgium and Italy, and later of Poland and Czechoslovakia. They were there to try to devise some civilized method for settling disputes that might arise between their nations and thus save them from destruction. The result was the Treaties of Locarno, and there are three principal ones.

When I was in Cincinnati on last Armistice Day, three very bright newspaper men called upon me and asked for the manuscript of the address I was to deliver at noon, and when I said I hadn't any manuscript, they asked me to outline for them what I intended to say.

When I came to Locarno I said to them, "Now you are bright young men, your business is to keep abreast of the times and to know what is going on. I wish you would give me just what you know about the contents of the Locarno Treaties, because I think they are the most important political instruments that have appeared in the world since the Constitution of the United States, and perhaps since long before."

The young men, looked at each other rather sheepishly and finally said, "Well, really we don't know anything about them. We don't know what they contain. We know in a general way that the result of them was that Germany was admitted to the League of Nations, but what they contain we don't know."

Of course, you school teachers all know all about the contents of these Treaties, but I think it will promote what I have to say if I give you just the bare outline of their chief provisions.

First, France and Germany agreed that the boundary lines between Germany and Belgium and Germany and France as prescribed by the Peace Treaties shall be inviolably maintained. Next they agree that the stipulations concerning the demilitarized zone east of the Rhine shall be observed. Then France agrees with Germany and Germany with France that neither will in any case attack, invade or in any manner make war upon the other, but that having thus abolished the method of settling differences by trial by battle all disputes that may arise hereafter between them shall be referred to a Commission of Conciliation, to a Board of Arbitration or to the Council of the League of Nations for final settlement, and they finally agree to abide by the results whatever they may be. This is the substance of the agreement between France and Germany in what is called the Locarno Treaty or Compact of Mutual Assistance.

Then Great Britain and Italy sign, agreeing that if France shall attack Germany or Germany shall attack France in violation of the treaty, they will at once go to the assistance of the nation which is assailed and will lend all their power to bring to terms the treaty breaking state.

Never before was a treaty going such lengths as this in civilized methods signed by great nations capable of waging modern war. Of course, so long as it is obeyed it makes an end of war between France and Germany, and it is to continue in force until the Council of the League shall have concluded by a two-thirds vote that the League is strong enough to give the protection which the Treaty gives, and for a year after such resolution is adopted.

There is in addition a treaty between Germany and Belgium, one between Germany and France, one between Germany and Poland, one between Germany and Czechoslovakia, providing the machinery for submitting all questions of every character to the various peaceful tribunals.

Here, ladies and gentlemen, is one of those triumphs of civilization which have come at such long intervals in the history of this race. It is the deliberate effort of two great, warlike nations to substitute the processes of civilization for a savage system devised in savage times by savage men as a method for settling international disputes.

Such are the Treaties of Locarno. Locarno is a little mountain village, but it will be remembered as long in the annals of peace as Thermopylae, Waterloo, and the River of the Marne are remembered in the annals of war. That village will be described by historians, it will be sung by poets for centuries, because there two great, warlike nations, age-long enemies, agreed in the presence of all mankind to substitute the processes of civilization for the processes of the savage in settling international disputes. These treaties present such a revolutionary change in inter-

national method that there are millions all over the world who believe that they mark the breaking of the dawn of the day of universal peace in the world. Nay, more, they hope that it marks the breaking of the dawn of the day of the complete triumph of Him who was called the Prince of Peace.

The adoption of these treaties constitutes what I like to think of as the third stage in the development of a substitute for war. It had been found that a general Treaty of Mutual Assistance was not acceptable to a sufficient number of nations because its obligations were too general and too indefinite, but in these regional treaties it is now believed the solution of the great problem is to be found, and obviously a very few of them could deal with all of the regions in which serious war is likely to originate.

The Locarno Treaties cover western Europe. Our four-power Pacific Treaty, signed by Japan, France, Great Britain and the United States, can very readily be extended simply by providing that in addition to the present provision, that before going to war the nations shall consult together to find some solution, they shall not go to war at all, but shall submit all question in dispute to some rational tribunal for decision. Such a really slight advance upon the existing treaty would cover the possible war area of the Pacific for a long time to come.

Some day Russia will wake up to the realities of her situation and it will not be difficult to make a treaty that will cover eastern Europe and perhaps Asia as well.

Thus we have a right to hope that the day of general peace may not be far off. But what part have our United States been taking in all this? What part has our great country been taking in this fateful advance of the nations? Candor requires us to say that we have had no part in it at all. I heard Nicholas Murray Butler on the tenth of last January say that our foreign policies have been such since the Armistice that "our great country is today a dangerous derelict, adrift on the high seas of international intercourse, and lying straight across the path of every ship that sails laden with the precious cargo of international friendship and concord."

Elihu Root said on the 28th of last December, that "the League of Nations in the political field and the World Court in the judicial field have rendered the best service in the cause of peace known to the history of civilization; incomparably the best." And then he asked himself: "What have we done to assist in this great movement?" And he replied to his own question: "Nothing at all, no sympathy, no moral support, no brotherhood." Yes, it is literally true, that this powerful, peace loving nation of ours is not only not aiding, but that it is actually and seriously obstructing this supreme effort which many nations are making to organize the world for peace by substituting the processes of civilization for those of the savage in the settling of international disputes.

It may safely be assumed, I think, that ninety percent of the people of

the United States are in favor of world peace, that ninety percent of the people of every other nation of the world are likewise in favor of it, and that we are all anxious to join in a civilized method for securing it. But the difficulty with the friends of peace is that they cannot agree among themselves. We see the end so clearly that each one goes his own way toward it, all overlooking the obstacles.

I think also it must be admitted that in the United States a large part of our people have accepted the result of the elections of 1920 and 1924 as settling for the present that our government must not enter the League of Nations as at present constituted on any terms, and while many of us think this not a fair interpretation of those elections, yet since two Presidents have said that it is, a large majority of our people believe it and will not for the present listen to further discussion of the League. For this reason I wish to propose to you tonight some action on the part of the United States—of you, and men and women like you, which will at least show that we are the friends of world peace and not the enemies of it. It is a very simple program consisting of three proposals which assuredly, if adopted, cannot entangle us in the political affair of Europe.

First, I think the United States should stand by the World Court. I think we are bound by every consideration of national interest and of national honor to stand by the World Court. Of national interest because no nation in the world has more contacts with other nations than we have, and we are sure therefore to have many differences with them, and I agree with Secretary Hughes that the World Court is the best agency that has yet been devised for settling the kind of disputes which fall within the scope of its jurisdiction. And of national honor because for a generation we urged the other nations in every possible way to join us in organizing just such a court.

Fifty nations have accepted the World Court without any reservations at all. Our Senate accepted it with five reservations. The other nations have said four of these reservations are all right and that they accept them cheerfully. With respect to the fifth they say: We think that it was attached under a misapprehension on the part of the Senate. The Senate thought that in order to make a request upon the World Court for an advisory opinion there must be a unanimous vote of the Council of the League of Nations, and therefore they added the reservation that the Court shall not entertain a request for an advisory opinion touching any question in which the United States has or claims to have an interest, without its consent.

The other nations now say: If it shall turn out that a unanimous vote of the Council is necessary to asking for an advisory opinion, we agree that the United States shall have the veto power as provided in its fifth reservation so that it shall be equal to the members of the Council; but if it shall be decided eventually (it has never been decided yet) that a majority is sufficient to request such an opinion, then we are willing that

the United States' vote against it shall have as much weight as the vote of any nation member of the Council or of the Assembly of the League. Such acceptance would place us on a basis of perfect equality with respect to such opinions with the most important nations in the League or the world, and I say that that is all that we as citizens of the United States should ask for.

But the President at Kansas City said that unless the other nations accept our reservations just as written he will have nothing further to do with the Court. I wish to say that I think, and there are many of peace-loving men and women in this country who are with me, that we ought to petition the President of the United States to send this subject back to the Senate with the recommendation that we enter the Court with the modification of the fifth reservation which the other nations propose, or, that if he thinks that is not wise, that he should do as President Harding did, state the conditions which he thinks would fully protect the interests of the United States, and insist upon further action by the Senate.

There never has been a public question before the American people that received such general support, such entirely non-partisan support, as this World Court proposal of President Harding's received from this whole country. The House of Representatives by a vote of 301 for to 28 against urged the Senate to accept it, and the Senate by a vote of 76 for to 17 against did actually accept it, and for us now to desert the Court under these circumstances is not only desertion, it is betrayal of an institution which five Presidents of our country urged the other nations to organize as an agency of peace. If we do not support it now, what must they think of us? They must think that in advocating such a court we have had some ulterior, hidden motive, that we have been perfidious and false, in urging the other nations to join in the organization of it. Surely adhering to this Court of Justice cannot entangle us in European wars.

The second proposal I think I can state best in this way. Under the Treaties of Locarno, France and Germany have agreed not to make war upon each other under any circumstances, but to submit all disputes to arbitration or the World Court. But if either of these nations in violation of its treaty should make war upon the other, the United States would be in precisely the position it was in in 1914, under international law, and we should be perfectly free to trade with either of the nations which would then be warring with each other, subject only to the rules of contraband and the law of blockade. It is recognized throughout all Europe that the chief menace to the success of the Locarno Treaties is the danger that if such a war should be started the United States would insist upon the right of its citizens to trade with the treaty breaking state. I do not believe that is true. I do not believe that any good American citizen believes that our government would insist upon the right of our

citizens to trade with the treaty breaking state, and I know that no political party would dare announce such a policy, but the trouble is the other nations believe it and it is not what the fact is, but what men believe to be the fact that determines the conduct of men and nations.

What can we do to correct this error which imperils the peace of the world? A very simple program of action would correct it. If the President and Congress would declare by joint resolution or otherwise that it will never be the policy of the United States Government to insist on neutral trading rights for our citizens with the citizens of any nation which shall make aggressive war upon another with which it has entered into a treaty agreeing to settle all disputes through the World Court, or by arbitration, it would serve to set us right with the world in this grave matter. It would prevent our being longer considered as a possible ally, associate and friend of treaty breaking states. Again, assuredly such action could not entangle us with Europe, on the contrary it offers the best possible prospect for keeping us out of any war which may be started in Europe by a treaty breaking state.

I should like to see this great and influential body of educators petition the President to take such action as this. Let him profit by the example of Monroe and call upon Congress to make such a declaration in favor of world peace and civilization. And finally I wish to urge all friends of peace to agitate in every way in their power in favor of compulsory arbitration of all disputes between nations, because once again, this is the civilized way of settling them. The concluding of a treaty of compulsory arbitration by our government may seem a long way off but not farther away than a treaty of Locarno seemed to be only two years ago, and we should remember that it is reasonably certain that before very long several great nations are going to ask us to enter into just such a treaty of universal compulsory arbitration. What answer can Washington make to such a request? If we refuse, the world will say that in our pride of wealth and numbers we prefer war to civilization's methods for dealing with our neighbors. Even the United States cannot afford to take that position. We cannot afford to defy civilization. But if we acquiesce and accept such a treaty, we shall be trailing behind the other nations instead of leading them, as we should on the way to universal peace.

This is a simple and unpretentious program, but we as a nation have decided to accept a minor unpretentious place in the family of nations; we have decided that we will not attempt to lead this great movement in civilization. Indeed the day for our leading it is forever past, but it is not too late for us to cease obstructing it, it is not too late for us in a modest measure to share in it, and one reason why peace-loving men and women all over our country are urging such a program is the hope they have that we may even yet do something at least toward taking our beloved country off the wrong side and putting it on the right side of the greatest moral question of all the ages.

THE INTER-AMERICAN SIGNIFICANCE OF PORTO RICO'S EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

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RIO PIEDRAS, PORTO RICO

It is indeed to be regretted that the Honorable Miguel Guerra Mondragon, who was the man selected to come to this meeting, has not been able to do so on account of his presence being needed at the session of the legislature. He occupies a very important position there. He is president of the finance committee, and some economic questions of great importance for the future of the Island were to come up, and we believe that there is no other man in Porto Rico who can handle the situation as well as Mike, as we call him. So Mike had to stay.

We have in Spanish a proverb that says that the last monkey always gets drowned. My name was the last one on the list, and I was the last monkey and I got drowned.

I am sorry that he has not been able to come, because I know he would have given you a wonderful message. Mr. Guerra is quite an orator. He is the brother, as I am, of the two cultures, but he is a greater speaker and he is a man who, due to his daily contact with public affairs, could have given you a much better message than the one this humble school teacher is going to bring to you this morning.

Twenty-eight years ago, the Island of Porto Rico became a possession of the United States as a result of the Spanish-American War. On taking charge of the government, the American authorities found that the educational facilities of that country were very poor. There were very few elementary schools. The secondary school work was limited to the courses offered by the Provincial Institute and two or three other schools affiliated with that institution. The Island had no university and those persons who wanted advanced work had to attend the Universities of Buenos Aires, Havana, or those established in Spain. Having found such a condition, the American officials decided at once to give attention to the education of the Porto Rican people with the purpose of preparing them to enjoy the privileges and rights possessed by American citizens.

At the close of the military administration of the Island, Martin G. Brumbaugh of Pennsylvania was chosen by the President of the United States to direct the educational work in Porto Rico. He will always be remembered as the father of the school system of the Island, and his administration will always be considered as one of the best in the history of American education in Porto Rico.

Since then, the development of the school system constitutes one of the greatest satisfactions, and the pride of all those Americans and Porto Ricans who have worked hard and patiently in behalf of the childhood and youth of the country. At present we have on the Island all types of educational institutions from the elementary grades to the professional schools

of the University. Our system serves 230,000 children out of the 400,000 who are of school age. The work is done in up-to-date buildings and is directed by 4952 teachers, and we are proud to be able to say that illiteracy has been reduced from eighty-five percent in 1898 to thirty-nine percent at present.

The first steps taken for the organization of our school system were the establishing of the elementary schools and the development of rural schools so much needed in the Island. Secondary education began in 1900 and at present we have eighteen high schools, including the one at the University of Porto Rico, thirty-four continuation schools for the first two years of secondary work, and a few private institutions affiliated with the Department of Education.

To carry out all this program, the Insular Normal School was organized in 1899 for the purpose of preparing teachers. This school was the germ of the University which was established as such by act of the legislature in 1903.

We see, then, that both Americans and Porto Ricans realized early enough that the education developing in the country was a matter of vital importance in order to bring about the necessary adjustment between the old ideals and principles inherited from a monarchical government and those of a free, democratic administration.

The United States had acquired by the Treaty of Paris the responsibility of solving at a future date the political status of Porto Rico. The people of the Island realized that to live in union with America it was necessary to make a great effort and develop the educational system in order to prepare the growing generation for the performance of civic duties. Nobody failed to do his part. The Island administration has cooperated from the very beginning, appropriating large sums of money for the Department of Education. At present almost fifty percent of the budget of the Island goes to education. The American commissioners gave us their talent, their pedagogical knowledge and their enthusiasm and inspiration.

But the problem was of such great magnitude that nothing could be done but satisfy the needs of thousands of children who were hungry for an education and to prepare as quickly as possible the teachers that were needed to do the work. If to these we add the changes in the personnel of the Department of Education and the attempt to adopt in Porto Rico the plans and curricula of the states from which the commissioners came, it would be easy to understand why our system, in spite of its American nature, was far from being based on an educational program which would respond not only to the future political needs of the Island, but to the purely local insular needs just as well.

What was the problem to be solved? I believe I make no mistake when I state that the aim of the system until recent years was no other than the Americanization of the country. On becoming a part of the United States, it was logical to think of the preparation of the future citizens. It was

also logical to give special attention to the teaching of the new language, the national language, in order to bring about a better understanding between the two peoples. But under the Foraker Act, we had become citizens of Porto Rico and not of the United States, and several notable statesmen have repeated in the past as they still repeat time and again, that Porto Rico will never become a state of the union, and the American officials did not realize that with the introduction of the English language as a means of instruction for all subjects they were building the foundation of a system that was to be hybrid in nature and that in the course of time such a system would destroy something possessed by the Porto Rican people which later on was to be of vital importance for future relations between the United States and Hispanic America.

I refer to the Spanish culture of Porto Rico and the language that made that culture. This does not mean, however, that we are opposed to the teaching of English in our schools. No, we want every child in Porto Rico to become as fluent in the use of English as in the use of Spanish, but what we do desire is that the present method of teaching all subjects in English be abolished for economic reasons as well as cultural.

At that time, everybody saw the need of opening more and more schools, for no one had the vision of the future. They did not realize the importance that Porto Rico was to have as a participant in the work of inter-Americanism. It is obvious that education must primarily serve the needs of the people that are to be educated. The new schools established on the Island could very well have adapted the American plans and methods, but up to then they did not adapt them to the essential needs of the country.

This state of things took a turn with the arrival of the governor, the Honorable Horace M. Towner. Through years of experience in his service as a Congressman and as Chairman of the Committee of Insular Affairs, he went to the Island entirely familiarized with our problems and aspirations. He stated in his inauguration that Porto Rico is a permanent part of the United States, but he also stated that the political union of the two countries does not mean the giving up of our ideals and of our traditions.

As did his predecessor, he became intensely interested in the educational work of the Island, and he deserves great credit for his enthusiasm in fostering the advancement of our system of public education.

Two years ago, the University authorities succeeded in getting the legislature interested in appropriating the necessary funds for making an educational survey of the Island. The educational leaders as well as the legislators thought that it was time to review the accomplishment of a quarter of a century in order to make proper plans for the future. This survey was to cover the entire system from the elementary school to every department of the University. The necessary legislation was passed and arrangements were made with the International Institute of the Teachers College to do the work.

Under the direction of Paul Monroe, a committee of distinguished edu-

cators was formed. Among them was a former commissioner of education in the Island, Samuel McCune Lindsay. The accommodations made by these gentlemen are now being carefully followed by the educational authorities of the Island, and most of these accommodations will be accepted and the necessary changes made.

In order to carry out the new plan, the University, which is the apex of the system, will play an important rôle. For years it has been the only agency for the preparation of teachers, and also the only institution of higher education.

Up to 1923, the Commissioner of Education had served as the president. In that year, the board of trustees, realizing the opportunity for the development, looking ahead to the solution of the problems that had appeared due to the constant contact of an old civilization preaching traditions and ideals and the new form of democratic institutions, took the next steps to engage the services of an educator who could direct the future work of the University.

They were fortunate in getting the services of Thomas Eliot Benner, who took charge of the chancellorship in 1924. He has the vision to make the University of Porto Rico the great educational institution that it should be, to carry on the work which cannot be done anywhere else.

In this respect I should like to quote a paragraph from the report of the survey committee:

The embodiment of the University, physical and intellectual, is a challenge. Here, if anywhere, those services that modern society has come to demand of its institutions of higher instruction and research are needed. It is not implied that the university can or should be the only agency by which the resources of scientific inquiry are brought to bear upon the problems of the community. Many other agencies, both governmental and private, have already engaged in the task and will continue to pursue it, but if the university visualizes its opportunity, if it attacks this task with energy and wisdom, if it succeeds in interpreting itself to the people and in securing adequate support, it can render greater service to Porto Rico than any other social institution, public or unofficial.

There is one further aspect of the university's position that is worth noting at the outset, namely, its geographical position. It is strategically placed. This strategical location referred to in the report was discovered early in the seventeenth century. At that time it was considered important for commercial and defensive purposes. Porto Rico is the key to the relations between New Spain, now Mexico, and New Grenada, now Colombia, says an old official report. This importance is now greater than before.

Porto Rico has a great and novel duty to perform in the preparation of leaders who are to carry on the work of future progress and to solve all those problems that now confront us. We realize that we possess something that is not found anywhere else, our Spanish culture, which, added to our ever-increasing knowledge and absorption of Anglo-Saxon culture, places us in an enviable position for the leading role we are to take in the

preservation of inter-American peace through inter-American understanding.

Situated between the Americas, Porto Rico is getting ready to bring about that common understanding. The two greatest languages are there spoken; the two greatest judiciary systems are there working together; and the two greatest cultures are in constant contact. But we are not satisfied with knowing that. We are establishing the necessary connections with other cultural centers that will help us in this wonderful labor. We are working with the University of Madrid to develop the Spanish studies that will help to keep intact the culture of the past. We are collaborating with Columbia University through our school of tropical medicine and with Boston University through our school of business administration. We are engaging the services of the most talented men and women we can find in this country to give to our youth the beauty and the value of Anglo-Saxon culture.

Porto Rico has become the laboratory in which we are performing one of the most interesting experiments of the century. After 400 years of Spanish regime we became a part of this nation. Since 1898 there has been a marvelous progress and a great achievement. We are satisfied with this progress and are doing our best to continue it. But besides the satisfaction for material conditions, we have the spiritual one brought about by the freedom which we enjoy in our democratic government under the Stars and Stripes.

This satisfaction and pride was clearly manifested at the time of the World War when we offered and gave this country the military services of thousands of young men. In that manner did we pay our debt of gratitude to this nation, and in paying it we gave the world the best proof of our deep desire to serve with our enthusiasm and with our love toward the causes in behalf of humanity.

This desire to render service is our great inheritance from the past. From the great men that Porto Rico has produced we learn this lesson. They sacrificed themselves to bring about abolition of slavery; with their bloodshed and with their struggle and fighting, Porto Rico has separated church from state.

Spanish America is looking at us with more care and interest than ever before. Every time a mistake is made by our national statesmen, Porto Rico appears in the articles of the Spanish-American press and in the speeches of the orators of those countries in reference to the so-called imperialistic tendency of the United States. I can assure you as I can assure my brothers in blood and culture in Spanish America that we have not lost the faith and the confidence that we have in this great people that now rules our destiny.

We live in hope that the day will come when the men who really represent the true spirit of this nation will give us a form of government that will satisfy everybody concerned. We have the conviction that the United States does not desire a greater territorial expansion.

Errors or mistakes may be made from time to time by some of our statesmen; they may, in diplomatic relations with Spanish America, create situations that only serve to increase the prejudice and hatred always caused by ignorance, but fortunately these errors are not accepted by the sane citizens of this country. The good people of America know that they cannot afford to lose the love that all peoples in the world have felt for the great principles of justice and freedom and self-determination advocated in the early days of the Republic.

The University of Porto Rico, conscious of this state of affairs, wishes to carry out her cultural functions and destroy the existing prejudices. On our campus, insular and continental Americans are meeting daily in a spirit of good will and mutual understanding. Next year they will be joined by representatives of some of the Spanish-American countries.

Our University is to prepare the future directors of public opinion from the two points of view representing the two cultures found in the two continents. Its curriculum has as its purpose the formation of broad-minded citizens, free from sentimentalism and from the exaggerated, erroneous, strictly national concept, men and women with an international mind, familiarized with all aspects of American life, American such as we understand the word, comprising all countries from north to south, citizens of America ready to work jointly in behalf of all nations.

Our university has already begun to do this work. Its graduates are beginning to scatter and to spread the new gospel of mutual understanding and good will. We have been, in the Republic of Colombia, in charge of agricultural work. We have been, in Panama, organizing the home economics department in the schools of the country. The work done in our university in the school of tropical medicine by the great Venezuelan scientist will bear more fruit than several speeches on Pan-Americanism.

Let us retain the cultures of both nationalities. Let us redeem our own American world through faith and truth. Let us be of service to one another. Perhaps that was the vision that Ferdinand the Catholic had in 1511 when he gave the Island a flag, four red quarters, with a white cross. On the heart of the cross a lamb rests on the Gospel, and around it the legend, "*Joannes est nomen ejus*," John is its name. We are supposed to be the precursors of that future peace and happiness. When that flag waves in the air, its arms stretch out toward both Americas, calling north and south to come together under the Lamb of God, guided by the Prince of the Holy Gospel, the greatest code or constitution the world has ever known.

That this may come to be is our warmest desire, and we believe it is the significance of our educational problem.

Allow us, then, to add another round to the ladder toward this mutual understanding of all the peoples that live in America. We are all children of God. May He give us light.

EDUCATIONAL IDEALS AND THEIR ACHIEVEMENT

W. F. BOND, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	Jackson, Miss.
NICHOLAS BAUER, Superintendent of Schools.....	New Orleans, La.
WILLIAM JOHN COOPER, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....	Sacramento, Calif.
LOUIS A. PECHSTEIN, Dean of the College of Education, University of Cincinnati	Cincinnati, Ohio
THOMAS W. GOSLING, Superintendent of Schools.....	Madison, Wis.
EDWIN D. STARBUCK, in Charge Research Station in Character Education, University of Iowa.....	Iowa City, Iowa
WILLIAM H. HOLMES, Superintendent of Schools.....	Mount Vernon, N. Y.
GEORGE HOWARD, Superintendent of Rowan County Schools.....	Salisbury, N. C.

W. F. Bond, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Jackson, Miss.—A few months after taking the oath of office, a public spirited and influential citizen requested the cooperation of the educational forces of the state in getting before the people an important matter. The support was promised, but when I looked over my hand I found that we really had no organization and that, therefore, very little help could be given.

There were 82 county superintendents of education (one for each county), who had been trying to get together once in two years, but, as a matter of fact, a majority of them had never been together at one time. There were about 8000 teachers with an enrolment of only 1500 in the state association. In a few of the counties there were county teachers associations meeting occasionally. For every school there were at least three trustees, but not many of them ever went to the schoolhouse. The first ideal we set up for ourselves, therefore, was to have our forces so organized that those of us interested in good schools might work together as a unit for any worthwhile cause, for we knew that an organized minority would nearly always defeat an unorganized majority.

We began with the county superintendents. They were receiving small salaries, with no allowance for travel. I didn't have the heart to insist on their attending a meeting and paying their own expenses. Two hours at a telephone were sufficient to get enough money pledged from the bankers of the state to pay the traveling expenses and hotel bills of the county superintendents for a two days' meeting at the capital city. The result was nearly a one hundred percent attendance, and a splendid organization formed. For three years thereafter one enterprising banker gave us a check for two thousand dollars annually to pay the expenses of a meeting of these officials.

In addition to the annual meeting, we decided to hold district meetings of the county superintendents every spring in six different sections of the state, so that more time might be given to a discussion of problems peculiar to any particular group of counties.

At these district and annual meetings of the county superintendents we had no trouble in agreeing upon a progressive program for the following year. Many of the superintendents, however, expressed a desire to have some help in getting the program before the people of their respective counties.

In Mississippi, as has been stated, every school has from three to five trustees or board members elected generally by the patrons of the schools.

These trustees are the leading citizens and most influential people in their respective school districts. A plan was, therefore, agreed upon calling for a meeting in every county at the county courthouse of all the trustees of public schools in that particular county. At most of these meetings some member of the state department of education was on the program. The trustees organized by electing a president and asking the county superintendent to serve as secretary. These meetings proved very effective for they were the means of spreading progressive ideas into every nook and corner of every county in the state, not by teachers, but by the citizenship generally.

Some of the trustees began to call for help to get the message across to the people of their districts in good shape, and this led to an annual two weeks better school campaign in which members of the state department of education, the faculties and officers of all the colleges, business men, doctors, politicians, preachers and others, not only made speeches for better schools in the towns and cities but they went out into the highways and byways with the message.

About this time that wonderfully helpful organization the Parent Teachers Association began to make itself felt and soon there was a local organization at most of the schools in the counties. About the same time a great effort was made to increase membership in the state association of teachers and to organize in every county a live, wide-awake county teachers association. The result was that in a few years the enrolment in the state association jumped from 1500 to 7000 paid up members with an all time secretary, clerical help, and a splendid magazine published for nine months in the year.

Meanwhile, in every county, county associations were organized with practically all the teachers enrolled.

A country editor suggested that if we would send out weekly a short news letter in reference to schools that the county papers would be glad to run it. This was done with the result that not only the weekly papers but the daily papers have carried our letters for the last six years. The county superintendents are now required by law to meet in the state and district conferences on the call of the state superintendent, and the trustees of all the schools in every county are required to meet at least once a year on the call of their respective county superintendents.

New plans and policies are formulated early in the year by the state department of education, discussed at the district meetings of the county superintendents in the spring, agreed upon finally at the annual meeting of the county superintendents in the summer, put before the trustees of all the schools in each county at the regular annual meeting of the trustees in the various counties and carried to all the people of each school district through the Parent Teachers Association and by speakers during "Better School Week" in the fall.

In addition, the Mississippi Education Association, with nearly every teacher enrolled, cooperates in the program, which is in turn taken up by

the county associations. In the meantime every week, in the county and daily press of the state, the public reads a letter supplementing the general idea we are trying to get over to all the people for better schools. With this organization any matter of importance may be carried to the home of practically every citizen in the state within a few days' time. It has a powerful influence; it has compelled the respect of the politician; it has served as the basis of all our efforts for better things for the children and has been largely responsible for the wonderful progress we have made educationally during the last few years.

A few years ago practically all of our schools in the country were of the one and two-teacher type. This year eighty percent of our white rural children are enrolled in splendid consolidated or rural high schools, 98,000 being transported daily to and from school. Our program now calls for a high school education within reach of the home of every child. Such advantages are being provided for all the children of the towns and cities and eighty percent of the white children of the rural districts.

From 1920 to 1926 the number of graduates turned out annually from our fully accredited four year high schools increased nearly five hundred percent. School terms have been lengthened and better trained teachers employed. The salaries of county superintendents of education have been more than doubled within the last seven years. A large equalizing fund for the benefit of the rural districts of the poorer counties has been provided; more than four hundred school districts have built teachers' homes, which are furnished rent free to the teachers; and county agricultural high schools with boarding accommodations at cost are maintained in over one-half the counties. There is a widespread interest in behalf of better schools on every hand. In fact, this interest is so great that one of our citizens has established a loan fund of one million dollars for the purpose of helping every worthy boy or girl in need of help to get a college education. Similar progress has been made proportionately with the schools for negroes.

We have many other dreams that are coming true and ideals toward which we are working, but in all of our efforts we would be very much handicapped were it not for our splendid organization, made up of the men and women largely responsible for the educational welfare of our children, and ably assisted by a public-spirited, open-minded citizenship.

Nicholas Bauer, Superintendent of Schools, New Orleans, La.—Today, in New Orleans, America's most interesting city, Mardi Gras is being observed. Right now the streets are beginning to fill with maskers, and in a short time the thoroughfares through which King Rex, and later tonight Comus will parade with gorgeous floats, will be impassable. Flags and bunting are flying, bands are playing, public buildings and institutions are closed, commerce and industry are halted and all, young and old, enter into the spirit of revelry. Tradition has thus decreed and we of New Orleans obey tradition. For one hundred years New Orleans has cele-

brated Mardi Gras. This observance, coupled with the knowledge that the flavor of old France and the lure of sunny Spain may still be found in our Vieux Carre, has given New Orleans the reputation generally held that we are living in the glories of the past and that we are ultra-conservative.

But in the pregnant lap of the golden, shimmering crescent of the mighty Mississippi there is being re-born a new city, retaining its fascinating glamour of romantic antiquity and rivaling in progressiveness the great metropolitan centers of our land. Even those, however, who profess to know and to love us have not fully sensed the awakening of this new New Orleans, of its achievements despite apparently insurmountable initial obstacles. Take O. Henry, for instance, who lived among us and should have known us, who, in speaking of the slogans of cities in one of his inimitable short stories, stated that the slogan of New York was "I do"; of Chicago, "I will"; of Philadelphia, "I shall"; and of New Orleans, "I used to." While that was meant in sarcasm, it is not such a bad slogan after all, for I could apply that observation to every phase of our existence today in New Orleans and show that the conditions that used to be no longer are, but, confining myself to educational ideals and their achievement, let me say, using the O. Henry phrase, "we used to" rely on philanthropic bequests like that of John McDonough for the erection of public schools. Today we have under way a building program that has within a few years put millions of our taxpayers' money into modern school buildings, and has as its ideal "A place for every child and every child in its place in a modern schoolhouse."

"We used to" be content, apparently, in New Orleans with an elementary education for our boys and girls—judging from the enrolment then in our high schools. Today, in common with every other section of the country, our high-school enrolment has made phenomenal increases, and we boastfully proclaim that, while the population of New Orleans during the past ten years has increased fifteen percent, the enrolment of boys in the high school has increased one hundred five percent.

"We used to" follow the traditional curriculum with its memoriter and drill lessons, stressing the three R's as the be-all and the end-all of education. Today we have a growing, living, developing course of study, the work of our teachers and principals, who have kept in mind the present-day environment of the child, thereby providing, in addition to the three R's, opportunities for recreational and group interests; for the inculcation of thrift; for the attainment of good health; for safety-first instruction; for self-expression in drawing, music and dramatics; for training in business and industry; and for the inculcation of civic responsibilities. Such is the substance of our course of study, and, when we contrast that which "used to" exist in New Orleans, we know that we are moving forward in common with the progressive systems of the country toward the achievement of that ideal which seeks to develop higher moral character, sounder bodies, and keener and more wholesome interest in home and civic affairs.

The phase of this development of our course of study on which we are presently placing the greatest emphasis is on the health program. Just as in the other big cities of our country, we in New Orleans have much to do before we may feel that the problem of health teaching is being adequately handled, but when we contrast the abstract memorization and technical study of physiological and anatomical facts with the positive constructive efforts that we are making today to build up health, to correct orthopedic troubles, to preserve and conserve the sight of our pupils, and to stimulate the formation of right habits of daily living and right attitudes toward individual and community health problems, we are proud of our achievement. For years the medical department, the physical training department, and the hygiene work of the schools were isolated entities. But in September, 1925, we adopted, tentatively, a new hygiene course of study, prepared by expert teachers, which sought to link up the work of these divisions. We furnished to all the schools the stimulating text, "Health Training in the Schools," published by the National Tuberculosis Association. This year special teachers of health have been named experimentally in certain schools, thousands of children have been thoroughly examined by the medical department and the physical results charted. Doctors, nurses, health teachers, principals, sewing and cooking teachers, physical education instructors, social welfare workers, health organizations, milk clubs—in a word, all contributing departments, workers and agencies, within and without the schools—are striving to coordinate their efforts toward keeping the well children well and bringing children who are physically weak up to the standard. While this specific work has been in operation but a short time, statistical data may be produced to show satisfactory results. But to give in detail this health service would transgress the limit allowed me. We feel in New Orleans that, because the value of good health is universally acknowledged, we are attempting to achieve an educational ideal that is intensely and practically worthwhile.

In interpreting my invitation to talk for ten minutes on "Educational Ideals and Their Achievement," I have taken advantage of this opportunity to attempt to dissipate the general notion that New Orleans is entirely absorbed in its Mardi Gras and its historic past, and that it is a "City That Care Forgot," as so frequently advertised. Instead, New Orleans stands as a brilliant representative of the progressive new South which is throwing off the deadening lethargy of years gone by. The active spirits who are in the very front rank of this great awakening movement are the men and women sometimes hidden in the obscurity of the classroom, but who, because of the character of the work which they are doing for the youth of the south, are entitled to the tribute uttered by our former distinguished Ambassador to the Court of St. James, Walter Hines Page:

"Educational work," says Mr. Page, "in the southern states is, therefore, something more than the teaching of youth; it is the building of a new social order. The far-reaching quality of the work that the energetic educators in the south are doing lifts them out of the ranks of mere school-

masters and puts them on the level of constructive statesmen. They are the servants of democracy in a sense that no other public servants now are, for they are the rebuilders of these old commonwealths."

William John Cooper, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Sacramento, Calif.—The school exists to provide stimuli for, and afford direction to, the development of children. The chief concern of the teacher is children. The chief concern of the administrator is to have teaching take place under the most favorable conditions. In small schools with carefully selected teachers there is little for administrators to do, but as soon as any school grows beyond the point where its principal may know the pupils personally or a city system has reached a size where one person, the superintendent, is unable to give immediate attention to all administrative details, organization becomes important and executive skill of high order is demanded.

Two principles should govern the superintendent's policies now. They are: First, keep the machinery of administration subordinate in importance to the teaching process. Never forget that it exists to make good teaching and real learning (in its broadest sense) possible and effective. Second, keep the administration democratic; keep it in touch with those who are in daily contact with those for whom the school exists, and let them help create and constantly rebuild the necessary administrative machinery.

To explain briefly a democratic organization to administer the school affairs of a city of 50,000 to 250,000 people is the purpose of this paper. The organization discussed can all be set up by the superintendent or under his leadership, since it is beside the question here to discuss the legally established governing directors—the board of education. The arrangement of the groups is purely arbitrary, being here considered from the viewpoints of nearness to the superintendent and frequency of assembly.

The first group, immediately associated with the superintendent, should consist of the assistant superintendents, the business manager, the executive secretary, who directs the superintendent's office work, and perhaps one or two directors or supervisors, who hold key places, such as the director of research or director of adult education. These should constitute a staff or superintendent's council to consider carefully all plans and policies in process of formulation. If the program is the result of such cooperative effort, the absence of the superintendent can affect in minor way only, the progress of the system and the death or removal of the superintendent does not disorganize the system, for the program is known to several persons. This council should meet regularly once a week and in special session on call.

The second group, in point of frequency of contact, consists of the principals and supervisors. They are in close contact with the problems of the firing line and may well meet in four different conferences, requiring the time of any member not in excess of two meetings per month and requiring the attention of the superintendent or assistant superintendent at a given

hour on one day in each week. A plan which works well in the city of Fresno and with minor changes also in San Diego is:

1. A general conference of principals and supervisors on the second Monday in the calendar month. At this meeting general policies of the system are presented by the superintendent or by a member of the superintendent's council, discussed in the light of their probable effect, modified if need be, ratified, and ways and means suggested for putting them into operation. In this conference occurs discussion of proposed report cards, attendance blanks and many other necessary details concerned with school administration.

2. A conference of secondary school principals which concerns itself with such junior and senior high school problems as guidance, development or modification of courses of study, organization of core curricula, extra-curricular activities including athletics. In Fresno, this conference meets regularly the first Monday in the calendar month and usually holds one or more special meetings to listen to reports from course of study committees. In San Diego, the vice-principals are included in the conference membership.

3. The elementary principals likewise are organized into an elementary principals' conference to consider tests and measurements, new types of examination, course of study problems, supervision of teachers' work, rating of teachers, teachers' marks, etc. In Fresno this organization, meeting regularly the third Monday in the month, has been a potent influence toward professional study throughout the elementary grades.

4. In Fresno, the supervisors of subject-matter meet in conference the fourth Monday of the month. They discuss teaching technics and problems connected with the supervisory act. In San Diego, the visiting teacher and director of visual education also are members of this group.

Democratic administration will consider not only the superintendent's immediate associates, and the principals and supervisors, but means will be found for teacher participation also. There are problems connected with salary schedules, the teaching load, teaching day, tenure, professional attitude, social interests of teachers and the like, which require a clearing-house. In many cities the teachers themselves have perfected a teachers' association. Often, however, such associations are class conscious in their purposes or are directed by self seeking teacher-politicians. Consequently, they fail to give impersonal consideration to such professional problems as above noted. In the city of Fresno is a city council of education, a federal body consisting of delegates, at least one from each school and, in the larger schools, one for every twenty-five teachers, or fraction thereof. To this body is sent one delegate from each of the principals' or supervisors' conferences noted above. In Fresno, this council has developed a remarkable *esprit de corps* in the entire teaching staff which commands the respect of the board of education and the citizens generally.

Another group of teachers, including a few principals, which has pecul-

iar problems is that of the married women. In both Fresno and San Diego, these married women have organized a council for the handling of the problems peculiar to themselves. Among these problems are the care of their own children of preschool age, requesting leave of absence during the period of expectant motherhood and early infancy of the child, problems of dress where the employment of the husband and wife make possible a standard of living higher than that of the average woman teacher, problems of reconciling home duties with school duties, etc. The married women's council consists of one married woman teacher from each school, whose duty it is to discuss with incoming married women and newly married women the code adopted by the council. The council meets once a year to elect a president and secretary and occasionally for the purpose of bringing to bear social pressure on one of its members who has failed to live up to the code fully.

Finally, no city superintendent can afford to ignore the growing interest of intelligent laymen in school affairs. Nor is he fully realizing his opportunities if he neglects to develop and capitalize such latent ability. Some of this ability is used through parent teacher organizations. In California, these associations have led the way in providing playground and lunch facilities, in caring for undernourished and underprivileged children. But far more can be done profitably in securing lay cooperation. In many cities, citizens and business men's committees have been responsible for the favorable result of bond and special tax elections. In San Diego, the board of education officially invited seventy-nine organizations, civic, business, labor, women's, P. T. A., to send one official delegate each, to a citizens' meeting to discuss city school needs and problems. Seventy-five representative citizens were present. To these and the school board members, the superintendent presented results of a survey of school needs. Each delegate was asked to speak briefly. The net result was the decision that a far larger bond issue should be asked than the school board had contemplated and an executive committee of seven was appointed to advise the board on school needs and cooperate in securing success at the polls.

In Fresno, after a similar committee of nine had been successful in securing a favorable poll at a bond election, the board of education appointed a "Committee on Standards," which consisted of three leading architects and building contractors, a mill man who represented the building material men of the city, and an electrical man who represented the chamber of commerce. For this committee, the superintendent served as chairman, and the director of research as secretary. This committee developed a series of nine school building forms for contracts, surety bonds, general specifications, etc., and a set of standards on types of windows, doors, mouldings, chalk troughs, which not only make for economy in schoolhouse construction but add to efficiency. Types of metal lath were

carefully studied and a standard specification for lath and plaster was written. A similar study was made for electric wiring and fixtures.

Doubtless this discussion will bring to light other successful efforts to secure lay participation in school administration for the possibilities are limited only by the ability of men and women in a community and the resourcefulness of the superintendent in discovering and utilizing such talents.

Thomas W. Gosling, Superintendent of Schools, Madison, Wis.—Each school system has its own local problems and its own distinctive opportunities for service. Nevertheless, each system is but a part of a great national plan. It succeeds or fails according to the measure in which it achieves the educational ideals of the nation as a whole.

Equal opportunity for all, one of the most important planks in the national platform of education, has been accepted as a guiding policy in Madison. This policy in its many ramifications includes the adult citizens as well as the children in the schools.

For the children in the schools equal opportunity for all means that every child shall have his own individual problems studied and his rights conserved. The bright child and the dull child, the obedient and the disobedient, the sick and the well are all entitled to a share in the interest and the skill of the teacher and of the supervisory and administrative staff.

In order to accomplish this purpose a department of child guidance and special education has been established. To this department are referred those cases which require more attention and time than the classroom teacher is able to give. Under the supervision of this department are the usual classes for subnormal children, for the deaf, for the crippled, and for those with speech defects. All of these types of work are well established and familiar in most cities and need no special comment here. The distinctive contribution of the department of child guidance and special education in Madison lies in the consideration which it gives to the pupils who fail in their studies or who are the behavior problems in the classrooms.

The need of adjustments in the schools for the benefit of children is slowly gaining recognition. A child who fails with one teacher and in one set of circumstances may succeed with another teacher and under a differing environment. It is the duty of the school organization to know the children and their difficulties and to find for them a situation where success is possible. A happy illustration of the value of adjustment was afforded by a sympathetic principal who received from another school a child whose nervous system was badly shattered by home conditions and by the teasing of his playmates. She taught him muscular coordination through play; made him a welcome member of a new group; and gave him courage for the long hard fight he had to make.

Modern psychology has thrown a new light upon behavior problems.

It has taught school people to be slow to call a boy or a girl bad. It has taught us to look for the causes of maladjusted behavior and to seek to remove the causes rather than to apply punitive measures. We have found in Madison that many behavior cases lead back into the homes and show that parents rather than the children are really at fault. It is a sad fact long known but only recently comprehended that any kind of misbehavior by parents has a tendency to throw the child into a state of mental instability and to render him unfit to cope with the baffling problems which even children must meet. Our special department with its staff of trained workers has been able to bring real relief into troubled situations where only scientific knowledge coupled with human sympathy can have any lasting effect.

The most valuable result of a determination to study the needs of individual children has come in the regular classrooms. When teachers realize the effects of their behavior upon the conduct of their pupils, they become more considerate and humane. The teacher who has been discouraging and sarcastic in her attitude learns that success does not attend her effort. She learns that other teachers follow other methods and under the stress of social pressure she tends to change her own behavior to the advantage of all. The problem of humanizing the behavior of teachers towards their pupils is a very real problem of administration. It is most difficult and acute in those parts of a school system where standards of scholarship are maintained at the expense of mental and physical health. In some instances drastic measures are required in order to impress upon teachers the necessity of regarding the well-being of children as more important than the content of courses of study.

Many failures in school are due to the inability to read with understanding. Children of good and even of superior intelligence sometimes make a wrong beginning in learning to read and find it difficult without special help to overcome the initial handicap. For such children there is a reading clinic, where the disabilities are analyzed and remedial measures recommended for the classroom teachers to carry out. The rescue work performed by the clinic through the application of scientific knowledge enables some children to enter upon a new career of joyous success instead of defeat. The clinic has demonstrated the unfairness of pronouncing a child a hopeless failure in advance of a careful diagnosis of his difficulties and a patient attempt to remove them.

Children who have been exposed to tubercular contacts in the home, who are much under weight, or who are otherwise much below par in their physical status do not have an equal chance with their more fortunate fellows. In order that there may be equal opportunity for all, these children are placed in a school where their physical conditions may be observed; where they may have ample opportunity for rest; and where with suitable nutrition and the services of a skilled nurse they may be restored to normal health or at least brought to such physical condition

that their power to resist disease is greatly augmented. Without this supervising care on the part of the schools some children would always be doomed to ill health and to failure.

The interest which Madison has in the education of its citizens is not limited to those of the conventional school age. Through its vocational school with both day and evening classes for adults opportunity is given to all to make up the educational deficiencies of their earlier years or to pursue new lines of interest. In classes in sewing, cooking, millinery, in home decoration, in the study of furniture, in weaving, pottery, art metal work, in the commercial branches, in machine shop practice, carpentry, electricity, printing, in political science, in transportation, and in other fields of study for which there is sufficient demand to form a class, adult citizens find the opportunity to master the learning or to acquire the skill which most nearly meets their individual needs.

The liberal program which recognizes the fact that education is a life-long process has found its most recent expression in the adoption of an all-year municipal recreation program under the direction of the board of education. Play has long been recognized as the privilege and the right of youth—a necessity for normal mental and physical development. If all play and recreation were to cease when the days of formal schooling are over our social life would soon become barren and wretched. A wise program of recreation does not seek to force all people into the same mold. The physical activities connected with athletic sports not only in the summer but also in the winter offer many attractions. The winter sports of skating, skiing, tobogganing, ice boating, and hockey make the outdoor life in winter just as attractive to many people as the outdoor life in summer is attractive to others. A complete program is not limited, however, to athletic sports. It includes music and the drama, public discussion, and quieter games suitable to all ages. There is good reason to expect that a wholesome and comprehensive program of public recreation will go far towards removing many of the excesses which arouse our indignation and disgust.

Only the limitations of time prevent the statement of other ideals and achievements. The whole story of civic education, of health education, of religious education, and of education for superior children must be omitted. No one would say that a program of equal opportunity for all has been achieved anywhere. It is, however, an ideal of American education—a goal towards which many school systems are striving. Some progress has been made; some achievements pointing the way to further progress have been accomplished.

Edwin D. Starbuck, Director, Research Station in Character Education, University of Iowa—The best thing about American education is its vibrant life, its resourcefulness, its fertility. Ideals? They are as numerous as blackberries in midsummer. Some are riper and richer than others, like

sun-ripened fruits and savory nuts in the autumn. Which shall we pick? I have chosen a nut—hard to crack, but richest of all, I think, in meat for the sustenance of humanity, the ideal of attaining a science of character.

It is now a passion among psychologists to understand character or personality and to discover how it grows. Scores of the best minds are engaged in researches in this problem. They have devised tools and techniques as incisive as are those used in the most exact sciences. What is their ideal? It is to lay bare the mechanisms of character and to know how they function, just as in the case of a plant or a stone or a star. The purpose is to be able to achieve character through training—a game as fascinating and perhaps quite as significant as to raise better grains in the field or flowers in the garden.

To understand character and how it grows, then, is the idea. That may seem too general. If we break it up and take it piecemeal, the specific objects or ideals may be classed for convenience under five headings:

1. What is the moral life, not so much to define it as to analyze by controlled objective methods the elements in human nature that constitute the so-called moral attitudes towards the fundamental life situations.

2. When, how, and under what circumstances do these attitudes arise and what in the child's growth is their history?

3. What is the diagnosis, prognosis, and prophylaxis of undesirable traits?

4. What are the proper occupations and the best materials to be used in training and instruction?

5. What are the best methods of administering these occupations and materials, for instance, whether by students clubs, by direct instruction, or what not?

Are these ideals being accomplished? The answer must be unqualifiedly in the affirmative. A single illustration or two of each of the five ideals enumerated will be sufficient. First, what is the moral life, that is, what is the setting in human nature of a clearly designated moral or immoral trait? For example, lying. We used to write essays about that topic. Now we study it. W. E. Slaght has discovered by objective and unequivocal methods children throughout the grades who persistently tell falsehoods in order to gain a personal advantage. By the use of many tests and social surveys fortified by a battery of laboratory experiments he has demonstrated that, while the lying children have the same I. Q. as the truth-tellers, are essentially like them in keenness of moral discrimination and in large numbers of skills and achievements, they are more imaginative, much more suggestible, of poorer motor control, less steady under distraction, are from the less proved homes, esthetically and financially considered, and have been punished more at home for misdemeanors. This study opens up several other researches on the causes and cure of lying.

Another instance of progress in the scientific analysis of the moral life is that of Trow's. He has proved by objective tests and by the use of correlations that there are no moral "traits" lurking in human beings such as confidence or readiness of judgment. Each of these supposedly general traits or capacities is in reality specific, and depends for its functioning upon

particular situations. This fact speaks eloquently for specificity in moral training. A luminous spot on the face of the earth is Terman's study of the factors of birth and training that determine the mentality of gifted children.

Second, what is the rise and growth, in the individual, of moral attitudes and of mental processes on which they depend? Since the challenging studies of Galton and Thorndike on twins and of Rice on the spelling grind, it has been progressively evident that certain streaks or strains of personality depend upon nature rather than upon nurture. Just what specific elements they are that issue forth by processes of "inner ripening" and which ones must await the arts of training are being studied objectively now on the basis of controllable data. Whether native or acquired or a blend of both, at what ages do the various mental processes develop most rapidly? J. A. Gilbert was the first to trace several of these nascencias of growth. A more recent research is that of S. P. Franklin on the ability of children to comprehend the sayings and parables of Jesus. This clean and conclusive study shows that there is rapid progress in comprehension only from the years eleven to thirteen. There is more advancement during these two years, the twelfth and the thirteenth, in the development of abstract notions of this sort than during all the years put together from eight to sixteen. This fact constitutes one of the solidest building stones for the six-six educational structure, and suggests that we bear down a little harder during the junior high school on subjects involving insight and appreciation.

How should we handle the misdemeanors of school children? In the ancient days the imps and demons of the misconduct of youngsters were objects of pedagogical wrath which vented itself alike on deed and doer. All that has changed. Not only are the devils exorcised now in most schools but their nesting places and trysting places—the faulty imagination of pious teachers—are being annihilated. Morton Prince was able, by methods well tried and lawful, to dissociate the multiple personality of Miss Beauchamp and reintegrate even the flitting mind of the mischievous Sally into a normal selfhood. It is becoming progressively possible now to assay out the tensions, suppressions, compensations and conditioned reflexes involved in the emotional disturbances of children and to restore their health and happiness. Copious instances are found in the writings of Morgan, Pfister, Mateer, Burt, Healy, Jung, Freud, Adler, Wooley and Watson. These students and a score of others are making great inroads into a science of character.

4. As to occupations and materials, what are the best mental foods for moral enrichment? This is a tremendously intricate and not altogether a baffling problem. Shuttleworth in two studies has shown the determining influence of early environment. The scholastic success of college freshmen is influenced by the number of musical instruments, the number of magazines, the number of works of art in the home. Religious home influence,

as it now exists, seems not to be a factor. College sophomore men who have been brought up quite religiously, cheat as often as do those with no religious home training.

Another problem is this: How may we induce in our students if we elect to do so, a state of international-mindedness. The boldest of ventures in providing the materials of character training is that of the preparation of a guide to character training literatures. This is being done by the Research Station in Character Education at the University of Iowa. All judgments as to the value and the placing of selections are subjected to the rigid discipline of scientific procedure.

5. By what methods are we to reach the sympathies and influence the conduct of children? By precept? By example? By preachments? By reasoning with our children? By organizing them into clubs and societies? It may take years to wrest a body of disciplined knowledge out of our ignorance concerning these questions. But we shall never arrive at the house of wisdom if we continue to travel the circuitous pathways of argumentation. There are signs that we are beginning to cut across the barren wastes of mere opinion in such matters.

May and Hartshorne have recently investigated, by objective tests of lying and deceit, the effect of certain direct methods of moral training in New York City. They found three schools using the so-called x-method of moral instruction which included pupil self-rating and merit-marks of promotion for good conduct. They discovered as control two comparable schools that use no method at all. Pupils who are subjected to definite ethical discipline are at a disadvantage on almost every count. They do actually cheat and deceive more consistently than do the average children. It is becoming evident that we shall have to be artists instead of hammer-and-tongs artisans if we are to influence the conduct of our youngsters.

Enough has been said. We have been for ages feeling about and struggling in the darkness in this matter of character training. At the present time the full light of a new day educationally is bursting upon us. We are now in the beginning of a development in education comparable to that in horticulture, medicine, and engineering when these great fields of human interest learned to improve themselves with the aid of scientific insight. It seems inevitable that in this new day the generalship of the captains of education shall be wedded to the leadership of the investigators of personality. Researches are happening along many lines. Specialists in problems of personality are being trained. School systems and departments of education must speedily look toward incorporating into their program the work of these experts just as now they are employing to their advantage testers and measurers of skills and informations. A quarter century of insight into a few principles of mechanics and laws of physics and chemistry is giving us the mastery of the earth and air.

We are clearly at the beginnings of a new conquest equally great and far more significant, the power to grapple intelligently with the things of the spirit. The centering of the entire school program in the problems of the cultivation of personality is easily the present outstanding problem of education.

William H. Holmes, Superintendent of Schools, Mount Vernon, N. Y.—School systems in general, stress organization and uniformity, and too often fail to stress the things that strengthen and develop personality on the part of the individual teacher. In the final analysis, it is the personality of the individual classroom teacher that counts for most in the educative process. System and organization in school work, that do not tend to develop a more effective personality in the teacher, count for little.

In the schools of Mount Vernon we try to choose teachers with big and fine personalities, and then to present conditions, in the way of ideals and environment, that will cause these personalities to grow even bigger and finer. We try to help teachers express and develop their personalities in the following ways:

By giving them an environment and working conditions that will tend to make them contented in their work. Clean and beautiful classrooms equipped with adequate apparatus and material, help to accomplish this end. We further try, so far as possible, to give the teacher the books and material that she thinks she can work with best. The exercise of judgment, even in these minor matters, tends to develop personality. This plan costs more money, but in the end it pays large dividends in the way of better feeling and better results. The teacher is also encouraged to express her own individuality in the decoration of her room, and, where there is movable furniture, in the arrangement of the furniture. The art teachers of the system are urged to cooperate in helping the individual teachers to make their classrooms really attractive and inspiring places in which to work.

The teachers of the several grades of the city have grade organizations which are self-governing and in which they discuss their own group problems. These grade organizations have much to do in making out courses of study for their grades. They also make recommendations in regard to matters that are for the general good of the group as a whole. The grade organizations have done some fine work in outlining the course of study along lines of major and minor objectives. One particularly fine piece of work by the second grade organization was that of making out a list of stories for the grade. This work necessitated writing to many individuals and publishing houses, getting their permission to use copyrighted material, and the resulting story list with specimen stories is particularly helpful.

Teachers are encouraged to do things in an original way. Supervisors and principals, in general, with a teacher who has the ability to do original work, pursue the policy of "hands off," their function being to help such a

teacher achieve the piece of work she is trying to do. As a result, there are individual and original touches in a great many of the rooms throughout the system. This plan carries over to principals, with the idea that each building may express the individuality of both the teachers and the principal. After a very strong primary teacher had worked on an individual plan for some two years, achieving quite remarkable results, she was given a suggestion by a supervisory officer for a possible modification for the better. She came back with the statement that this supervisory officer should have given her the suggestion earlier in the experiment. He replied that, had he done so, she would have probably worked out her experiment along his lines rather than along her own lines, and thus not been able to achieve the remarkable results that she had already achieved.

Teachers are helped to express their personalities through the commendation that is given by the supervisory officers both to the individual teacher and in teachers' meetings for work that has been well done, and supervisory officers try to carry out consistently the plan of giving each teacher, who does any piece of work for the school system, credit for having done that piece of work. Social approval and commendation is one of the biggest incentives for personality growth and development.

Teachers are helped to express their personalities by being given a chance to share in experiments that are carried on in the system. If a supervisory officer has any plan that he wishes to work out, he usually goes to several teachers and asks them to try it out according to their own views and needs. As a result the outcomes of the plan will be markedly different, thus producing in the end much better feeling throughout the system and much better results than would have been accomplished if the experiment had been presented for a tryout along definitely prescribed lines. One of the finest tributes ever paid to our system was a tribute paid with no intention of giving praise on the part of the giver, who intended it as adverse criticism. She said, after visiting several of the schools of the city, that they were nothing but big experiment stations. We felt proud to receive this criticism. It is only as school life and life in general is lived on an experimental basis, with the idea that the problems confronting us day by day can be solved in new and better ways, that life becomes the really joyous adventure that it ought to be and that the personalities of the workers are developed into the big, fine things that they ought to be. Such experimental living is necessary in the schools if we are to develop teachers with big and fine personalities, inspired and inspiring.

Louis A. Pechstein, Dean of the College of Education, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio—What is an ideal? An ideal is an idea with a punch, a punch so strong, so magnetic, that it inspires one into activity. An idea, yes, the head, but the punch—the heart.

We have met in a great convention to talk about ideals. Be assured, men and women, if one's heart does not want a world of moral idealism one's head will never make it so.

What are our ideals, our ideals for the training of teachers, for it is my happy mission in life to have charge of a college of education, a college of education a part both of a great municipal university and a great city school system, an organization in a community that believes that education is its major social enterprise, and believes that it is only through the life and integrity and work of the best sort of teachers that the good of today can be conserved and the character of our tomorrow made better.

Our college of education, believing in the integrity of its mission, believing in education, and believing in the power and God-given mission of the American public school teacher, founds its work upon four fundamental ideals, not some subtle sentiment, some moral virtue existing way out there in the hypothetical beyond, but ideals retranslated into terms of conduct in ways of behavior.

First and foremost we hold that we must educate as well as train a teacher. It is only as we teach a teacher first to be, then to do, that she becomes the type of teacher that the world needs; it is only as we teach her how life has been and what life is and what she can do to make it better that we can give her that point of view, that basic knowledge of how to live that will make her competent to go out and take the young child and educate him, namely, to take him as he is and make him over into what he should be.

Next, in educating a person, before we teach her to teach, we believe that we must educate and train her on the job. We have a wonderful opportunity. The college of education is part and parcel of the city school system, and that makes it possible for us to establish and maintain that which we choose to call the cooperative ideal in education, not cooperation in the smug way that we all talk about, but a scientifically viewed cooperative ideal that says, we are properly training a teacher when we prepare her from the very beginning of her training period with the best practice of teaching on the one hand, side by side with the basic science underlying that practice, the best work of the public school teacher, on the other hand, the university with its classrooms and its laboratories, science with its practice, all so interrelated, all so intercorrelated that the teacher seeing the way it is done and seeing the scientific cause for doing it that way, grows into the status of the expert. We use no model or practice school, but the highest type of actual, practical city school teaching.

Our third ideal, in addition to educating and training on the job is: earn while you learn. We believe that the laborer is worthy of his hire, and just as the apprentice in carpentry or bricklaying or the other skilled trades is paid for service rendered while he is traveling that course from the amateur up to the master, in the same way we take our students in the fifth year of their college course and say to them: True, you are not yet the expert; true, you have a year of expert supervised student teaching, but you bring to this actual classroom that we are entrusting to you, vigor, vitality, youth, optimism, a belief in yourself and a belief in your mission

as a teacher, and these are of inestimable value to us, to the system of which you are soon to be a final part, and while you are continuing to learn, and to learn through the doing, we pay you for service rendered.

Our last ideal is to say to that teacher, and to force it into the very fiber of her being, respect your profession as well as yourself; cease to apologize for being a teacher. We so organize our teaching work that our standards quantitatively and qualitatively are not one whit less than for the learned professions of law, of engineering, of commerce, and of the rest.

Furthermore, we say to that teacher: It makes no difference whether you are trained to be a kindergartner, a teacher of physical education, a high school teacher, a teacher of music, it takes the same time, the same energy, the same application to become the best teacher possible. So when we finally dismiss them, they go out to their jobs with a sense of realization that they rate side by side with other members of their calling, even though one may be teaching in the high school and the other in the elementary school. More than that, their degree and their training and their efficiency both as knowers and doers is exactly the same as that of the engineer, the lawyer.

But how are we able to do this? How are we able to develop teachers through a five-year university course? Plato, you know, tried to answer some of his fundamental questions, he tried to look for the actual realization of his ideals, and he could think only of a Utopia, a city out there somewhere which man could only look to and yearn for. We have a near Utopia which makes our ideals not distant, but things of immediate realization.

Given the college of education, part and parcel of a city school system, given that city school system committed to the task of training teachers as one of its major functions, if not its greatest function, given that social mind so keen to the realization of the necessity of highly trained teachers that it is willing to demand five years of training before entrusting to that new cadet the plastic material of a human soul, given that social consciousness willing to pay for expert training and for an end product that is of unusual type, that is literally Utopia brought to earth.

These are our ideals. We believe in the mission of the American teacher, and we face the future with confidence in our ideals and with confidence in our belief that a better tomorrow rests on the profession that you and I represent.

George Howard, Superintendent of Rowan County Schools, Salisbury, N. C.—About 50 years ago a pastor in a little southern town led his flock in the establishment of a home for orphans. Under his leadership a charter was drawn up which embodied, among other things, some revolutionary principles. For instance, it stated that this institution would receive children without legal commitment. As startling as were some of these innovations, the most far-reaching and fundamental phrase of the

whole document is found in the setting forth of the purpose of the institution, or the policy that should determine its future. With a heart and soul aflame, and a vision that was almost inspired, this purpose and policy were established in clear and unmistakable words, "This institution shall be run for the benefit of the children that are in it."

A few short months ago the children that had gone out from this institution gathered from all parts to celebrate the fiftieth anniversary of the founding of this home. Their interest centered in the unveiling of a monument, a beautiful shaft of granite, erected by their own labors and sacrifices, to the man who placed the children above all else. And when the veils were drawn aside there were only two words inscribed on the shaft and these were, "The Child."

Many interests have made apparently strong claims to major consideration in determining educational policies. Personal interest, greed, selfishness, prejudice, and envy have pressed their claims persistently. Political interests have toyed with schools, and the moneyed interests have yelled "taxes" until the cry of the child could not be heard above the uproar. These claims have been weighed in the balance of enlightened public opinion, and have been found wanting. One after another of these false banners has been torn down and America today is marching as never before under a banner upon which is inscribed in letters of gold, "The Child." The public schools move forward only when policies, purposes and administration are determined and tested by one criterion—"Is this for the benefit of the children?"

A legislative commission in a progressive state unanimously finds "that there is room for the state to do much to improve the organization and administration of its school system, to improve the quality of teaching and the caliber of teachers, and to enrich the offering of its curriculum. In studying the possibilities of making improvement in these respects the commission has come face to face with the fact that all of them are really conditioned on the lengthening of the minimum school term first." And yet, seven of the twelve members of this commission turned a deaf ear to this urgent plea of childhood by saying "that there are two practical difficulties in the way of providing a minimum school term of eight months; namely, the need for the labor of children of compulsory school age during a part of the school year, and the additional financial burden of the eight months term."

A few patrons, realizing the meager high school opportunities offered their children in their small community, petitioned the county board of education to provide transportation facilities for the secondary school students to an efficient, well equipped school just six miles distant. The community became agitated and those opposing such a scheme lost no time in bringing all the pressure possible upon the board to prevent them from carrying out the request. Meetings were held, petitions were signed, and delegations appeared before the board. Every objection, real and imagi-

nary, was offered. The board considered the matter carefully and then asked, "Is this for the benefit of the children?" There could be but one answer. The children won.

The superintendent was meeting with the school committee for the election of teachers.

"We have about decided," the committee said, "to elect Miss Smith for primary teacher. She ain't had so much schooling, but she's had enough for the lower grades. We have got to have an election for a new building soon, and her father can kill it if he gets against it."

"But do you think Miss Smith will make a good teacher of children?" the superintendent asked.

"Well, she is a fine community worker, and helps a lot in our church—why, she will play the organ down there for us."

"But do you think she will be a good teacher?"

"Another thing about this. You know how hard it is to get anyone to board the teacher. Well, of course, being right here at home, we won't have to worry about that."

"Everything that you say may be true," the superintendent replied, "and we need teachers who will take a lead in the worthwhile things in the community, but she will have next winter a group of forty children and what she does with them is vastly more important than what she does in the community. The selection of your teacher should never depend upon political pull, social prestige, or church affiliations, but only upon one consideration, 'Is the selection of this teacher for the benefit of the children?'"

This committee had wisdom and judgment enough to select another teacher. Again the children won.

A county board of education, in a most progressive county, was faced with the responsibility of selecting a county superintendent. The leaders of the majority political party of the county lined up behind a man who had no other qualification for the position except that he had been a good party politician. The county board of education, themselves, were elected by this political party. Every influence within the command of the political leaders, and they were many, was brought to bear upon the board of education. Political appeals were offered, and sentiment was appealed to in order to force the election of a local man.

The board of education decided that this matter could only be determined in one way and that way was through the child. They carried on a careful investigation and search for the man that they thought would, through his leadership and ability, bring the most benefit to the children of the county. They found him as superintendent of a large city school system. They brought him to the county and their wisdom has been justified in the fact that this county today has one of the most outstanding school systems in the nation.

The little two-room schoolhouse was crowded to overflowing. A meet-

ing had been called in the interest of consolidation. The superintendent, in a clear, simple and convincing way had made an appeal for a better opportunity for the boys and girls. He had shown clearly the advantages that would be received by the cooperation of several school districts, and had pointed out the advantages that could be expected in the way of better teachers, better organization, longer term, and larger interests. After this appeal the opportunity was given for questions and discussion. The meeting grew hot. Many were the arguments advanced against it. High taxes, cost of transportation, inconvenience of bus riding, decrease in land values in the outlying districts, tearing up of communities, and every conceivable argument was made, but not a single argument could be advanced as to the benefits to the children.

I have been through some hotly contested fights for consolidation; I have heard every argument advanced against consolidation that it is possible for the human brain to imagine; I have heard every reason under heaven given against consolidation; but I have never heard a valid argument against consolidation based upon the benefits to the children.

This then is the ideal of my administration, to administer the school system for the benefit of the children. This to me means to offer to every child the broadest, richest, and fullest curriculum that skill and scientific research can devise; to develop such skills that the boys and girls can obtain economically those higher and better things which they are led, through the school, to desire; to select leaders and teachers solely upon their ability to teach children, and make their lives brighter and fuller; to be able to judge and decide every question of administration, including the financial ones, by one criterion—"Is this for the benefit of the children?"

AN APPRECIATION OF DR. WINSHIP

President Condon—Now we come to one of the most delightful and most appropriate hours of this convention. We have been talking about ideals, and about educational ideals and their achievements, and there is just one man in this country who has been going up and down the breadth and length of the land preaching for more than a half century the ideals that have fired the hearts of those of us who have been trying to put them into operation.

To Dr. Winship I owe more than to any other man. Sometimes he has commended and I have appreciated it; sometimes he has censured and I knew I deserved it. But whether censure or commendation, I have always been grateful for the word that he has given. And to you today, Dr. Winship, after forty years of active work, I want to pay my personal tribute for what you have done for the cause of education in America.

I call upon Cora Wilson Stewart to say for all of us the thing that ought to be said to the Dean of Education in America.

Cora Wilson Stewart—I have just received a note from Dr. Winship who has discovered why I am on this platform and considers me the chief culprit of this occasion. He has written to me to make it short, to say almost nothing, or, to take some words from the flappers' vocabulary, to make it snappy. It is the only selfish thing I have ever known him to do. In doing it he has not given consideration to the fact that you demand something like an adequate expression, and he has had no sympathy at all for me in that greatest of all misery, the pain of an undelivered speech. But having always bowed in obedience to his commands, I shall try to obey on this occasion, and then when I sit down you will understand why I have said no more.

It is so seldom that the people of all the forty-eight states can unite on any one question or can agree as to the merits of any one man, that it speaks volumes of praise for a man when the teachers of all these states, who are the best and truest representatives, can unite on one of their number whom they delight to honor, and can agree upon a plan as unique as the one that we are consummating here today.

It is not in eloquent words or terms of high praise that the teachers of America plan to express their appreciation of Dr. Winship today. In Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, Polonius gives this advice to his son, Laertes:

Those friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel.

The school people of America have in Dr. Winship a friend whose adoption has been tried, and they would link him to their souls with links of gold.

The teachers of the state of Pennsylvania who know him as well, perhaps, as do the teachers of any other state, after some investigation of his private life a few years ago, decided that he would bear "watching." So, at a lively banquet of the state teachers association in Pennsylvania they presented him with a beautiful gold watch; and when he looks at the time, whether it be in the early morn or at high noon or in the twilight of evening or at the midnight hour, he is ever reminded of his loving friends, the teachers of Pennsylvania.

The teachers of the other states would thus be often brought to mind. They have had designed and made a special chain for Dr. Winship, in which each of the states has provided a link. There is no other like this chain, nor has there ever been in the world, just as there is no other and never will be another Dr. Winship. Each state has had its name plainly and artistically engraved on the link that it has given, and when Dr. Winship reads the names of Maine and Washington, Texas and Kentucky, and the other states, he will realize that back of these names is sentiment that cannot be engraved on a link or a page or even on a wall of great expanse.

The fob is in the nature of a decoration. The teachers have seen soldiers return from war wearing many medals, and always the citation has read "For going beyond the line of duty." They have also seen influ-

ential and wealthy citizens of this country return from foreign lands wearing decorations that had been bestowed by foreign governments for their participation through their wealth or personal efforts in rehabilitation of villages, cities, and states.

We have many in our ranks who have gone beyond the line of duty; we have one who has gone beyond the line of duty not once, but a thousand times, and is still going beyond the line of duty and we hope and believe he will continue to go beyond it for many years to come.

We would decorate him. This fob in a way attempts to symbolize Dr. Winship's work. On it is pictured the nation that he loves and serves, for cunningly has Tiffany's great artist, Mr. Barney, contrived to sketch on this small surface the map of the United States. At its base is a lamp which throws its light athwart the land, typifying the gospel light of education which Dr. Winship has carried from coast to coast. On the four sides are engraved four words, not new words at all, but old, old words, words that have been often used in poetry, song and story, but never were they so well or so worthily applied. Had you no intimation of the person who was being considered today and had I but come before you and mentioned that these four words described a certain life, and asked you to guess the name, I know what your answer would have been. There is a game known as personalities or celebrities, a literary game. One person writes a brief description like this: An American with a big stick, mouth wide open, showing many teeth, and shouting the word "Delighted." The answer, of course, is Theodore Roosevelt. Or you may write: A stern and silent New Englander, office holder, who breaks his sphinx-like silence occasionally to utter one word, "Economy." And the answer, of course, you have already guessed.

We can describe Dr. Winship in fewer words than this. If one appeared before you and said: A man whose life is characterized by four things, good will, loyalty, service, appreciation, in resounding chorus would come the answer—"Dr. Winship."

He is a great explorer; he has discovered more educational talent and brought it to the light and service of our nation than has any other one man. Some of his diamonds in the rough are sitting polished and shining before me today, and some of them have been and will be scintillating this week from this platform.

He is also a promoter. He has been the first to herald the news of educational projects, and by both his prophecy and his approval has insured their success. He is the friend of woman; he, more than any other one man, has not only welcomed woman, but has ushered her to her rightful place in the educational world, at the same time not forgetting the place and recognition due to man.

He has discovered the fountain of youth and the secret of perpetual motion. In years he grows backward, but in perpetual motion he goes ever forward and upward.

We owe him much for his unfailing optimism, for his boundless enthusiasm, for his encouragement so unstintingly given, for his faith so freely expressed, and for the inspiration which has sent us singing to our tasks.

A national committee, of which Josephine Corliss Preston, state superintendent of public instruction of Washington, is chairman, and made up of members of distinguished educators from all over the nation, has acted as the medium through which the state teachers' associations could make this expression. Our congratulations and our thanks are due to Mrs. Preston and her committee for their quiet and effective work. Unfortunately this chairman is absent today on the firing line, battling with a legislature for education. It is by her request and the request of her committee that I appear to humbly beg Dr. Winship's acceptance of our tribute. We realize that we cannot honor him by words of praise or gifts of gold. His own work has honored him beyond anything that we might do or say. In attempting to recognize his worth we enrich our own lives most, for as John Drinkwater said in the closing lines of his immortal drama, "Abraham Lincoln,"

When we worship greatness passing by,
We ourselves are great.

A. E. Winship—If I wanted to talk, I couldn't. The one thing about this event, more than anything else, that will stay with my memory is the fact that I have had the privilege of knowing the states of the union in their educational activities probably better than any other man, and to have the links from these states and to have this map of the United States simply endorses the fact that I place my Americanism above everything else. I thank you most sincerely.

THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE AMERICAN SCHOOL SYSTEM

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The determination of the proper place and function of the junior high school in the American school system is a problem whose solution will require thorough, comprehensive, and continuous study. Comprehensive, for the reason that such a solution cannot be accomplished merely by a more perfect and complete understanding of the junior high school as we have it today throughout the country. Such information is desirable, of course, and will serve a useful purpose but at best it can only tell us more exactly what we have in the way of junior high schools, not what we ought to have. The place which the junior high school should hold can be determined only by studying it in relation to the general development of secondary education in which it has developed and of which it is now an integral part.

Secondary education, as we have it today began about 1890. Prior to that time the public high school no less than the private academy was little more than a college preparatory institution. According to Bulletin 19 of the Series of 1926 of the Federal Bureau of Education, the total enrolment of the public high schools of the United States in 1890 was 202,963. In 1920, thirty years later according to the same authority, it was 2,199,387 and in 1924, four years later, it was 3,387,878. This means that for every 100 days of public secondary education furnished at public expense to the boys and girls of the United States in 1890 we were furnishing 1086 such days in 1920 and 1672 such days in 1924. From 1890 to 1920 the growth in high school attendance was 14.3 times and from 1890 to 1924, 21 times as rapid as the growth of the general population and for every year since 1920 the increased attendance in these schools has been greater than the total attendance in both the public and private secondary schools in 1890. Merely to provide suitable new buildings and equipment to take care of this increased attendance has required the expenditure of nearly twice as many dollars each year as were spent for all purposes on the elementary and secondary public schools combined in the year 1890.

In the midst of this remarkable development the junior high school appeared. Why did it appear? Are the conditions which gave rise to it still present? What useful purpose was it intended to serve and is that purpose still with us and as important today as it was then? Have any changes taken place in the elementary schools or the senior high schools or in education generally or in the community life for which education is provided that call for a modified conception of what the junior high school ought to be or ought to do? If so we must determine what these changes are and what readjustments they call for. The place and function of the junior high school evidently cannot be understood apart from an adequate and satisfactory understanding of the remarkable secondary school movement to which it belongs and the movement itself cannot be understood apart from a study of the causes which have brought it about. We need to examine these causes very carefully to determine their future influence. Two questions at least will have to be answered. First, will the secondary schools continue to grow at their present rate and secondly, are the educational problems that will have to be faced by them in the future likely to remain about what they are at the present time or will they be essentially different?

If the first of these questions receives a negative answer it will be for one or both of the following reasons, either that secondary school attendance is now approaching the point of saturation beyond which it will increase but little, if any, faster than the general population or else that the causes of the present growth will decline in their influence or cease entirely to operate.

A recent study by George S. Counts of 15 typical American cities shows that only 40 percent of the young people of high school age in

the cities are enrolled in school. This indicates that although we are undoubtedly approaching the saturation point in high school education it is likely to be some considerable time before this point is actually reached. The possibility of continued rapid growth in high school attendance therefore remains.

Consequently, we must look to the causes to see what a critical examination of them might indicate. The more important of these causes will be found outside of the school system in the life and educational needs and conditions of the community itself. These causes are inherent in the very nature of our civilization and are therefore certain to continue so long as our civilization itself remains unchanged. I shall mention briefly but four of these causes and indicate their bearing upon the place and function of the junior high school.

The first of these is the profound faith in science and scientific method which is characteristic of the present time and the determined effort to extend the bounds of tested knowledge in every possible direction. This faith has been abundantly justified by its results. At the close of the nineteenth century you will remember Alfred Russell Wallace, the great English scientist wrote a book which he called *The Wonderful Century* in which he reviewed the great achievements of all human history. Of these achievements he found 39 which he considered to be of first rank importance, 24 of which were found to belong to the nineteenth century alone and only 15 to all centuries prior to the nineteenth. In the first quarter of the twentieth century this accelerated rate of discovery and achievement has been more than maintained. Little wonder then that as a people we believe in science and are anxious to further scientific investigation in every possible way.

The second great cause which is little less if not as significant as the first is the disposition characteristic of our time to put every true discovery to work immediately and effectively in every possible direction in which it may be of service to the people. We are not content to discover truth, write it in a book and place it on the shelves of our libraries to be looked at and admired, but new truths must somehow work for us or we are likely to attach but little value to them.

The third cause is a general tendency arising chiefly out of the influence of the operation of the first two toward emphasis upon specialization of function and of human effort. Ours is in fact an age of specialists and experts of all kinds, real or otherwise.

The fourth cause is the profound faith of the people of the United States in the value of popular education, in the solution of the increasingly numerous and complex problems which are being thrust upon us chiefly as a result of the operation of the other three causes which I have mentioned. Ours is a rapidly changing civilization and the education that is being called for is not such as to meet static conditions, but constantly and continuously changing conditions and needs. The social inheritance in the way of tested knowledge has been enormously increased and the

demand that this inheritance shall be fully utilized in the satisfaction of the wants and enhancement of the values of life is constantly growing. This inevitably calls for trained specialists of all kinds both to increase the volume of tested truth and to insure its expert application. But to increase the volume of tested truth or to insure its proper and effective application requires inevitably a much more extensive and thorough-going general education as well as more refined and expert special education than hitherto would have been considered quite sufficient.

The would-be scientist in any direction must thoroughly master the accumulated truth in his field of reasearch before he can be sure that any new discovery that he makes is a real contribution to tested knowledge and the professionally trained expert who would apply the whole of tested knowledge in any special direction must also be equipped with a thorough and extensive general education as well as with the increasingly complicated and difficult technic which his profession or type of work requires. Consequently, the number and variety of occupations calling either through practical demand or through specific legislation for at least a high school education is vastly greater now than ever before and is also continuously increasing. The result is that the present demand for young people who have had at least a high school education is really in excess of the supply. The inevitable conclusion is therefore that attendance in our public high schools will continue to increase and the problem of secondary education will be multiplied both in number and complexity.

Turning now to consider what the history of secondary education during the past thirty-five years reveals in the way of the effort on the part of our profession itself to meet the situation, a number of interesting developments demand our attention. The tendency already quite evident as far back as 1890 on the part of young people to crowd into the public high schools not simply to prepare themselves for college but for meeting the needs of life in various other directions led to the establishment of the so-called cosmopolitan or comprehensive high school in which a number of courses were offered in the same institution of which preparation for college was but one. Consequently, the demand for increased education of a diversified character coming from the communities outside the schools and the influence of academic traditions bearing down upon the high schools from the colleges above, presented conditions that had to be somehow effectively met.

An immediate effect was the appointment of commissions of various sorts to study the problem. One of the first and most important of these was the Committee of Ten of the Council of Education of which President Eliot himself was chairman. This Committee appointed in 1892 made its report in 1893 and for the first time called for a radical reorganization of elementary and secondary education recommending a six year high school and the substitution of the 6-6 for the 8-4 plan of organization. It was claimed by this Committee that four years were inadequate to enable the high schools to accomplish what was expected of them and

that the last two years of the elementary schools under the old eight year plan were largely wasted. The Committee of the National Department of Secondary Schools appointed in 1895 to consider the problem of college entrance requirements came through with its final report in 1899 with practically the same conclusions and recommendations.

The claim of many influential persons in elementary education that a satisfactory elementary school course could not be completed in less than eight years led to the request by the National Education Association that Superintendent James M. Greenwood of Kansas City present at the Cincinnati meeting in 1903 evidence that the Kansas City elementary course of seven years was accomplishing in a satisfactory manner the work of elementary education. Dr. Greenwood's address it will be remembered, made a profound impression and was influential in furthering the movement toward the establishment of a six year secondary school program. The deliberations of the 15th, 16th, 17th and 18th annual conferences of the University of Chicago with its affiliated schools also contributed largely toward our present method of dealing with the problem of secondary education.

In the first of these conferences John Dewey made a strong address advocating the 6-6 plan of organization and in the second conference, President Harper announced for study and discussion the following theses:

1. That the eighth year of the elementary school be transferred to the high school.
2. That the first two years of the customary college course should also be transferred to the high school.
3. That the seven years of secondary education thus provided for should be reduced to six, and
4. That provision be made to permit brilliant students to complete the resulting six years of secondary education in five.

The conferences which followed resulted essentially in the approval of the changes proposed by President Harper. Further effort toward meeting the situation was found in the appointment of the Committee on Economy of Time by the National Council of Education. This Committee headed by President Baker of the University of Colorado after several conferences and reports extending over a number of years made its final report in 1913 in which it was again strongly recommended that the secondary school course should consist of six years extending from the twelfth to the eighteenth year of age, that college education should be completed by the twentieth year and that university and professional education of students should be confined generally to the period from the twentieth to the twenty-fourth year of age.

President Suzzalo, who was a member of that Committee, made a strong appeal which had considerable influence on subsequent developments that the secondary school period should for effective administration be divided into two equal parts providing for both a junior and senior high school. In the meantime the junior high school movement as a plan of organization and administration of secondary education was already

under way, junior high school units having been established in Berkeley, California in 1909, Columbus, Ohio, 1910 and in Los Angeles in 1911. From that time forward the acceptance of the junior high school idea was rapid and general and its fundamental purposes and objectives have become increasingly clear and more exactly defined.

The value of the contributions which the junior high school movement has already made to American education can hardly be overestimated. We have reached a time when it is absolutely necessary if this contribution is to be most effective that the place and functions of the junior high school should be more clearly defined and practically respected and applied. Its very newness and consequent lack of crystalization and rigidity in any particular direction is not the least feature of its value and importance. It offers a field for most fruitful results in further study and experimentation. Its exploratory and guidance functions must be preserved. There is some danger even that the study of junior high school curricula by the curriculum committee of this Association may result in a tendency, the country over, to standardize and institutionalize the recommendations of the Curriculum Commission. The fact of the high authority by which these recommendations are made will almost inevitably increase a tendency in this direction.

In closing, I desire to point out a feature of education which should be constantly kept in mind by those who are exercising real leadership in the further development of secondary as well as of elementary education. There are two fundamental forms of learning which should be present all the way through and which have been characteristic of civilized life throughout history.

The first of these may be called learning by participation, by the learner himself taking part with others in the life processes which it is desirable that he should master. The other may be called formal or institutionalized learning. Its legitimate purpose is distinctly supplementary to the first. If the conditions of organized community life were practically uniform and stable so that the needs of tomorrow as well as those of today could be satisfactorily anticipated, the whole problem of education would be greatly simplified. Much that the child would need to learn could be secured very largely by the first method with the distinct advantage that what is learned in that way has the advantage of directness and of adaptability because the method of learning naturally adjusts itself to the changes that arise in the process itself that is being learned. It would also be comparatively easy to select out of the accumulated resources of human experience what the child is not likely to learn in this way, but is reasonably certain to need in his later life and provide a special institution such as the school to guarantee to him this form of learning. It is almost inevitably true of this second form of education, that because of its institutional character it will be conservative, standardized and fixed. To the extent that the conditions of life are changing rapidly and profoundly it becomes increasingly difficult to know what should be pro-

vided through this institutionalized method of education for the reason that it is more difficult to determine in advance what the learner will need to know for the use of his later life. In fact, it is because of the rapidly changing civilization for which we must educate that the problems of all education and especially of secondary and higher education are so difficult at the present time. The difficulty is augmented also by influences outside of the school. At the time when because of the changing character and increasing complexity of life conditions for which our young people must be prepared and when therefore economy alone would require that as much of this learning as possible should be by participation in the processes that are to be mastered, children are being required by law to keep out of these processes and to devote their time through a compulsory education period to the institutionalized form of learning provided for in the schools.

The only satisfactory way possible out of this dilemma is therefore by changing the nature of the school itself so as to make the experiences which it provides for the children resemble as far as possible those of real life so that in school as well as out of it the child may learn by actual participation in the processes which in adult life it is desirable he should understand. One of the finest features of the junior high school has been its purpose to combine as effectively as possible in the school as an institution these two forms of learning and the success with which it has thus far in our best junior high schools accomplished this purpose. It has therefore not only contributed in large measure toward the solution of its own problems, but it has indicated a way in which educational institutions of all sorts must be reconstructed in order to meet effectively the new demands that are being made upon them. I would therefore urge not only that the junior high school shall be free for further contributions in this direction, but that it shall be encouraged toward further scientific experimentation and study of the whole problem.

THE ARTICULATION OF THE JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

JESSE H. NEWLON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

The articulation of the separate units of the American system of schools has long been a most vexatious problem.

One reason for the establishment of the junior high school was the faulty articulation between the old eighth-grade elementary school and the four-year high school. It was believed that the break was too abrupt, and one of the greatest educational undertakings of the day was that of bridging this gap. The junior high school arose partly in response to this situation. In many ways it has bridged the gap. In other ways this new institution, free from the shackles of tradition and the leading strings of conventionality, has created or revealed more clearly other difficulties.

The junior high school has caught the imagination of the American people, and undoubtedly is firmly established in our scheme of education. It has demonstrated its worth, but it is still in the formative stage.

The senior high school too is experiencing a metamorphosis. The problem is that of articulating a changing institution with a changing institution. But the rate of change has been more rapid in the elementary and junior high school than in the senior high school, and this constitutes perhaps the chief difficulty. The purpose of this paper will be to seek the reason for the difference in rate of development in these two schools.

Recently I asked a group of fifteen junior and senior high school principals to state briefly the problems of articulation which they had encountered. I shall not give you a detailed analysis of the replies, but shall indicate the seven leading problems as they see them.

1. There is a lack of understanding on the part of the senior high school teacher of the objectives of the junior high school.

2. The pupil too frequently finds a radical change in teaching methods on entering the senior high school.

3. The junior high school teachers do not understand that the senior high school is faced with the demands of college entrance requirements, and that its course of study and procedures are dictated to a large extent by these requirements.

4. The senior high school does not make adequate provision for individual differences.

5. The articulation of subjects that are continuous between the two schools is necessary. There is evidence that curriculum revision programs are reducing the irritation at this point. The chief obstacles encountered will be discussed later.

6. The senior high school does not provide adequate guidance.

7. The pupil activity program in the senior high school is less fully developed than in the junior high school, with the result that pupils feel lost in the senior high school.

One thing stands out as distinctly as Pike's Peak on a clear day from reading these replies, and that is that the greatest difficulties of articulation are found in the professional attitude or mind set of the senior high school teacher and in our old friend college entrance requirements. It is, then, these two problems that I want to discuss briefly. First, let us consider the senior high school teacher. The high school has old and powerful traditions. The service of many of the most influential teachers goes back twenty or thirty years, and antedates to a large extent the scientific movement in education. The result is the old conflict between the reactionary and the liberal, both within the senior high school and between the two schools. The prestige that the high school teacher has always enjoyed is a factor of great importance. For example, most high school teachers are reluctant to be transferred to junior high or elementary schools. Lest I be misunderstood, let me say now that I am not talking about all teachers or about individuals. In Denver, many of the outstanding leaders, judged by any standard, are found among the senior high school teachers, and for that matter some of the most traditionally minded, all things considered, must be ranked among those

of greatest worth to the system. But if we are to bring about a proper articulation of these two institutions and of other units of our American school system, we have got to recognize the facts that are at the bottom of our problems. There is evidence that the leaders in the two schools are beginning to face conditions frankly and in a manner quite refreshing.

For example, a senior high school principal, in answer to my questions, refers to "the problem of getting the senior high school teacher who is handicapped by precedent and tradition to understand and accept the junior high school idea."

Another senior high school principal refers to "the apparent inability of senior high school teachers to adapt themselves to meet new situations."

I quote more at length from a junior high school principal:

The type of instruction in junior high school is to a large extent designed to make an interest appeal to the pupil, and the matter presented is to a considerable degree for exploratory purposes. It is difficult for the senior high schools to appreciate this method which is so different from their own. They seem to feel that much of the work is either play or a frittering of time because they have not analyzed our methods and aims together. In many cases they do not hesitate to make the pupils and through them the homes aware of their attitude.

Who will deny that these statements could be made of conditions in almost any city? Indeed, I believe conditions in Denver are much better than the average. There is abundant evidence that the problems of articulation cannot be satisfactorily solved until there is a change of heart and outlook on the part of many senior high school teachers.

In setting up our curriculum revision program in Denver we appointed separate committees for the senior and junior high schools, in order that the junior high school teachers might present their points of view without being overawed by the greater prestige of the high school. We made no wiser decision in connection with the entire program. The junior high school committees went enthusiastically and confidently ahead with their work, and their point of view freely expressed proved invaluable. This condition served as a great stimulus to some of the senior high school committees. The result was in most instances cordial teamwork between committees, although in some cases the committees of the respective schools suffered much agony as they wrestled with their problems and predilections. But the outcome has been a steady increase in cooperation and good will between the two institutions.

The experiences just described only illustrate one of the most difficult problems in secondary education: the struggle between those who would cling to old methods and procedures at all costs and those who believe that changing social and economic conditions, the expansion of secondary school attendance, and the results of the scientific study of education demand changes in methods sometimes drastic if the school is to meet the needs of a dynamic society. Frequently the reactionary and progressive are found in the same person, the individual who sees the need of change but clings tenaciously to the old and adapts himself to new conditions only with heroic mental anguish. "Oh well," you say, "we find the conserva-

tive and the progressive in every institution." True. But conditions make the struggle between the old and the new crucial in secondary education today.

How can this difficulty of mind set be removed? To me the necessities of the situation seem quite evident and should not be blinked.

1. The younger teachers are bringing into the faculties of the high schools in many instances a thorough professional training and a different professional outlook. As more of these younger teachers accede to positions of leadership, conditions will improve. A premium should be placed on initiative and leadership, whether it is found in age or youth.

2. But we cannot wait for replacement of personnel to solve these problems, and as a matter of fact such replacement will not in itself solve them. When all of us recognize the facts in the situation, we shall have taken the greatest step forward. The result will be a more insistent demand for increased professional training for these teachers. Teachers who have been effectively exposed to the study of the science and philosophy of education cannot be slaves to mere tradition.

3. The college must take its share of the responsibility for existing conditions. Many college professors, who are interested in subject-matter and not in boys and girls, strive with the best of motives to indoctrinate their students with their own narrow notions of education and teaching, and frequently the minds of these young teachers are with difficulty opened to new viewpoints.

This brings us to our second point, the effect of college entrance requirements.

When an attempt is made to change content and method, let us say in Latin, the first question that is raised is that of entrance requirements. In recent years there has been a spectacular rush into the colleges, with the result that in the secondary schools large numbers are selecting courses solely with this goal in view. This causes a crowding in college preparatory subjects, notwithstanding many boys and girls would like to take courses in art, home economics, and other subjects that count only in a limited way towards college entrance. The situation is illustrated by a university with what are today liberal entrance requirements which prescribes eleven units in the subjects of English, foreign language, mathematics, laboratory science, and history. Eleven units leave five that may be distributed, as far as college entrance requirements are concerned, among all of the other subjects contained in the varied offerings of a modern cosmopolitan high school. It must be noted, also, that these requirements reach into the junior high school; that pupils must begin to plan definitely for college entrance in the selection of courses in the ninth year. This means that the curriculum problem of the entire secondary school system is affected.

Present tendencies are revealed in part by a recent investigation which shows a falling off in the country in the enrolment in home economics in the senior high schools. It is significant that the falling off in such subjects as art, home economics, and music comes with the increase in the number preparing for college. The pupil who is preparing for college has his curriculum largely made for him, and to date it is made without reference to his educational needs but only on the mere opinion of college

teachers and executives as to what these requirements should be—opinion backed up by no stronger argument than that of a hallowed tradition. Tradition may exert a good or a baleful influence. The mere fact that a practice is traditional is certainly not in itself sufficient warrant for its continuance.

Of even more serious import, in my opinion, is the effect that these requirements have on the selection and organization of subject-matter. While the college tends less and less to prescribe content in such detail as formerly, yet the regulations are such and the hold of tradition is such as to stereotype rather effectively instruction in the older subjects. For example, most colleges prescribe for entrance one or two units of a laboratory science, and they expect that approximately one half of the time will be devoted to laboratory work. Such prescription, plus the hold that tradition and the opinion of college teachers have on the imaginations of high school teachers, renders next to impossible any thorough reconstruction of content and methods in science. Similar conditions obtain more or less in other subjects. You may think that I am getting off my subject, but this situation is the crux of the whole problem of articulation and of curriculum making for the senior high school. These requirements color the thinking of teachers and complicate the problem of making a continuous program of secondary education designed solely in the interest of the individuals and society. Nor does the presence of large numbers of pupils not destined for college mean that the school can freely plan courses for them. The college entrance problem complicates the entire situation. The senior high school teacher then should not be too severely blamed for his peculiar mind set.

The proper articulation of the various units of our school system may call for a further reorganization and regrouping of grades. For example, a 6-4-4 system may replace the present 6-3-3 system. The development of junior colleges may presage such a change with the addition of two more years to the common schools. If teachers and executives should look with favor on such a development, what difficulties would they first encounter? They would doubtless run straight into the college entrance requirement problem and the prejudices of teachers under the influence of the college tradition who cling to the old ways of doing things.

There are two points that I want to make this evening about college entrance requirements. The first is to emphasize their effect on the attitude of the teacher, and the second is to state with all the vehemence of which I am capable that the time has come to subject these requirements to scientific examination. As yet little has been done to determine experimentally what should be the policy as to admission to college. The prescription of English, history, mathematics, science, and a foreign language is made on three assumptions: first, that these subjects afford a general discipline of the intellectual faculties that is necessary to equip the pupil to do college work; second, that their present content is necessary to give

the pupil the tools with which to do college work; and, third, that the present college curriculum and methods are in every way satisfactory.

As to the first assumption, it is necessary only to state that the old doctrine of formal discipline has long since been exploded.

As to the second, the answer is that if a pupil expects to take up the study of Latin in the college he should probably study Latin in the secondary school, but if he does not expect to study Latin or mathematics in the college or university, why should he be required to take these subjects in the senior high school merely for college entrance?

It has never been determined what facts need to be mastered in high school to enable the pupil to take up the study of specific subjects in college. For example, it would probably be difficult to make a case for spending one or more years learning the facts needed to begin the study of a science in college courses. I believe in requiring the study of science in the high school, but on other grounds than those of college entrance. Under present conditions, a fundamental reorganization of the secondary school curriculum, such as is being attempted in some colleges through the introduction of orientation courses and in other ways, would be next to impossible. It would indeed take a heroic administration to face the patrons of a school on such a program with the admission of their sons and daughters to college at stake.

As to the third assumption, it is evident that the time has come for a reconstruction of the college curriculum itself. The colleges admit that.

The thing that I am contending for is freedom to those responsible for the administration of secondary schools to work out the curriculum for these institutions solely with the needs of the pupils in view. I am not condemning the study of mathematics, or Latin, or science, or history, as such. They will be retained if the educational values which they present warrant their retention. I am contending that these subjects should meet the same tests that all other subjects have to meet. Under the present regime, they are not only favored subjects, but much of their content is of little value to the individual. The effect, then, on these subjects themselves is bad, but I shall not go into this phase of the argument.

The professional outlook of the senior high school teacher, then, is explained by a number of facts. He is to a large extent a victim of circumstances. He is a victim of a sense of superiority that goes with the traditional social prestige which has been attached to the position of teacher in a senior high school. He is the victim of the attitude of a majority of college and university professors who take a scornful attitude towards the scientific study of education. For example, we find men of science who boast the open and scientific mind in their own fields but do not hesitate to express dogmatic opinions on subjects outside of their own fields, especially on subjects pertaining to secondary education. Recently a great physicist, a man who has gained international distinction, has been talking in a very unscientific way about how high schools ought to

be run in a western state. And finally, the high school teacher is the victim of an archaic system of college entrance requirements.

It should be borne in mind that youth is at stake in all these matters; that there should be a curriculum for every individual, comprehensive and well balanced, extending from the kindergarten through the high school or university or professional school, as the case may be. Under present conditions, youth is subjected sometimes to three educational regimes with little in common as regards objectives and methods, one in the elementary and junior high schools, another in the senior high schools, and another in the college. If the public knew the price, this condition would not be tolerated. The time has come when those charged with the administration of elementary and secondary education should demand a removal of the restrictions which the dead hand of the past, in the form of traditional thinking and arbitrary prescription, places on the development of the secondary schools. But in fairness we should be prepared to offer constructive suggestions as well as criticisms. Unfortunately, time permits only criticism this evening.

AMERICAN CULTURE AND THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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As I came up to this platform after listening to those negro spirituals, Hughes Mearns handed me a note, and it said this: "This powerful experience—didn't it strike to your very roots? It is one of the phases of creative education. You don't need any special teachers. You only need permission and the chance."

It did strike to your very roots.

I went last week into School 157 in New York City, walked into a fifth grade, and heard twenty-five negro children singing "Go Down Moses." Three days later, by an interesting coincidence I heard a thousand white school teachers in the state of Pennsylvania sing, under the best regimental master that I have yet seen perform on the platform, "Go Down Moses." There are 11,000,000 of those negro children here in America with hundred difference between two types of civilization and race, and provides us with a very good point from which to take off in our discussion this evening. There are 11,000,000 of those negro children here in America with hundreds of years of racial history behind them, a unified, organic group, like which there is no other in the world. France may approximate the organicness of that group as a national organism; parts of Russia may, China undoubtedly does, perhaps the Malays do, but our situation and Great Britain's and that of the German Republic and Italy and the Balkan mosaic is utterly different. You and I have got to deal with it if we reckon with the problem of American culture and of the school curriculum.

Graham Wallas tells a story of an episode that happened in the Fabian

Society when he was a young man and just invited to enter. He said he had been sitting around on the fringes of that group listening to Bland and the two Webbs and Bernard Shaw, and it had been a pretty intellectual affair. One evening, not having spoken before, in a lull in the debate (and there were very rarely lulls in those days in those debates), he heard his mouth say, "Well, I feel—" when suddenly Bernard Shaw interrupted the proceedings, sprang out into the middle of the group, and with a characteristic Shavian gesture shrilled to that audience, "Listen! The young man feels. I say he *feels*. Thank heaven! I don't care a damn what he thinks."

That was an exaggeration from a man who both thought and felt. He thought with great clarity about the arts in England in 1890, 1900, and 1910, and he felt with great depth about them, too.

Yesterday 700 of you people went to a meeting on creative education, and yesterday and today about an equal number went to a meeting on educational research; some very likely went to both. The tragedy is that the programs can't represent both aspects of this problem.

There are schools in America in which the subjects of study which are characteristically found in the rank and file of schools are missing. There are schools in which English composition is not taught, but in which the children write much. A fifth grade child in one of those schools wrote this little poem which is called "Spring and Summer":

On an evening soft with mist,
The moon shone on a silver brook,
Summer came out from the shadowed glade,
And spring came from the wood.
Summer stepped across the brook,
But spring stood still.
They stayed together for one happy night,
O the wonder of that night!

Night had gone, and with it spring.
Dawn found summer all alone.

In that school in 1921, a revolution occurred, a change in the atmosphere of the school, which produced in little children the capacity to say what was on their minds. The school had had a good deal of freedom and was known as a progressive school, but children had not produced poetry, essay, or short story prior to that time. Then a man came there, an artist teacher, and children began to write just as in other schools they began to paint, and they began to act and to dramatize and to speak well and simply and naively as children.

I went there in 1920 as one interested in science, and found the beginnings of that transformation. There was a girl there in the school who was a misfit, and her metamorphosis is typical. What happened? Emma was sent to me as a bad girl, a girl of whom nothing was expected, and who was messing up the machinery of the school. She was sent to have an intelligence test.

It was said that Emma was writing ironic poems about her neighbors

and her teachers. I gave her an intelligence test. I found she had this thing that we call an I. Q. of 150. The mother was much comforted, and disturbed. Emma went away from the examination. How soon I don't know, but soon she turned in a poem which she had written about me. It was called, "The Moron Turns; or, The Danger of Following the Philosopher who said, Know Things." This is it:

At intelligence tests
I am not at my best.
They are not my idea of a spree.
They possess no attractions for me,
There is no fascination
Or fervid elation
In slowly and patiently
Filling the blanks that confront me in ranks.
There are other better ways
Of passing idle days
Than eternally perusing
Hazily confusing,
Ultimately disillusioning
Tests.
And the rest? The things the tests show?
I'd much rather not know.

Then this teacher came, I say, and, as Cizek the Austrian artist, expressed it, took off the lid, and a thrilling, creative environment emerged in that school and young people began to write what was on their minds—not all at once; only slowly did the products of these secret urges of the creative spirit break through the tradition of a regimented school environment. Emma became one of New York's real humorists.

And then Tom emerged, an adolescent, gawky boy, and only five years after produced his first volume of verse. I wish I could read you some. I will read you two little parts of "The Circus," which first describes the parade and then the sideshow in these words:

Tremendous!
Stupendous!
Zaboo the giant,
Jose the magician,
Lion—
Death defiant.
Ten cents admission.

And then after the menagerie comes the big show. William Rose Benet said at the New York Art Club, after hearing this poem read, that he knew it was art because it made the little hairs on the back of his neck stand up straight.

Troops of boisterous, strutting clowns,
With yellow cheeks and painted grins,
A far cry from the lovesick frowns
Of sad Pierrots and Harlequins.
Careening through the polished paraphernalia,
Like birds among the jungles of a dream,
The acrobats in glittering regalia
Dazzle life with their own sequins' gleam.

Then bowing when their lauded act is ended,
And tossing kisses, jaunty and so glib,
I wonder if they have really comprehended,
They have tickled death along his bony rib.

I have time for one more, which will not be so representative as a much longer one of the vision and insight which childhood has. If you will give it a chance and if you will direct it and draw it out, it will express this. This poem is called "Heaven."

I went to church one day,
And God sat by my side,
And we laughed at the people
With their prayer books,
Saying prayers to a God so far away.
"Heaven is pearl-paved," said the preacher,
"And gold, and the angels sing
His praises on their harps.
It is there that you and I
Will some day go."
And God laughed and said to me,
"Heaven is a broad field
And a brook.
And the lean, scarred, beaten horse
And the houseless cur
And the hunted deer
Will go there with me.

Those were junior high school children.

I know what you are thinking. You are thinking those are exceptional children. They are, somewhat. You are thinking that their average intelligence is much higher. It is somewhat higher than the rest of the school and somewhat higher still than the rank and file of schools in America.

Before an artist teacher, however, took those children they did not create, they did not produce, they had it but it was not allowed to come out, and moreover it was not drawn out, it was not prepared for them.

Mearns did these things, and Nell Curtis and Jennie Hall, and all these other great teachers. Harper could teach Hebrew as though it were a series of hair-breadth escapes. Sometimes I think we reverse the order and teach hair-breadth escapes as though they were Hebrew. How have they done it? Some with a pointer, some with a brush, some at the machine, at the bench, some through words, some through the rhythm of the body. How have they done it? How did these people in writing produce such results when hitherto these children had not been producers? They produced a critical judgment on the part of those children; they produced a desire and a capacity for enjoying writing, and they produced in those children the capacity to say what was on their minds. They did it, not by repression, but by drawing out the capacities that were in those children. They did it by illustration. Mearns read to those children much out loud; he let them get the rhythm and the author's style; he threw in comments; he drew out the best readers of the class, little by little, and gradually as the months went on and finally after two or three years went

on, it was clear and evident that sweeping through that school was a new attitude toward this thing we call English, this thing we call composition, this thing we call school.

Those poems have a national significance far more important for us than the mere local significance which they may appear to have. They have a significance far more important, also, to us here today than they appear to represent in the lives of individual children.

We in America have produced a school and an attitude toward education which is a clear rationalization of what has taken place in the occidental world in the last 300 years. We have produced an attitude in education which completely inhibits the kind of result that I have referred to in the case of Mearns and these other teachers. We have done it in part because we reflect the time in which we are living. American life for 300 years has moved in two parallel and fairly isolated channels, one economic, exploitive, mercenary. Things are in the saddle, Emerson said in 1842; things are in the saddle and ride mankind, Whitman said in 1859, and Louis Sullivan, trying to combat the artificial and imitative architecture of 1880 and 1900 in the middle west, said it again. William James saw the trend and tried to combat it, tried to create in the field of philosophy and psychology a human understanding of the direction in which mankind was moving.

I say we have produced an economic zeitgeist in which the mind of man has become of the lower order, the perceptual order. Craftsmanship has disappeared; labor has become automatic. People work for wages. Millions huddle together in cities. Population is multiplied at such enormous rates that now industrial nations are facing fundamental crises in their international affairs. Standardization of the processes of imagination and of thinking has taken place, and even our philosophers in our own day have rationalized their life with the slogans of efficiency: "It pays, it works, play the game."

From Franklin to Edison, the American has been an inventor, saving labor, cutting down distances, piling up dollars, saving time, but missing the capacity to use it well.

I say that the rhythm of life in America has constantly speeded up to the point where independent thinking has been stamped upon and the understanding of the fine and the beautiful has been crushed.

The arts curriculum of the high school is in part responsible, and the arts curriculum of the high school, including English and plastic arts and the dramatic arts, must be reconstructed. Does the English curriculum now prepare children to understand American life? Does it prepare them in critical judgment of materials of reading which we have produced in our own history? Does it prepare them to create? It does not. The English curriculum is made up primarily in the high school of literature that was made in England, that was made in Great Britain, and was made prior to 1860—*Idylls of the King*, *Comus*, *II Pensive*, the *Lady of the Lake*, as someone said "sitting comfortably in the school curriculum for seventy-five years."

Don't misunderstand me. I am talking about the feeling side of life and the contribution of the school to it, but don't misunderstand these references to creative artists and to creative education. The creative artist is the best example of a disciplined man that we have today, not the imitative artist, but the true creative artist, painter, musician, actor, dramatist, novelist, what-not. The creative artist, recognizing his problem in a great sweep of vision, then proceeds to school himself in the most rigorous applications and understanding of technic that you can imagine.

The American high school has got to launch itself into what someone called in a fascinating way the effort of reason and the adventure of beauty, and the two characteristics in that slogan sum up very well indeed the goal that we must try to accomplish.

I am emphasizing and have emphasized in my illustrations the need for producing the means in the American school curriculum for training young people in feeling. I would emphasize as much the fact that we must reconstruct our materials, the materials of our junior and senior high school curriculum, to train children in independent thinking. It is not freedom, as some of the free schools maintain, that we want; it is not initiative; it is not, on the other hand, control or discipline. It is freedom with control, and it is disciplined initiative.

America is at the end of her economic adolescence. She is mature economically. She is at the beginning of her cultural adolescence. The American school curriculum has lagged decade by decade behind the growth of cultural life in America.

Can the school produce color? I don't know. Can it produce understanding? I don't know. Can the school produce happiness? Not with the regimented curriculum. It can't produce tolerance unless it sets up its material in such a fashion as to give the children constant practice from the first grade to the twelfth in the confrontation of problems. It cannot produce understanding unless it takes the children through episode and graphic illustration directly to problems, conditions, modes of living in institutions of American life. And it cannot produce happiness unless it sets up an environment in the school by which each child in America, of the 23,000,000, will be permitted to say what is on its mind; to create with its hands in metals, wood, on canvas, to paint, with the body in rhythmic dance, with music, with words oral and written. Every child in America, I. Q. what it may be, can produce something, and your job and mine is to find the way to let him do it.

SOCIAL STUDIES AS THE CORE OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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There is a phrase which, I venture to prophesy, will be heard in discussions of the curriculum much more frequently in the future than it has been in the past. That is the phrase "grade placement." The meaning of this

phrase can easily be illustrated. We all agree that at some time in the pupil's intellectual career he should be made acquainted with the geography of North America. We are not in agreement as to the point in the elementary school at which this subject should be taught. If we put the matter in the terms suggested we have to say that the geography of North America is uncertain in its grade placement.

It is of the first importance for the practical school man to know where various items of instruction belong. There is no special value in a discussion which merely urges in a vague general way that the schools teach thrift or safety, or industry, or anything else. When the schools undertake any task they must undertake it at some time and under the supervision of some one who is responsible and able to perform that task. The virtuous hopes for a new and enriched curriculum will be realized only when the enriching items secure some definite placement in the grades or in the high school.

There are a great many considerations which must be taken into account when one is assigning a topic to a place in the curriculum. There is no justification for an exercise in the addition of fractions until after the pupil has mastered the addition of whole numbers. The major consideration here seems to be the natural sequence of topics within the subject.

Sometimes subjects have to be postponed to one of the upper grades because there are not enough hours in the day to provide for them below. This was a governing consideration in the early days of the American school when pupils attended school so few days in the year that they were engaged in the study of the most rudimentary subjects even in the last years of their attendance.

However important sequences within subjects and limitations of early training may be, there is one consideration which is more influential than any other in determining grade placement. That is the maturity of pupils. The teacher may desire to teach pupils science, but it has proved to be impossible to realize this desire until pupils attain a sufficient degree of maturity to make instruction in science feasible. Teachers may think that pupils should be given skill in some trade, but skill has to wait for maturity.

The student of educational psychology naturally tends to formulate the statements which have just been made about the relation of maturity to grade placement in some such terms as these. The curriculum is determined in its content by the world and its accumulated knowledge. The curriculum is determined in its arrangement by the psychology of the pupil.

Pupils in the first grade exhibit psychological traits wholly different from those of fifth-graders or those of seventh-graders. The selection of subjects to be taught will have to recognize these differences in psychological traits.

We are in a period of school history where attention to psychological traits is possible and necessary to a degree which has never before been true. Let us illustrate this by repeating the statement made a moment ago. When pupils were limited to few weeks of schooling each year the educational process was retarded. Pupils of twelve years of age and more were reading very simple material because they had not mastered the mechanics of the art

of reading. They were infants in the school arts at an age when they had begun to exhibit the psychological traits of adolescence.

With the extension of school opportunities, psychological traits have come to be recognized more adequately. Today we are far more concerned with the psychological demands of each age than we ever were before.

Anyone who studies carefully the junior high school will be convinced, I believe, that it is an outgrowth of the increasing attention to psychological traits. To be sure, the administrative occasion for the rise of the junior high school in particular localities has frequently been some emergency in the building program. Sometimes the junior high school has been organized to satisfy the desire of a superintendent who did not know what this institution was or ought to be, but did want to be in style. I have these matters of building and conformity to fashion clearly in mind when I say that the true and fundamental justifications for the junior high school are psychological.

The junior high school is a device for meeting twelve year old pupils with a curriculum adopted to their special needs. That superintendent who attempts to organize a junior high school and leaves the curriculum unchanged from that which was characteristic of the old-fashioned seventh and eighth grade is in need of light. The heart and center of the junior high school is the curriculum organized to meet psychological traits.

I am advocating as vigorously as I can that the conventional program of studies of the upper grades of the elementary school be deliberately set aside. I am advocating with equal vigor that the conventional program of the ninth grade be put on the academic scrap heap. I have no hesitation in saying that at the present time the full psychological rearrangement of the junior high school curriculum is jeopardized more by the attitude of high schools than by any other fact. High schools are so completely committed to ancient history, algebra, and freshman English that they will recognize nothing else as appropriate for fifteen year old pupils. High schools will have to be waked up to a realization that the curriculums of the modern school must fit the psychological traits of pupils.

In view of the conclusions which our argument has established, it is evident that a clear definition of the psychological traits of the pupil between the ages of twelve and fifteen will determine the selection of material for the junior high school curriculum. These traits are readily discoverable. The pupil has been trained in language and reading; he has some familiarity with number; he has acquired some information about the world and its people through geography and the stories of history. He knows a little about nature and he has gained fair control over his physical organism. He is on the threshold of the world which opens before him those opportunities which are to engage his attention and absorb his energy when he takes his place as a member of productive society. He sees at first very vaguely but with increasing clearness as the years pass that he is one of the world's workers. He looks forward to adult life with a kind of ambition that was impossible to the primary child. He does not understand the intricacies of

industry and commerce but he has a curiosity about society and the social order which is born of a desire to share in the world's success.

What should the school select from the store of the world's knowledge to make up the curriculum for this period? Should it be grammar and review of addition, subtraction, multiplication and division? Should the reading lessons be trivial stories and emasculated extracts from our national literature? Should drawing deal with rigid geometrical patterns? Should the spelling of long words and the repetition of the names of the products of the countries of the world be a part of the program?

It hardly seems believable in this age when we have learned to give heed to the psychological traits of pupils that anyone could have been satisfied with the curriculum which used to be administered in the junior high school period. It seems equally unbelievable that there can long continue the half-hearted reform which characterizes many schools of our own day.

There is one and only one legitimate type of curriculum for the junior high school. It is that type of curriculum which subordinates every other consideration to the social training of pupils. Whatever the content of the courses, their purpose and their interpretations should satisfy the eager interest which pupils of the junior high school age exhibit in the social order.

The meaning of these statements can be made more vivid by selecting a few examples. Let us consider the oldest and best established of the social studies, namely, history. This ought not to be a series of dates and a chronicle of wars. This should open up for the pupils the story of human progress through the ages. It should tell how language has been evolved, how industry has grown and been diversified. In short, it should be a history of civilization.

A second illustration can be drawn from a field not ordinarily classified as a social science. At a number of centers a course is being developed in the junior high school known as general language. There is no more romantic story in the world than the story of the migration of words. Words change their form because men slur over the sounds which compose them, and they change their meaning because the progress of nations calls for the expression of broader meanings and more precise meanings. The story of words will give children a new understanding of the nature of social cooperation.

Mathematics can be made into a social science. The Egyptians and Greeks were driven by the growing congestion of their communities to define with increasing precision the parcels of land which constituted their most substantial property. As a result they began to measure and triangulate. They learned how to deal with precision with irregular plots. They learned how to start from an established point and determine boundaries which were far away. They became so absorbed in defining and measuring space that they developed one of the most elaborate sciences known to man. In our blindness we have overlooked the romantic period of geometry and have put into our schools nothing but the unsocial logic of later demonstrative geometry. The junior high school can rescue mathematics, if it will see the social value of this science, from the formalism into which it has fallen.

Natural science can be introduced as an achievement of men working together for a conquest of the world. The science of invention and the science of industry are fields which children take up with the greatest avidity. It is literally astonishing to see how dull the schools have been in not selecting the social aspects of natural sciences as the introductory chapters to the school curriculum in these subjects.

I have not spoken of economics and sociology because these names have a somewhat formidable sound and the subjects which go by these names are in so unorganized a state that it will be difficult to carry them down into the lower school in any form which will command the respect of their authorized representatives. There can be no doubt, however, I feel sure, that selected topics from economics and sociology belong to the junior high school.

Take such a matter as the history and character of money. Pupils are interested to know about this instrument of social cooperation, but the schools of the past have been peculiarly barren in their treatment of money. They have relegated it to a chapter in arithmetic made up of a table and a few exercises in calculation.

In like fashion the schools have usually dealt with taxes and insurance as cases of percentage rather than as factors in the life of society.

As for sociology, why should pupils of the early adolescent age be left in ignorance of the reasons why communities are banded together for the common good? Why should pupils of this age be ignorant of the various types of stratifications of society which characterize the different nations?

The examples which I have presented are all intended to show in a concrete way what are the possible types of material now at hand ready to satisfy the social interests of junior high school pupils. I am fully aware of the difficulty of putting all this material in form for classroom use. I am quite aware that human nature in the teaching profession as well as elsewhere shrinks from the effort which is required to put through a reform program. This is the reason why so many junior high schools have been new organizations in name only. I realize as fully as anyone can, the fact that teachers are so absorbed in routine that they find it difficult to take new material and put it in form for school use. This difficulty has certainly been one of the important reasons why the curriculum of the junior high school has been so slow in maturing.

It will require organized cooperation within the teaching profession to bring about in the fullest possible measure the reconstruction of the junior high school curriculum. This is not the place to discuss in detail the machinery which must be set up in order to collect and edit the material needed. Our present purpose is merely to describe the curriculum in its character and content in order to arrive at the principles of curriculum construction which will have to be followed by anyone who deals adequately with the junior high school.

For the purposes of compacting into a single phrase the thesis of this paper, resort has been had in its title to a term borrowed from the Herbartians. The Herbartians assembled the teaching material of any given

grade around one central subject which they called the core of the curriculum. From the examples which have been discussed in this paper it will be seen that the idea expressed by the word core only approximates the idea here advocated. The thesis of this paper is that in the junior high school period there is a demand on the part of pupils for knowledge about the world into which they are to enter when they grow up. Every subject which they study should be organized to satisfy this interest and the selection of subjects should be made with a view to bringing into the junior high school the best possible materials for illustrating and instilling the idea of social cooperation.

The junior high school becomes under this formula a highly significant unit in the school system—a unit distinctly different from the elementary school. It is the gateway to a broad general education to be fully provided in the institutions above for those who can not go on into the higher institutions; it supplies a glimpse into the civilization of which the pupil is soon to become an active part.

A FORUM ON FUNDAMENTAL PROBLEMS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Frank W. Ballou, Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.—The junior high school has come into our system of public education because it is believed that it will serve an educational need which has not been adequately served by our former plan of school organization.

We have listened to four papers dealing with various aspects of the problems of the junior and senior high school curriculum. The first paper urged us to keep the junior high school in an experimental stage, to the end that we should try out the organization to the further end that the school should serve its real educational purpose.

Superintendent Newlon emphasized the importance of maintaining continuity in our educational institutions, so that the progress of the child from the beginning in the kindergarten through the senior high school shall be uninterrupted.

Mr. Rugg pleads for expression, opportunity for expression on the part of the child, and Dr. Judd urges that the curriculum shall be organized with reference to the needs of the child in his various stages of progress.

I review these papers in this very brief way by reference of word only, in order to remind you that in all of them there is this common idea that the organization of the school system and the curriculum in each one of these institutions shall be established with reference to the needs of the children.

From my point of view, the junior high school should not be a glorified elementary school, nor a young high school. It should be an institution organized for the purpose of serving the various educational social needs of the children of the age of junior high school children.

The curriculum, in my judgment, should be so organized as to serve a

greater variety of needs of the children as they have been made apparent, as they leave the elementary school of six grades. I want the junior high school teachers in my junior high schools to be trained not only in the subject-matter which they are to teach, but primarily in the needs of adolescent boys and girls, to the end that they shall be teachers, not of subjects primarily, but of children.

I want the junior high school so organized that there will be increasing attention given to the study needs of children, in order that they may acquire proper habits of study, independent study. In the junior high school their study should be under supervision more largely than it has been heretofore.

In the junior high school field, it seems to me that we should give recognition to the fact that the children of this age should be acquiring habits of independent study and independent thinking.

I want the junior high school, in other words, to be adapted in its organization, in its educational program, and in its teaching to the needs of adolescent boys and girls in this stage of their progress through our school program of six years of elementary school, three years of junior high school and three years of senior high school.

Ernest Horn, State University of Iowa, Iowa City.—Since, after I am through, I am likely to be called a conservative, I should like to sketch very briefly the experiences which lead up to the statement which I propose to make. A little over twenty years ago I was asked to become principal of the university elementary school at the State University of Missouri. I was told that I would have great freedom, in fact there were only four minor qualifications under which I should have to operate. One of these was that I should have no textbooks. The second was that I should have no daily program. The third was that there should be no furniture in this school such as is ordinarily found in a school. The fourth one was that there should be no school subjects.

You can see that under this plan, subject-matter divisions were rather thoroughly broken down. Since I had no course of study made in advance, the condition, according to many of our modern educational philosophers, should have been quite ideal. Certainly there should have been nothing which would have prevented me in any way from integrating the personality of the child.

Under the influence of Herbartianism, to which Professor Judd has referred, and under the influence, also, of Professor Dewey and Dr. Parker, we started at once with a unified curriculum. Since that time it has been my pleasure to be principal or director of three additional schools of an experimental nature, and the supervisor of a fourth, making five in all. As a result of those experiences, I have come to be somewhat hesitant about recommending the breaking down of subject-matter divisions. The burnt child dreads the fire.

The fact is that in order to break down these subject-matter divisions, an amount of scientific study must be made which has nowhere nearly at present been approached. The elements in this new curriculum must respond to large and outstanding groups of values in life, the nature of which we do not adequately know at the present time. For that reason, I certainly should not, as a result of twenty years' experience in experimental schools, advise any superintendent of schools to attempt to do away at present with subject-matter divisions.

I say that because there is no such course of study at present which is available, and it will take years to make one. I say it also because of the lack of satisfactory books, and because of the lack of trained teachers.

I have found it exceedingly difficult, in my experience, to explain to parents why in these experimental schools arithmetic, reading, spelling, and writing did not appear as subjects in the course of study.

Rather, it seems to me that the practical thing is to proceed as we have proceeded, with reorganization of the course of study by subjects. The steps in rough outline are as follows: For each subject now in the curriculum, in what group of important situations in life is this subject needed? Then by analysis of those situations, one can determine the content and the organization which shall give this vitality for which Dr. Judd so well plead before you. Useless material can then be eliminated, and needed material be organized. After that is done, experiments may possibly be set up in the future to determine whether or not certain groupings are possible. For example, it may be possible to organize handwriting and spelling together, or handwriting, spelling, and composition into one; it may be possible to subordinate geography somewhat to history; it may be possible to subordinate reading to the social sciences, or even, as has been done, social sciences to reading.

Such a plan is a practical plan. Indeed, the progress which we have made has been along those lines. We have already, as a result of curriculum making after this method, whole units of subject-matter for which we now have courses of study and textbooks which adequately represent and reflect important situations in life outside the school. By such means teachers readily adapt their past experiences to the new conditions.

All that I have attempted to say here is that I doubt very much at the present time the wisdom of advising public school administrators to break down subject-matter divisions. It causes too much of a disturbance, and we have a long, long road to go before we have brought to the individual school subjects that vitality which is needed. Years of research will be necessary before that can be accomplished, and no good thing has been plead for here tonight that cannot be accomplished with the present subject headings if the content and the vitality are put in those headings.

The wonderful work described by Mr. Mearns, and with which I

fully agree because I have seen it, is quite possible under the headings of composition and under the headings of literature.

Ultimately we ought to have, as a result of our research, and particularly in experimental schools, set up especially for the purpose, a testing out after necessary preparatory research has been done, of the idea of a completely reorganized curriculum. If we do this job of revitalizing our subjects as they stand, as it should be done, ultimately these two kinds of courses of study would be alike. Until that time I think it is not safe to prophesy that even ultimately there will be the breaking down of these subject-matter divisions. It is a possibility, but it certainly is not proved.

H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California.—Since I came to this platform this evening, I find that my mind has been working all the while in the field of contemporary educational history. I have been reminiscing. My mind goes back to the days when fewer than fifteen years ago President Suzzallo, speaking as a member of the National Education Association Committee on Economy of Time, reporting for that committee in reference to the importance of finding ways, if possible, to drop one year from the elementary curriculum, concluded his remarks by bringing in a recommendation and a motion to the effect that there should be appointed a committee to discover what things might be eliminated from the elementary course of study, to the end that through the elimination of those things there might be discovered the possibility of shortening the years necessary to complete the elementary curriculum in preparation for high school.

That committee was directed by the resolutions to determine what things were of such small value or so nearly of no value that they might just as well be omitted.

That committee went about its work, but they discovered very readily that the only way in which to determine what should be omitted was to find out what should be retained. We have been at work upon that job all of the years since that time. In the course of those years, eight yearbooks have been published by the National Society for the Study of Education, touching that topic of the materials and the methods and the technics of organizing those materials into courses of study which ought to be the basis of instruction in elementary and junior high schools.

When that work began, we had not the studies in the field of spelling which are available at this time in those yearbooks, the studies that were produced by Ayres, Jones, Buckingham, Horn, and others. We had not, when that work began, the work of Coffman and Jessup, of Mitchell, of Monroe, of Woody, of Wilson, and others, in the field of arithmetic; we had not the work of Charters in the field of English and of language; we had not the work of Bagley and Rugg and Horn and others in the field of the social sciences. All of those results have come to us since that time in the form of yearbooks issued by the National Society for the Study of Education, and yearbooks issued by the Department of Superintendence.

Not only have we the materials which are in yearbooks, but we have those materials organized likewise through the cooperative effort of administrators and supervisors and teaching staffs in the form of courses of study, guiding and directing the work in the public schools of this country, such as were not to be found ten or twelve years ago. It happened to be a part of my business in 1910 to try to find the efforts that had been made up to that time to employ the efforts alongside of administrators, which might be made by principals and by supervisors and by teachers to aid in the improvement of courses of study. There were but four or five illustrations of any type of effort in that direction. Since that time, think of the distance that we have moved.

Last year 300 school systems in the United States, in fact more than 300, enrolled in a cooperative effort to improve the curriculum. This year I have no doubt that number has been increased. It means that literally thousands of teachers have been at work alongside of administrators and supervisors, studying the problems of how to bring those materials together in right order, illustrated by those technics of procedure and results which have made effective teaching and effective results possible.

I find in this brief review of what has been happening contemporarily, reason for encouragement. I find no ground for fundamental discouragement. The fact that we know our problems, that we have defined them somewhat, that we have a technic of investigation, that we have a technic of participation, means that there is larger hope for the future, and that the progress of the future in the directions in which we now see difficulty and in which we have questions and problems, may reasonably be expected to be even greater, to be even more fundamental and more certain than in the past. There is no ground for fundamental discouragement. There is reason for encouragement and for inspiration and for determination to do the problems that we now see, which are not so difficult in view of the scholarship and the procedures available, as compared with ten or fifteen years ago when by the Suzzalo resolution these efforts were set in motion.

Herbert S. Weet, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, N. Y.—This has been, to any person interested in the junior high school movement, an exceedingly valuable evening. I am going to comment very briefly upon just two things; First, the necessity of keeping alive in our minds the spirit of the junior high school as it has been given here tonight. I think back twelve or thirteen years ago when we in Rochester were organizing our junior high school, and I see how vaguely we understood the purpose of the junior high school, and then I realize that if we could have had before that beginning the kind of symposium that we have had here tonight, given by these three men, Newlon, Judd, and Rugg, it would have been absolutely invaluable to us and it would have saved us from a good many of the mistakes that we have made.

You know they say that Mark Twain was at times profane, and that that good wife of his thought that she could cure him by indulging in some of the same exercises herself. So one morning she came into the breakfast room, and she started out precisely as she had at times heard Mark himself start. And Mark, sensing the whole thing, looked up and with a kindly smile on his face, said, "My dear, you have the words, but you haven't caught the tune."

That holding to the spirit and sensing the spirit of the junior high school is fundamental of all that we are going to do.

I was very much interested in what Mr. Newlon had to say with reference to this matter of articulation. You remember he said that we started out with the junior high school with the notion that it was going to help us bridge the gap or articulate a little more closely, and that as a matter of fact it has developed more problems than it has solved. He is absolutely right, and that is true because we did not have a perfectly clear notion of what the junior high school should do. If we really catch the spirit of the junior high school, if we attempt to carry out that spirit along the lines that have been suggested by the three men to whom I referred, our problems in articulation are going to be very real and they are going to be very serious, but in the last analysis they are minor things and they are going to be worked out.

The second point I wish to make, and I am a little surprised that it has not been referred to here tonight, is the relation or the contribution that the six-year high school, as it is being worked out in some communities, may make to this whole movement of articulation. We are watching the six-year high school very closely in our own city and also in other communities.

Purely as a result of local conditions, not because of anything that we deliberately set out to do, we have in Rochester a six-year high school that started with the children of the seventh and eighth grades, and we have simply retained that group and carried them on through until at the end of this last semester the first group of the twelfth year children will graduate. There is an object lesson there in the matter of articulation in enabling our senior high school people to overcome that problem.

And I want to say that they deserve our sincere respect, because in my judgment they are today facing the most difficult problem of any unit of the school system. There is an object lesson there that is to us exceedingly illuminating, and I think we are going to watch it as the years go on.

AGAIN THE OPEN DOOR IN EDUCATION

FRANK D. BOYNTON, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ITHACA, N. Y.

Some of my hearers are aware that in discussing "Again the Open Door in Education" I am continuing an argument begun two years ago. As I have said elsewhere, no ampler evidence could be desired of the large-mindedness of college administrators in general, of their readiness to face criticism without flinching, and of their desire to serve the public interest than that afforded by the tone and tenor of the published reviews and personal letters, geographically fairly representative of the country, that have come out of the colleges as a result of that earlier discussion.

Some of you may recall that at Cincinnati two years ago, I ventured to point out frankly and with the openly expressed approval of this body, certain shortcomings of the colleges viewed from the angle of the public school administrator. *I said in effect that* entrance requirements were in general based on mere tradition, sometimes even on personal idiosyncrasy; *that* college courses were often determined by professorial interest with little consideration of student needs; *that* those chosen as worthy of college training were those who could disgorge most readily certain quantities of fact from an arbitrary list of studies; *that* the aid rendered freshmen was perfunctory and aimless; *that* the influence of college life was not infrequently corrupting and dissipating, an influence aided and abetted by the example of some of the members of the faculty; *that* the academic mortality of freshmen was due more to poor teaching in college than to poor preparation; *that* college teachers were selected, promoted and rewarded not on the basis of teaching ability but on the basis of research; *that* professional training for teaching was not only not required by the colleges but that it was laughed at; *that* the individual professor was a law unto himself, determining his own courses, setting his own examinations, marking his own papers, and turning in his results from which there was no appeal; *that* "residence" had become a fetish and an obstruction to educational progress; *that* for the *endowed* college—endowed by public-spirited men for public service out of funds built up out of excessive profits paid by the people, and receiving tens of millions annually in tax exemptions—that for such an institution to regard itself as "private" would be humorous if it were not pernicious; *that* the claim of overcrowding may or may not be true; and *that* only by a comprehensive survey by representatives of the public interest of our institutions of higher learning as to plant capacity, equipment, funds, and faculty can this fact be scientifically determined.

After two years of discussion, part of it oral, part through the agency of personal letters and magazine and newspaper articles, and much of it emanating from the colleges themselves, this "indictment," if one wishes to call it by so harsh a name, stands generally acknowledged as a fair state-

ment of existing conditions. Here and there it has encountered resentment, of course. The president of Purdue University before the National Education Association in 1925 expressed surprise that this body should give its approval to such a picture of conditions; and after claiming for the colleges the credit for all advances worth mentioning in the field of pure and applied science and art, never having heard of Burbank, Edison, Ford, Burroughs, and others, he pointed triumphantly as evidence that the colleges are meeting the needs of the hour to the fact that the number of students attending them has grown from 160,000 in 1900 to 600,000 in 1925. Unfortunately and characteristically he saw but one side of the picture; for he failed to point out the further fact, without which his figures have no significance, that this progress made by the colleges compasses *only two fifths* of that made by the high schools in the same period; *and he offered no solution* to the problem that faces this growing army of ambitious youth knocking in vain at the closed doors of our colleges.

The plain fact is that the college is not meeting the situation and apparently has no plans for meeting it. If it sees at all the constantly and rapidly augmenting stream of elementary school pupils pouring into our high schools, there to come for four years under the tutelage of college graduates, to pour out again keenly awake to the possibilities open to them through further training—if it sees this swelling stream at all, it seems to see in it only the opportunity of lightening its own task by a more drastic selection of the finest specimens of a particular type of mental ability, while it goes serenely on its way careless of and indifferent to the fate of other equally desirable types, who, judged by its standards, deserve no academic salvation. College plants, particularly in the east, are undergoing little or no expansion. No new colleges are being founded. Again and again my correspondents in New England and in the Middle Atlantic states stress this fact. Out of the colleges comes no answer to the insistent question, "What shall be done with the overflow?" "Selecting only from the upper quartile" is the euphemism now applied to the process. But when we ask what is to be done with the lower quartile where, not infrequently are to be found the real leaders—youths aglow with the vitality that often finds expression outside of academic halls, sometimes to the detriment of academic records, but in which one can read the assurance of future success, in answer to that question we hear only a great silence.

There is a doctrine that is fundamental in American education, and that is: that every child born in or adopted by this republic has the right to have developed through education whatever of talent he may possess without reference to quantity, quality, or type of that talent, and that he should have assured to him the opportunity to go as far as his ability and ambition will permit. At the birth of the nation, the Fathers made clear their belief that in education alone lay security for popular government; and the subsequent history of education in this country has made this doctrine a

part of the fundamental faith of the nation. In a wide correspondence from every one of the forty-eight states, I find no public educator dissenting from this principle.

Nor has this doctrine been held merely as a distant ideal, realizable, if at all, only in some dim utopian future. Steadily the nation has moved toward its realization. At the time of the adoption of the Constitution the maximum average length of the school life of the individual was eighty days; in 1840, this average for the nation had risen to 208 days; and in 1870 it had risen to 582 days; in 1890 to 770 days; and in 1920 the nation was on a 1200-day basis or was about to enter on the seventh-grade level. Beginning as a private enterprise, under private direction and control, education has gradually passed to the control of the people, and at each succeeding level the ideal has been to make it free and universal. In the case of the elementary school the ideal has been completely attained; and in the secondary school, nearly so. We are now facing the same problem at the college level; and no solution of it will be accepted as adequate that does not assure to every worthy high school graduate, who has the ambition, his opportunity to prove by actual trial whether or not he can profit by higher training; and that does not assure further that the trial shall be made under conditions which, by providing at least a modicum of human sympathy and encouragement, will aid him in orienting himself in his new and strange surroundings. No worthy student, and it is only of him that I am speaking, goes to college to fail. If he is failing there is a cause; and it would seem as if just ordinary intelligence in a teacher, just common interest in the success of a fellow being, would prompt him to ascertain and, if possible, remove the cause; and it is, indeed, a pleasure to record that a beginning here and there has been made in the humanizing of college courses and administration.

But we are told that there are in college too many who cannot profit by it; that it is futile to burden the colleges further with unfit material. That statement rests upon two assumptions which are herewith sharply challenged. The first is, that present methods of admission are the most effective that can be found for selecting the material that can profit by what the college has to offer. The second is, that what the college has to offer exhausts the possibilities of higher training, and that the student who cannot profit by it is of inferior mentality and should be denied higher educational opportunity. It is apparently quite true that there are in our colleges many who cannot profit by the courses offered; but there is no evidence to show that this does not indicate a need for a change in the methods of admission and in courses of instruction rather than further exclusion of students. There is no scientific evidence available to determine whether the student or the college is at fault. Here is a question that challenges the best minds we have in the field of education. The

demand for social efficiency has made over the elementary and secondary school. It will not hold the college sacrosanct. It may be that we are at the breaking point with the traditional college.

The assertion that too many are going to college is without scientific foundation. If it is an inference from the fact that some are now in college who cannot profit by what the colleges offer, it is simply a non-sequitur. And if it emanates, as President Angell says it originally did, from those who are always looking for cheap labor and who see that commodity dwindling before the extension of educational privilege, or from those who believe that learning and culture are the prerogatives of a small intellectual or social aristocracy, having no contact with the gross affairs of practical life, interested in esthetic appreciation more than in a search for truth and considering an academic degree as a mark of caste—in either case it can be disregarded as being un-American and wholly alien to our national ideals and purposes.

Let it be understood that in advocating "Again the Open Door in Education" I am not making a plea for the admission of the moron. Nor am I asserting that all men are born intellectually equal and are, therefore, entitled to equal educational opportunity. Long before the psychologists taught us to talk learnedly about chronological ages and I. Q.'s, the mental inequality of individuals was apparent to the most ordinary observer. I am quite aware of the fact that at every level of the educative process there emerge some who have reached the limit of their capacity for education. But if our schools are doing their work effectively, we are safe in assuming that at each level the mental incompetents are being largely sifted out and that those who survive are mentally prepared for further training and, if they have a desire for it, should be given the chance to prove by actual trial whether they can profit by it. We do, as a matter of fact, proceed exactly on this assumption at each stage of the educative process until we reach the college level.

Neither am I pleading for the same opportunity for all who survive the high school period. For some, scholarship along traditional lines will, of course, be an easy possibility. For others, only one or two years of additional training can be taken with profit. What I am asking is that those who survive the high school and who desire further training shall have the opportunity for one or more years in college with courses organized and modernized and with definite study and guidance of the individual through his underclass years. And I am urging that these courses have some sort of coherence and unity, starting somewhere and tending toward some definite objective; and that those who are found incapable of advanced independent work or who have no desire for it, be given, upon satisfactory completion of the one or two years of such higher training, some sort of certificate to that effect and be dismissed with the goodwill of the institution. There is nothing sacred in the traditional four-year course leading to a degree and

the break with tradition here suggested can be made without detriment to sound scholarship.

The proposal to loose upon the colleges this rising tide of ambitious and worthy youth, is met by the statement that the colleges are now crowded and that the proposal is impossible. *What constitutes a crowded college?* It is, perhaps not unlikely that the enormous and rapid development of our high schools still going on, has created a demand for higher training somewhat in excess of the capacity of our present plant; but before it can be known whether a given college is overcrowded, *three facts must be scientifically determined.* *First*, we must know what the maximum plant capacity is, each room and laboratory working from 8:00 o'clock A.M. to 5:00 o'clock P.M. on at least five days per week for not less than thirty-eight weeks; *second*, it must be determined what constitutes a reasonable student load for a college teacher; and *third*, what constitutes a reasonable teaching load per week. As far as I have been able to discover, these fundamental questions have never been answered authoritatively; *and until they are*, the statement that our colleges are crowded is mere assumption.

Some rather fragmentary studies of my own, however, made within the year, in which I have had the assistance of some of the best men in education in college and out, have yielded interesting results. "Crowded" colleges were selected for the study. It was found that in these institutions from a few to a score or more of rooms were vacant, and in many instances locked, during the working hours. In some of our colleges the notion still prevails that a classroom is the personal possession of a particular professor, with the result that these rooms are not yielding more than twenty to thirty percent efficiency. A classroom or a laboratory can work six or more hours a day without being overworked. One such room accommodating forty students on a six-hour schedule would care for this number, each student taking fifteen hours' work per week and reciting in classes of approximately forty students each; thirty such rooms would care for 2400 students in small classes. This would seem to support the contention made in my Cincinnati address that large classes are a professorial convenience. If, in the colleges that have been studied, such use were made of the plant, the registration could be approximately doubled without the addition of a single classroom. If the plant inefficiency prevalent in our colleges were found in our public schools, our surveyors would create a revolution.

What is a reasonable student load for the college teacher? Here we find ourselves in the field of opinion. President Snively sets the number at *fifteen*, and the American Council on Education sets it at twelve and one half. President Snively mentions certain "crowded" colleges. If these colleges were to bring their student load up to President Snively's measure they would be able to register 4001 more students without increasing their plant or equipment. Similar studies have been made of

twentyseven colleges in three states. In these twentyseven colleges if the student load were placed at twelve and one half, they could accommodate 12,301 more students. These studies, incomplete as they are, are sufficient to suggest that the "crowded" college may be an academic myth, for in many colleges the student load drops below six.

And what is a reasonable teaching load for a college teacher? The American Council on Education has set the standard at sixteen hours per week. Again my studies, based upon direct correspondence with college professors themselves, go to show that this standard is far above actual practice. In many instances, the teaching load is less than *ten* hours per week. In public education we are looking for teachers who can teach successfully large numbers, teachers who can inspire pupils to effort and initiative rather than for drill masters for a few who are to be taught to absorb knowledge rather than to think; *and it has moreover never been proved* that small classes result in higher scholarship. *It will be difficult to convince the public* that twelve and one half students per college teacher is an overload and that sixteen hours of teaching per week is overwork, and that to relieve such distressful conditions it is necessary to deny admission to an increasingly large number of admittedly qualified candidates.

But are qualified candidates being denied admission to college in any considerable numbers? I am in possession of letters written since January 1, 1927, from schoolmen in fortyone states, which clearly establish the fact that fully prepared students are being denied admission to college. I am also in possession of data furnished by the colleges since November 24, 1926, wherein the fact is further established. Sixtyseven colleges responded with the information asked; fiftyone of these admit that 15,196 candidates were denied admission in September, 1926. It is admitted that over one half of this number had met the full fifteen "Carnegie" units and that a considerably larger number would have been able to do college work. It should be added that the above record was made almost entirely by the "endowed" colleges. Several colleges did not furnish data. Some of them frankly stated that they were not certain how the public would accept the facts.

Alumni are beginning to show an interest in this exclusion act even in the case of the so-called "private" college. One such college that has been taking its students from the upper quartile and succeeding in graduating only about fortyfive percent of its freshman class is having its trouble with its alumni. A prominent alumnus of this college has furnished me with a copy of a letter which he wrote asking for some justification of the methods of instruction and the courses offered which resulted in such mortality among those who are supposedly the cream of the young men of the country. This college denied admission to more than one half of its applicants and yet the student load is 9.5 per teacher.

What is the solution? Signs are not lacking that the really constructive minds in the field of higher education are grappling with the problem.

An entire paper could be filled with recent utterances of men who speak with authority in the educational world, all tending to show that the stubborn wall of tradition that has so long blocked advance in higher education is crumbling. Only a few weeks ago, President Livingston Farrand of Cornell University was quoted in the press as saying:

The time is not far distant when the old traditional college will be lost, and we shall wonder how we ever prepared for the scholarship of the day along traditional lines.

President Lotus D. Coffman of the University of Minnesota, has recently said that an irresistible pressure is bringing about

a reorganization of the materials of instruction for freshmen, calculated to insure a more systematic education through programs with definite objectives. The vast majority of students who enter college know what they are there for and are unwilling to drift about aimlessly in a sea of liberal subjects.

Dean Kent, of Northwestern University, says:

The time has come when we will not have done our duty until each college determines the type of service it purposes to render and reorganizes its courses and its methods of instruction to intelligently serve these purposes.

President Hibben, of Princeton, says concerning the type of student to be admitted:

We ought to know, as far as it is humanly possible to determine, not only the type of undergraduate but the type of man he is likely to be. If we find a boy deficient in credits but who has in his favor a career of leadership, a record of broad influence on his companions, an outlook on life that distinguishes him morally, that kind of boy, despite academic shortage, is the kind of boy who should be welcome at college.

The correspondence to which I have made reference teems with suggestion. From some of the colleges comes the plea for the founding of more colleges. Some even suggest the junior college as a part of the public school system. Schoolmen suggest the establishment of a state university in every state, and the extension of this principle in states where there already is a state university. Ohio now has three state universities. It is obvious, however, that hope for a solution rests with the extension of the junior college as a part of the state and municipal school system with a probable reorganization of public education on the 6-4-4 plan. California and Missouri already have the junior college as an established part of the public educational system, and the number of students registering in the freshman class in the junior colleges of California last September equalled the number registering in the freshman class of the standard colleges of that state. With 163 junior colleges already established in the country, it may fairly be said that the junior college movement is well under way. Several state legislatures this winter are considering bills for the establishment of junior colleges as a part of the public educational system of their states.

Just what will be the reaction of the traditional college to the changing educational conditions remains to be seen. Frankly, little can be looked for

immediately in the way of reorganization of courses and methods from what some schoolmen call the "Tutankhamen crowd still wedded to the past and stoutly defending its penates." Some go so far as to refer to present college courses and organization as moribund, and suggest that Ephraim be let alone with his idols and that a solution be sought independent of the colleges. The reported attitude of the Phi Beta Kappa Society expressed at its meeting a few years ago seems to give color to this conclusion. The press reported at that time that this society of liberal culture had undertaken to raise one million dollars to fight the spread of vocational education, and the president at that time was quoted as saying:

In the last century election to Phi Beta Kappa meant that the student had reached success along lines of study universally conceded as standard in higher education. Today the tendency toward vocational education is so great that there is urgent need for an active, coherent organization, both within the colleges and outside of them, of the forces that stand for liberal education. Can a better center be found for such an organization than is offered by Phi Beta Kappa? The fraternity has reached an age and grown to a greatness which forbids it to refuse the challenge that the present day brings to lovers of learning.

Graduate as I am of a traditional arts college, and believing as I do in that training for those who can profit by it, I must vigorously dissent from the implication contained in this statement that scholarship is exclusively the product of the arts college. Scholarship is just as possible in architecture or in engineering as in the humanities. The term needs and is receiving a new definition.

It is, indeed, a bit difficult to understand how the arts college, the original vocational school, which had its inception in need for training men for a specific vocation, can logically take exception to vocational training. It is essentially an illiberal attitude, and it is with regret that I have to admit, after years of association with teachers from every type of higher institution, agricultural and other technical schools, as well as with liberal arts colleges, that I know of no more illiberal men in the teaching profession than can be found in the liberal arts colleges, no more de-humanized teaching, no more complete lack of human interest, than is to be found in the classrooms of some of the teachers of the humanities.

In conclusion: Based upon my studies and correspondence I would suggest the following as steps toward the solution to our present difficulties:

1. A survey of present higher educational institutions to ascertain existing plant capacity, endowment, and equipment, together with a scientific determination of what constitutes a reasonable student and teaching load for a college teacher.
2. Provision by the state of adequate educational facilities from kindergarten through the university, including a system of junior colleges, with unbroken sequence of promotion for those found capable at each stage of profiting by more advanced training.

3. Provision of higher training for various types of mental ability with a determination on the part of individual colleges of the types of service they plan to render and selection of their students in accordance therewith.

4. A reorganization of college courses with definite objectives for certain groups and supervision calculated to orient freshmen in their college work.

5. The requirement by the colleges of demonstrated teaching ability as a requisite for retention on the faculty, the recognition of high teaching ability as the basis for professorial advancement, and the establishment of some system for the improvement of college teaching in the freshman and sophomore years.

Education is the BIG BUSINESS of the nation. Officered by a million teachers, the "grand army of the republic," an army of 25,000,000 children is marching against the citadels of ignorance and superstition and race hatred, upholding the traditions and defending the ideals of the republic—an army assembling from hill and dale, from city and village, from the farm, the workshop, the mine, from industry and commerce, from the homes of the rich and of the poor, with the blood of the Orient and of the Occident coursing through their veins; *destined* in each of the fortyeight states of this great American "league of nations" to become citizens, not subjects; *an army* whose wellbeing places an obligation upon every American to support to the limit the stronghold of our democracy, the bulwark of our free institutions.

Gentlemen, this is not just one more paper to be added to the files of this department. This is a crusade upon which we have entered, a crusade to be preached with increasing power until the people, laying hold of the doors of the gate of the city of knowledge shall pluck them up and carry them away, leaving free and unobstructed the pathway to the acropolis.

GREETINGS

SERGEANT ALVIN C. YORK, FOUNDER YORK INDUSTRIAL INSTITUTE,
JAMESTOWN, TENN.

President Condon—Today is Independence Day in Texas. They started something ninety-one years ago. They started the ideals of freedom and liberty and justice and independence of man on this soil of Texas. And we are here from all sections of the country rejoicing with them in the common possession.

I want to read to you the letter that William Barrett Travis sent out from the Alamo Mission when his little band of 182 Texans were surrounded by the Mexican army of rapidly increasing thousands.

It seems to me that we would be unworthy of ourselves if we did not have read to us this morning this great historic American document. There were 182 Texans, one of them Dave Crockett, another one Travis the commander, within the walls of the Alamo Mission at San Antonio, surrounded by the Mexican army, increasing in size, and Travis wrote this letter:

To the People of Texas and to All Americans in the World, Fellow Citizens and Compatriots: I am besieged by a thousand or more of the Mexicans under Santa Ana. I have sustained a continuous bombardment and cannonade for twenty-four hours and have not lost a man. The enemy has demanded a surrender at discretion, otherwise the garrison is to be put to the sword if the fort is taken. I have answered the demand with a cannon shot and our flag still proudly waves from the walls. I shall never surrender or retreat.

I call to you in the name of liberty, of patriotism, and everything dear to the American character to come to our aid with all dispatch. The enemy is receiving reinforcements daily and will no doubt increase to three or four thousand in four or five days.

If this call is neglected, I am determined to sustain myself as long as possible and die like a soldier who never forgets what is due to his own honor and to that of his country. Victory or death.

I referred, I think, on Monday to the fact that from the ruins of the old Alamo in front of the capital at Austin, before it was burned in 1881, there stood a monument and on it these immortal words: "Thermopylae had her messenger of defeat, the Alamo had none. For every man of them died refusing to surrender, but the cause for which they died lives." Today Texas and America rejoice in the independence of this great state that now is a part of our nation.

I have special pleasure in calling attention to this, for in the great World War there was enacted the same kind of heroism, and one of the greatest heroes that came out of that war was a representative of the south, and I have brought him to the platform with me, today, Alvin York.

Into the jaws of death rode the Six Hundred, and some of them remained and some came back, but Alvin York went into the jaws of death and he came out unwounded, and I would not mistake the great privilege which I covet of introducing him to this audience, but I am to give the privilege of doing that to a representative of this great state who has been the Commander of the American Legion, and I am to ask Alvin Owsley to introduce to this gathering Alvin York.

Alvin Owsley, Former Commander, American Legion—These are stirring days for the city of Dallas; they are impressive moments in the history of this nation. With the convening of the National Education Association, on the patriotic soil of Texas in the hour of our celebration of our independence, you have invoked the eyes of the state, the eyes of the nation upon you, and in the city of Dallas you have builded the shrine of education, good citizenship, patriotism, and spiritual uplift.

You will recall that after the Battle of Marathon was fought, and the liberty of Greece was made sure, all of the generals spoke each of himself as the first man of honor, but the whole of them declared that Miltiades was second. When the centuries rolled by and men were called in the name of liberty, of independence and of truth, when the mightiest conflict the world had ever had to look upon had been finished, when the count was made known to the world, all of the nations said, "We have soldiers who have taken second place, but the United States of America has the

son who has first place in war, in peace and in the hearts of the world." I present him to you, patriot, teacher, citizen, Sergeant Alvin York, the greatest hero of the greatest war of mankind.

Alvin York—I was glad to hear the name of David Crockett spoken because that made me think of home. Perhaps this audience doesn't know that David Crockett and my grandfather were squirrel hunters together. And perhaps the audience didn't know that the school that I am so interested in and the boys and girls I am trying to educate are in the same county and adjoining the county of David Crockett's old home. David Crockett has a namesake in Fentress County, in the county he lived in, and he has six or eight of his descendants of the Crockett family in that county.

This morning I am going to say to you in the beginning that I know, or perhaps I think I know what you want to hear. Most everywhere I go I am requested to say something about the war or my war experience, and that I have refrained from doing in many instances, and the reason is because we boys who had the experience don't like to talk about the struggles of war.

This morning I have been asked by two or three different persons to give just a little bit about my war experience. But in the short period I have to talk and the other things I want to tell you, I can't give you very much. I will give you this much: I will begin telling you about the morning that a detachment of seventeen men were sent out to silence the machine guns, after heavy loss had come to our company and our division. I happened to be one of those men sent out to silence the machine guns, who were sent in deadly fire into the front lines. We were sent around a little hill to open fire, as the orders said, on the flag of the enemy, and instead of stopping on top of the hill we went back of the hill into a hollow which put us behind the support line of the German troops, something like three-quarters of a mile from the American line back into the German territory. We didn't know we were behind the support line of the Germans and neither did the Germans know we were there.

When we woke up to the fact that we had got behind the support line of the German troops, we realized immediately that we had something to do or we would never be taken out of there alive. So we immediately opened fire from the rear on the support line and began to command the major in charge of the machine gun battalion to surrender his men. And he immediately called fire from a line of machine guns which contained thirty-five machine guns on the hillside just above us, between us and the American line. They opened fire and unfortunately killed or wounded all the men that were in front of them but the one that stands before you today.

After a severe battle of some little time I succeeded in getting hold of the German major and gave a command to him like this: "If you don't surrender your men I will kill you first and then all the men you have."

The German major said to me, "If you won't kill any more men I will have them surrender."

He blew a little whistle and the men began to surrender. We had something like ninety prisoners in that hollow and back on the hill the guns were yet firing into the American troops. We had yet the front line to go through with this mass of prisoners. I called to see if there were any more American boys not killed or wounded. There happened to be five of the boys to the extreme right who were not in front or not facing the machine guns who had not been shot. Those boys came when I commanded them to come, and we marched these Germans in a column of twos up into the rear of the front line of machine guns that were firing into the American troops, and we got through them in the same way we got the first group, by command and a 45 Colt at the back of the German's head demanding that the officer surrender or he be the first to die. So he surrendered the front line, and we went back into the American lines with 132 prisoners.

I am not traveling about over the country just sightseeing or to tell war stories, but I am very much interested in America and in America's children. The section of the country for which I am giving my time and my life, and working for the education of mountain boys and girls is a section of the purest Anglo-Saxon American blood that I know of anywhere. In this section are the descendants of the old Revolutionary soldiers of years ago. They don't know what foreign language means in this section, and there isn't a colored man in the section for which I am working. They are all whites, they are the descendants, as I say, of the old Revolutionary soldiers of years ago. These boys and girls are back in the styx, so we call it, in the mountain sections, and it has been estimated that about 219 counties are included in the mountainous sections of four different states.

Along the Tennessee and Kentucky line in the heart of the Cumberlands is a section where, according to the books, one-third of the population of boys and girls, American boys and girls, from six to sixteen cannot read and write. And in there is a typical bunch of mountaineers, bright-eyed boys and girls who are at the present time, many of them, barefooted; the parents are poor back in those hills; they haven't the clothing to go to school, many of them, and they haven't the schools they should have. Ever since my return from the war, since I was discharged from the army, I have been giving my time and my life to try to educate those boys and girls.

I say many times that there are so many of our people throughout America who don't know our own country. I heard a superintendent one time, who had been a superintendent of a county, make a speech, and he said there were no barefoot boys and girls in that county, they all had good clothing, and they were up to the standard of the average county in his state. At that time I knew that my wife and I had been furnishing clothing to beautiful little girls ten and twelve and thirteen years of age to go to Sunday school and school, and I knew that this

superintendent didn't know what he was talking about. I will tell you why. The superintendent of the schools doesn't visit the homes. I think the teachers that are here will bear with me in that the superintendent doesn't go back in the styx and in the rough and visit the homes. They visit the school; they see what is in school, they know what they are doing most of the time in school and part of the time they don't, but back in the homes of the poor people on the mountainsides, in the log cabins, you never find the superintendent. Back in those humble homes is where the boys and girls are needing help, back in those isolated parts is where we need to go and bring those intelligent boys and girls to the front and give them an education.

I have in my county at the present a temporary quarters which can accommodate only eighty students in high school. This past year I have turned down more than 150 applications of poor boys and girls who have registered to the eighth grade from the elementary school and have applied for a high school education.

My mission in going over the country, ladies and gentlemen, is interesting the American people in those American boys and girls in the mountains, and I am trying to raise sufficient funds in my traveling to enable me to complete a building which is now under construction that will accommodate 400 boys and girls in that section and enable them to go to high school next year.

We have a little pamphlet that I would to God every man here and every woman here could get, so that you could see a picture of a boy on this pamphlet, a real live boy living today and see what a bright eyed, intelligent boy he is. Though the knee of his pants is out and he is barefooted, he is a sensible, an intelligent bright-eyed boy. His great grandfather came down from Michigan as a captain in the cavalry in our great war. That is the kind of boy he is. He is up there in those hills, one of those poor boys who has had no chance for education; he has had no opportunity, but he is seeking that opportunity at the present time. If I can be lucky enough to succeed in putting up the building which is now under construction which will cost about \$125,000 to complete, and equip, I can take care of this boy along with hundreds of other boys this coming year instead of taking care of eighty.

I want to say in conclusion that I wish that every lady and gentleman here who is interested in education and who is interested in a spiritual education, could make a trip up into the section where I live and see that wonderful country, which I think is the greatest country in the world, unless it is Texas.

I have some great pioneer friends who have come to Texas, who helped to make Texas, and they were Houston and David Crockett. So I have a great love for Texas.

I want to say in closing that those boys and girls up there will welcome you any time you want to come. There is a good car road now.

We have had a very hard time getting highways there but we have succeeded in getting a good highway at last. Any time that you come to this section you will be welcome, and at any time that you can't come and you want to write us a letter and ask us about our institution, we will be glad to answer you and send you pamphlets or literature showing you what we are doing, and telling you how we are getting along. Just address your letter to Alvin C. York, or to the Alvin C. York Industrial Institute at Jamestown, Tennessee.

SPIRITUALIZING THE FACTS

M. G. CLARK, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SIOUX CITY, IOWA

A great game of football was in progress. The score was a tie. The home team had the ball on the one yard line and one minute to play. Football history for their college must be made. The home fans, as a man, were all on their feet, shouting encouragement in football unison, "We want a touchdown." When high above the shout, a childish treble voice piped out, "Daddy, I want peanuts."

All over this broad land of ours, the educational game is on. With a great deal of enthusiasm various advocates of educational "isms" each believing its chosen eleven to be within the yard limit of the ultimate goal of educational practice, are standing and encouraging their team with their "ism" yells, "We want silent reading." "We want scientific spelling." "We want diagnostic tests." "We want the establishment of fact-norms." Then altogether they rise upon their educational feet and unite in a great shout, "We want the teaching and the testing and the diagnosis and the mastery of facts, facts, facts."

But over and above the roar of this mass of educators, there comes back to listening ears the high childish treble of our young people—"We want emotions—we want kicks—we want thrills—we want a life over and above the prosaic statement and mastery of facts—we want something that shall motivate our activities and give direction to our energies. We want life—we want life energized, life worthwhile, life that shall give to us an opportunity to mobilize our emotions and set free our energies upon some worthwhile quest."

The most splendid group of young people the world has ever seen are to be found today within our public schools. Only effeminate men and disappointed, aged maidens, are crying hopelessly that America is retrograding in its young human product.

The young people of today are beautiful in their physique; the flush of health is in their faces and their eyes. They are splendid in their mentality and they are delightful in their poise and spiritual character. Like the youth of previous ages, however, they must take the world as they find it and through the experiences which it offers today, they

must seek that life-balance which, if found, will give to them the poise of fine living, or, if not found, will leave them unorganized, disgruntled, and unsatisfied.

Our social and economic world does not offer, in its present organization, those constructive and natural emotions that the earlier periods of the world's development presented. The thrills of the days of discovery are past. The emotions of the pioneer and the dangers of the hunt and of Indian warfare are over. The spiritualizing problems of the days of constructive patriotism, the days of Washington, of Hamilton, of Lincoln, are gone. The great emotions that possessed the heart of the nation during the war and the years following the war are no longer felt. Our young people are left to seek for themselves as best as they can, for those emotional reactions which rightfully belong to them.

Since they cannot find these thrills in their social or economic environment, or in some great patriotic call, they are naturally reaching out into every avenue to find a substitute. What blame to them, if, finding nothing more worthwhile, they get their "kick" as they call it, out of jazz music, sensual dances, "petting" parties, emotional extravaganzas, and even "hip pocket" stimulants? Such emotional reactions do not necessarily spell immorality, but rather do they indicate that within the normal hearts of our children there resides a great human desire for an emotional reaction that the home life, the social environment and the education curriculum do not furnish.

A great question before us as educators, then, is—what can our schools provide to foster a constructive emotional life? How can the curriculum be revised to give to our boys and girls a thrill that is both satisfying and uplifting? How can we blaze a path that shall lead to emotions as constructive as those formally provided for the pioneer? What can we do to bring them the "kick" that is found in conquering a kingdom of thought and reasoning? How can constructive emotions be provided that shall fill and thrill and throb as did those of the days of chivalry, the days of discovery, the days of conquest and the days of the pioneer? How can we put to work the emotions of our children so as to give them the normal pleasures of youth and yet train and hold them for the daily grind of continued days of service—the normal human life—and yet a life that shall prove satisfying because of the thrill of its significance?

The recent suicide of a dozen or more college students, is crying to the educators of America, "Life has nothing to offer us; we have experienced all its thrills; nothing is left; let us pass on."

How can we stop this "burning out" of the lives of our eighteen year olds? What answer can we give to their cry?

We have taught facts; we have produced a generation of young people who are encyclopædic in their knowledges, but we have not spiritualized those facts. We have not suggested their deeper meanings. Our young people have missed the everlasting values, the real significance of life itself.

Our facts stand organized into encyclopædic mind knowledges, ready to answer at any moment the diagnostic test, but facts merely, as facts, do not give significance, idealisms, and values to life.

Our schools lack atmosphere—that intangible something that leads the child to seek those eternal verities that function in ideals, that spiritualize thinking, that motivate actions and that ennoble life. Our college suicides have failed to grasp, through the mere mastery of facts, that no life is sufficiently long to exhaust the worthwhileness of living. We need in our educational scheme a no less mastery of facts, but we need greater wisdom in teaching the spiritual significance of facts.

By spiritual significance we refer neither to the usual religious concept of the term nor to the ordinary idea of moral training.

We mean rather that deeper significance of fact-values, which, when put into action, gives us vision, understanding and guidance in our attempts to solve our daily problems.

Out of a great wealth of educational material, the following values are selected for discussion in the belief that they need a more careful spiritual emphasis in our schools. They constitute values that can well challenge the best thought of our curriculum committees. They are: The integration or spiritualizing of the community; the love of law; the idea of citizenship; the new significance of work and culture; and our service for the next generation.

The atmosphere of our public schools should be that of a spiritualized community. The most significant social movement of recent years is to be found in the growth of our civic clubs. The Rotary club, the Kiwanis club and other civic clubs are training their members to listen together, to think together, to discuss together, and to act independently but in community harmony. Their membership is trained toward the establishment of a functioning community mind. They are trained to lay aside prejudices, to discard intolerances, and to do community teamwork.

The public school will never fulfill its function in our American democratic experiment, until it shall cause to sink deep into the hearts and minds of its pupils, the great democratic principle, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor." There can be no democracy where this principle is not applied. Our schools are magnifying individualism. We magnify it in type of our recitation; we magnify it in our system of marking and grading; we magnify it in the methods of our classroom. Many are magnifying it through some form of individual teaching. These statements do not imply that we need to minimize individual development. We would emphasize, rather, that we need to magnify to the individual the community he is educated to serve.

The front pages of our newspapers are filled with the history of individualistic wrecks; wrecks that sought individual supreme happiness at the expense of their fellows. The welfare of a community depends upon the desire and the effort of the individuals of that community to think and to act for the community good.

The subordination of the individual to the good of the community is but one-half the story. The joy of a community in the victories of its individual members, however humble may be their station, are values that need to be taught and practiced in every schoolroom. Every classroom is a potential community, dependent upon the work of its individual members and the individuals of such a community will soon learn that the worthwhileness of their work is to be found in the larger community-good. Here is where the public schools may do much to correct the personal liberty idea of the bootlegger and of his bootlegging patron. The two college-trained criminals of Chicago, of semi-recent notoriety, had never learned the lesson of service to others. They had no community-service sense. Their overdeveloped individualism demanded service, but never sought to render it to others.

Teamwork upon a football field is significant, but it is far more significant in a classroom, a community, a city, a state, or a nation. A half day's visit in any school will reveal whether it possesses or whether it lacks the spiritual reaction of community teamwork.

The love of law is basic to the welfare of a community. We often hear it said, "We need to inculcate a greater respect for law." We need, rather, to spiritualize law; to get so fundamental an understanding of law that it will take possession of our emotions and we will affirm that we love law. Nothing more fundamental can enter the training of the emotional life of the child. Upon the love of law all lasting happiness depends. This is a world of law and law is a manifestation of supreme love. Our very being came into existence through law. Our physical growth and health are dependent upon law. So, too, our mental growth and spiritual life are dependent upon law. Our food, the air we breathe, the water we drink, come to us by law. The sunshine of our day and the starlight of our rest-time, are manifestations of the infinite love that created the law of day and night. Every beat of our heart is a throb of law.

Let us teach our children that law never punishes. Law always blesses. The observance of law brings happiness; the non-observance of law brings calamity. Calamity is not a punishment, it is the natural result of a failure to maintain the harmony of laws.

What a wonderful opportunity for the teacher of mathematics, who daily teaches mathematical law, to spiritualize his facts! What a responsibility rests upon every science teacher to teach, with the details of scientific law, the deeper spiritual significance of all law! What a wonderful vision can be kept before the pupils of the history community, as they relive the problems of the past centuries, and discover that the causes for the cataclysms of people and of nations have been that they loved not the law but chose deliberately the paths of destruction.

What shall we in America's schools do about America's problems—the rising tide of the criminal class—the non-observance of laws—the carelessness with which we toss back and forth our contempt for the laws of

society? There is a tendency to a softness, not only in our courts, but also in the discipline of our schools, that breeds a contempt of law rather than a love of law. We cannot profess a love of law unless we acknowledge the justice with which its non-observance brings disorganization and sorrow. Let us, likewise, insist that the non-observance of the statutes of our country, made and provided for the happiness of the individuals of the community and the citizens of the nation, will bring us inevitably, some just calamity.

This offers to the teacher a great opportunity for spiritualizing her teaching facts. Perhaps no opportunity is oftener neglected. It is to be hoped that our curriculum committees may help us to establish through our schools a greater love for law.

The facts of citizenship need likewise to be spiritualized. The spiritualized school-community will regard citizenship as its greatest community asset. The spiritualization of citizenship includes at least four ideas: The right of citizenship; the privilege of citizenship; the duty of citizenship; the love of citizenship.

In spiritualizing citizenship the history teacher will not fail to connote all that is included in the word "rights." The reliving, the rethinking, the dramatization of the problems of early history, cannot fail to cause the heart to warm and the emotional blood to flow with greater rapidity. For centuries, mankind had been struggling against might and powers. A new world was discovered, pioneered and wrested from those same powers, that the rights of individual citizenship might be established and maintained for all future generations. The right of citizenship is a sacred thing, dear to the heart of every American. Without it mankind becomes a peasantry, degraded, pauperized in body and soul; with it, mankind has been dignified, purified, and ennobled and has created a new government of service for its citizens.

Let us so teach and spiritualize citizenship that every child will thrill as he stands, uncovered, and proclaims to his fellows: "I am a citizen of no mean country—America—a great nation among all the nations of the world! I have the rights of an American citizenship."

The American public school has no greater function than to teach American boys and girls that the right of citizenship is too sacred to be lightly forgotten or left to decay from disuse. The privilege of citizenship is a far more sacred thing than the right of citizenship. The test of American citizenship is not in the loud-mouthed bragging of rights; it is found, rather, in the pride and the alacrity with which we put this great prerogative, this American privilege, to daily use. Too often we relegate this great privilege to our fellows. We are often too busy to be Americans for an hour or a day. It should never again be said that less than 25 percent of American voters determine by their ballots who shall be the president of so great a people.

Election days should be great gala-days, emotionalized as days of service for America. Thus, also, jury service proves our American peerage—the privilege of American equality. On such days, and in such services, we commemorate the sacrifice and sanctify the blood of all generations that has been shed to guarantee our rights and our privileges.

But citizenship is something more than a right for which we would lay down our lives, if necessary. It is something more than a privilege that points our high distinction as American citizens—we must teach that it is a duty. Every loyal citizen of America holds himself ready for defensive service at his country's call. Such service, even to the sacrifice of life, is glorious. Every loyal American citizen holds himself ready, also, to perform the less applauded peace duties of citizenship, however sordid they may appear and in whatever form such duty may call. To cast one's vote is more than a right or a privilege—it is a duty. To serve upon a jury is more than a privilege—it is also a duty. To pay one's taxes in the support of one's government is a right, a privilege and also a duty. To neglect any of these duties should be held before our children as we held before them the slackers in time of war.

But, above all, let us teach our children that citizenship in a country is synonymous with love of country. Love of country is that emotional spirit that day by day seeks, because of love, the peace, the welfare, the health, and the prosperity of our nation.

It is love of country that subordinates self to the larger national good, the happiness of all people.

America is an experiment in a new sort of national life. It has created a new national standard. A survey of Europe and the older nationalities, reveals that the binding cord of their nationality is blood-kinship. France is French blood; Spain is Spanish blood; Norway is Norwegian blood; Germany is German blood; England is English blood; Japan is Japanese blood;—but America is all bloods. What then constitutes the American nation? It is not blood-kinship, but rather the kinship of ideals, the kinship of established rights. What is the binding cord of America's nationality? It is not her constitution, not her courts, not her wealth, but it is the heart service, the love of each American citizen for those ideals which he regards as more sacred than his own life or even the lives of his family. American citizenship is a citizenship of love.

I name as my fourth and fifth values, the spiritualization of work and of cultures. I name these together because they have so often been dissociated as though they were essentially antagonistic values.

In our past thinking, labor has been too much thought of as uncultured. The so-called educated group has too often associated labor with the crudities of life. Labor has been regarded as unlettered and uncultured. The democratization of education which has taken place during the past fifteen years is significant. It is significant in that it tends to bridge the gulf that has so long existed between labor on the one hand and education

and culture on the other. We are rapidly becoming a nation of schooled people. The high school is taking the place formerly occupied by the eighth grade. It is now a part of the "common" school education. In another decade the junior college will have become the new high school, and we will probably be discussing a 6-4-4 plan of organization. Thus, to all classes of people—laborer, artisan, clerk and whomso, is coming this general education that makes common the cultures and that will ultimately enlarge our common understanding of life values.

There are certain spiritualized elements, however, that must go hand in hand with this growth in knowledge. Among them is our love and respect for work. Labor must be dignified and established as the peer of the intellectual and the cultural occupations. Labor can no longer be regarded, as the crude occupation of necessity; the occupation of the uneducated. It is being deliberately chosen by many of the educated and cultured. It already has been admitted to the halls of higher education. It will soon be found within the salons of culture.

Our child labor laws have accomplished much for the social betterment of the child, but like all good things, the full significance of which was not seen in the period of initiation, these laws have not been without their dangers. In the new social order that has come as the result of these laws and as a concomitant economic result, we have nothing at present to take the place of the home chores of a generation ago.

If labor is to be spiritualized, then every child must develop within his heart a love and respect for labor. Every child ought to have some duty to perform for the good of others. Let us emphasize the good. He should have some real work that keeps him in touch, also, with the world's great problems of necessity. He should know from earliest years that there are problems of necessity. Drudgery, work that breaks spirit and breaks backs, will, of course, be excluded from the child's curriculum, but the spiritual value of work should be kept before every child through some actual work participation. I am not speaking of Boy Scout activities. Scouting is not work. I am speaking, rather, of the direct association of youth with the economics of the world—the world's production. How to accomplish this is one of the education problems of our generation, but we may be certain it can and will be done. Its solution will spiritualize labor and secure for it its proper place, in the social, economic, and cultural world.

On the other hand, cultures can no longer be regarded as the birth-right of wealth and leisure. The future of the American democracy has no place for the aristocracy of culture. Cultures must contribute to the happiness and welfare of cottage and of cabin. Culture must dignify labor and make work attractive. Remarkable progress has already been taken toward this end. The advent of the telephone, the automobile and hard roads, of the phonograph and radio, are already bringing culture to the more humble homes. We can well believe that the days of a still

greater democratization of culture has just begun. The labor of America is already tasting its joys and its privileges. It is a mooted question whether, in the next decade, cultures and an understanding of culture, will not be found enshrined within the humble homes, with their longer hours of leisure and removal from the intoxications of urban turmoil, rather than in the more pretentious homes of wealth and of social dissipation.

The schools have their part to perform in this program. Within the classrooms are to be found, side by side, every type of American human. The public schools are annihilating caste. It is for the schools to implant in the hearts of young America a respect, a love and a participation in the labors of the world. It is for the schools to enshrine within those same hearts a love for the beauties of life, the secrets of human happiness that only music and art and nature and literature can impart. This will do much toward the spiritualization of labor and of culture.

Finally, may I recommend that our schools assure our young people, "That the world is still at its morn." There is a real danger that our children shall take it for granted through our teaching that the work of the world is finished, completed, that no challenge remains for their spirits to answer. We need to get the message to them that the world has but entered the kindergarten of human progress; that we have as yet but touched the shores of the great continents of human activity and that their valleys of scientific and economic progress have yet to be explored and their mountain peaks of literature, art, music and philosophy have yet to be scaled.

Humanity has spent the most of its time attempting to live. It has come up through centuries of human quarreling; it has given much of its attention to human jealousies, to the establishment of means of defense and offense, to the building of false economic barriers between individuals and between nations. As yet, it has had but little time and but little inclination to make real investigations into the earth's resources, physical, mental and spiritual. The great scientific mines of the world's untold wealth await discovery and development. The best and the greatest in all human progress is before us. The world flings a challenge to the virility, the mentality, the spiritual insight of the youth of today. Let the message ring out throughout our elementary schools, our junior schools, our high schools, our colleges and our universities, "The world today has need of you—what will you do for its betterment? Unborn generations of a million years are calling to you. What inheritance will you leave them?"

Let us tell our young people that only the elementary laws of science have been discovered. What discovery shall we add? The fundamentals of economic production, distribution and consumption remain yet to be written by some great world economist. Who will write them? The great economic problems are becoming more and more intricate. What

new economic source of power; what new source of heat and light; what new and greater method for the production of foods; what more economic and hygienic methods for consumption shall be discovered and made plain for the children that are yet to be? What new applications of the principle, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor" may be worked out and applied to the physical, the economic and social world? How may new cooperative ideals of life be made to enrich all humanity, individually, nationally and internationally? How may communities and states rid themselves of their present social incubus and breed a new generation that shall take possession of the earth—men and women, who, like the ideals of the Ancient Greeks, shall rival the gods of Olympus? How may manhood be standardized as manhood, and how may womanhood be made to maintain its old ideals of regenerating purity and at the same time not lose its present freedoms and sex equalities? How may nations become helpful neighbors rather than jealous, envious and antagonistic aggregations of armed enemies?

I have but touched the hem of the garment of the subject assigned me. Its solution can come only through years of study and of school reorganization. Our rewritten curriculum will, of course, continue to deal with facts, it will continue to teach facts, it will always provide ways for the mastery of facts. But some time in the future the keystone to the arch of our educational building will be found, not in mere facts, but in the spiritualization of those facts. At some time in the future our schools will cease to be satisfied with testing for the encyclopaedic mind and will seek, over and above all else, for those minds that are trained to function in the service of their neighbors, their community, their state, their nation and their world.

Fellow administrators—the great task of democratizing humanity is still before us.

WHAT CAN RIGHTFULLY BE EXPECTED OF A PROGRAM OF CHARACTER GUIDANCE IN THE HIGH SCHOOL SUPPLEMENTING THAT OF THE CLASSROOM?

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How may we best teach the great host of young girls in our high schools "to do good for good is good to do"? How may they know it, feel it, and be assured of it? There is no group so inspiring, so spontaneous, so responsive. How arouse in them a desire to apply skill and taste in making their own lives beautiful? How show that of the "art of living the material is every man's life?" How stimulate them to right use of this material? This is a problem which challenges educators today as never before.

Nineteen twenty-seven is not an accident. Conditions of today, whether good or bad, are the sequences of one hundred fifty years of the preaching and practice of the social theory of liberty, fraternity, and equality. In this period America has fought at least three wars for this ideal, thus dramatically fixing it upon the group and upon the individual. At the same time America has grown phenomenally in population, in wealth, in multiple opportunities for self and group expression, in scientific discovery, in new interpretations of religion, in invention, and in popular education. And liberty has come to be interpreted among all too many as lack of restraint; equality, as lessening of social esteem; fraternity, as an expression of familiarity. As a consequence of the emphasis on the theory and the loose construction given it, the age-old social controls of fear, hope of reward and social esteem, upon which the agencies of society have relied for discipline, have broken down. Yet little note has been taken of this phenomenon. And today the situation alarms us. The task now is to "set new guards for future security."

Though we have made great advance in scientific inquiry and knowledge, we have somehow failed to make that knowledge useful and creative to the individual in shaping her own life. Of what value, for instance, is a verbose acquaintance with heredity unless the girl realizes how heredity has shaped her, unless she seeks in perpetuating herself to do more than physically reproduce her kind? She must desire to add something to human excellence by expressing in her own life the ideals of that excellence. Or of what worth are debates upon environment unless the individual student knows how much environment has made or marred her individually and is awakened to the power that she personally possesses to change the environment without and the environment within herself? She must know that in herself heredity presents the possibilities of activity and that environment lays down the choices in which those possibilities may express themselves. In the past ages society has depended chiefly upon the ideals of religion and philosophy to stimulate good conduct. Today we can add to these the actual facts and ideals of science which, if rightly applied, will make life a glorious quest. When the student learns this, she knows that freedom is not a gift from heaven, but a state which man himself creates. She knows through actual experience that it is the power to check "instinctive and nonrational acts by intellectual and rational stimuli and to regulate behavior in the light of past experience." (Conklin) She learns that in the acquisition of this power she has trained her will. But unless she feels right about an action, however socially correct it may be, it is not a true choice; it is merely a conformity. The emotions must be trained also. If to right knowledge and the will to right choice, she can add enjoyment of the power to repress negative conduct, she possesses true freedom, the only freedom by which she can make her life beautiful.

How can we give such a concept of freedom to the young high school girl of today? Let us look at her. Is it fair for us to expect her to

show the traits of character which only hard work, struggle and their consequent chastening can bring to the individual when the home, the church and the school do all they can to make life easy for her. Curricula are so loosely constructed that she can evade hard or distasteful study and yet be graduated with honors; in the home her mother does all the hard work to save her from soiled hands or stooped shoulders; and at church she is more often entertained than challenged as to the deep meaning of life. Her critics say that she needs mothering. That she has had. She needs also inspirational leadership, leadership which will reveal the purpose back of life and inspire in her a wish to be a medium of its finest expression. Have we any right to look for a highly developed sense of responsibility when students pass from one teacher to another every hour in the day with objectives constantly changing like will-o'-the-wisps, and emphases varying in proportion to the segments into which her life is divided? Her teachers too often have little interest in anything save transmitting facts of their special studies. They assume little responsibility for character guidance or for emphasis on the wholeness of life. As a result the high school girl is almost as confused as the little nine year old boy who was being introduced to the platoon system. All at sea, he said to his mother, "Why is everything different all of the time?" Or how can she have a vision of fine womanhood, pride in her sex, or right ideas of woman's place, power and work unless her imagination be stirred to see it? Where is there even a home economics department which puts as much emphasis on this as on the making of a salad, the sewing of a seam, or the hanging of a drapery? If we want the young high school girl to make artistic use of the material of her own life, to practice all those virtues the sum of which is character, she must be provided with wise leaders to help her to see life steadily and see it whole and to find opportunities to practice the art of living. She must be trained to be a better mother, a better teacher than she herself has had if democratic ideals are to persist.

Goethe says that character is formed in the stream of the world. How is the stream of her high school world making for character? As a rule the high school has a six hour working day. Of this time perhaps two and a half hours represents the maximum time in classroom instruction. In general the remaining three and a half hours are spent in supervised study, in study halls, in sports, or in other student activities. The attitude of educators toward this time is of vital importance. High schools must either make this time count educationally or they must release students to some other social agency to use it constructively. How much loose thinking, how many careless habits, how much laziness, how much bad conduct, how much ignorance, how much failure can be traced to the wrong use of what is actually the greater part of the high school student's working day? The nursery school methods of most supervised study, the deliberate murder of time in many study halls, the use of all too many clubs and societies for purely social entertainment, and other

dawdling, purposeless activity, cannot make strong characters, nor form beautiful pattern habits. However defective the general curriculum for high schools may be deemed at the present time, so far as formal content is concerned, it cannot possibly present more challenging problems than that of the curriculum for the non-formal instruction time. This period must be made fruitful for intelligent thinking, for right conduct, and for strong character. And it can be made so if the extra-classroom life is definitely organized for social and character education with an administrative head and a staff of assistants to direct its curriculum.

In most high schools the direction of this life is placed upon academic teachers already carrying a full teaching program in the classroom. They feel obliged to take on the additional responsibility for various reasons. The so-called popular teacher who plays up to student flattery and attention takes it on for vanity's sake or as a barrage to classroom inefficiency. The teacher who is a good saleswoman sees in club activities a chance of promotion or advance in salary. Old teachers who have outlived their classroom usefulness all too frequently take charge of the various high school clubs or student government associations because school boards and principals do not wish to retire them before pension day arrives. And then a great number of fine teachers see educational value in the extra-classroom life and are willing to sacrifice their own health and leisure to assume leadership in it. Such chance or incidental direction of the extra-classroom life often causes petty jealousies among the members of the faculty, detracts from the dignity of the extra-classroom program, and certainly in many high schools does far more harm than good. There is no greater evidence that the results in character of our present general system of high school education are unsatisfactory than the eagerness with which it is being discussed today. However conscious superintendents and principals may be of the educational values latent in this life; however well outlined, however comprehensive the program to secure these values, unless a strong administrator puts it into effect, checks its progress, and is responsible for its results, the entire current of the high school stream of life is weakened.

And so there should be in every high school a department charged with the direction of the extra-classroom life of the school. Only so can the school hope to make the whole high school life a unit and the extra-classroom life significant. At the head of such a department for girls should be a dean of girls. In authority and salary she should be an associate principal, but in name distinctly different. Dean of girls is a fortunate title. It is administrative without suggesting participation in the duties of the principal. It is inclusive, implying larger duties than counsellor, adviser or social director, and dignified, honoring both the person who bears it and the program of activities it fosters.

However significant the title, unless the woman who bears it possesses a charming personality, a fine character and a trained mind, very little can be accomplished. Leadership is indispensable, as is also poise and a

sense of humor. And no less necessary is an ability to think and to teach in terms of the wholeness of life, for a true dean of women is a great teacher. She must be grounded in philosophy, in sociology, in biology and in psychology so that their underlying principles are active forces in her own life, not topics for drawing room conversation. She must have religion, some touch with the infinite, which feeds her own spirit and makes it contagious. She must love life because she has made life love her, must reverence human life, must understand all that is meant by human excellency. She must be willing to lay down her life in infinite sacrifices of time, energy and rewards that youth may find the abundant life.

Such a woman knows the value of special training for the profession of dean of girls. This training includes successful teaching, special study and experience with extra-classroom life, courses which train for the work of deans, and, if possible apprenticeship under a successful dean. A part of her training in psychology should include special courses in personnel methods. It is essential that the dean of girls command the highest admiration and respect, and this can be done only when she is worthy of it. Failure to see the educational import of the extra-classroom life or ignorance of the qualifications for deans of girls has lead some high school principals to appoint to this position and designate as deans, women who are no more than matrons in public buildings, or at best practical nurses. The girls and the public soon realize that, however fine these women are as persons, they are not administrators nor leaders, and respond accordingly. In other instances principals have appointed finely trained women as deans, but have expected them to carry out single-handed a program that calls for many assistants. What principal of a high school would undertake alone the administration of the academic program of the school? Why expect a dean of girls to do her task without equipment or assistants? Or how many principals pay from their own salary the salary of a stenographer as a successful dean in a well-known high school is now doing? How many principals or superintendents would be willing to have a peripatetic office? How many men would do all the work of a principal and be happy without the title and salary of principal?

The office of a dean of girls is of the greatest importance. It adds at once permanency to the position, increased dignity and authority to the dean herself, and importance to the extra-classroom life for girls. Around it are built up the finest associations, and through it the girls get a vision of solidarity or purposiveness in the life of women. If this office is beautiful, if it is hospitable, if it is an appropriate setting for a true dean, from it will radiate the most beautiful life. Every dean of girls must have a secretary and as many assistants as is necessary to carry out the program for the extra-curricular life. This will depend upon the number of girls in the school and the breadth of the program necessary in the particular high school. The training, personality, culture and character

of these assistants must be that of the finest teachers, and they should be paid accordingly, for are they not as truly teachers as those who teach geometry or English? The dean ought in addition to her executive duties and public contacts, be her own chief personnel worker. Her training, her common sense and her experience of life should make her the one to have the closest contact with the individual girl. This is of the utmost importance because the dean personally must give many judgments upon the girls, the accuracy and fairness of which may make or mar a girl's whole life. Assistants can carry out the program for student activities, vocational guidance, student employment, social affairs, assemblies, social registration, discussion groups, and can do so with great initiative, self-reliance and effectiveness.

In the organization of her department the dean of girls must keep clearly in mind the values she wishes to foster. Her great objective is character and social guidance. She wants also to give unity, stability, and constancy to the extra-classroom life not only through her own program, but also by coordinating all the high school interests of the girls. If in addition to her own departmental meetings, the dean of girls meets regularly with those who have charge of any other work with the girls in the high school and makes clear her ideals and shows her desire to cooperate and increase the worth of all these interests, she will not only strengthen her own program, but truly enrich and unify the whole high school life of the girls. Such cooperation will safeguard overlapping of effort, the introduction of fads, eliminate many prejudices and jealousies and build up a stimulating atmosphere. The department of the dean of girls, for instance, can be a strong stimulus to scholarship. It often can emphasize learning much more naturally than the classroom teachers since the student is apt to consider the classroom emphasis more or less perfunctory. The dean of girls also can establish a significant relationship to the community. She can represent to them the total interest of the girl as a teacher of Latin or history could not be expected to do. Her department can make studies of community environment and show its elevating or deteriorating effects upon character. How many high school principals have made studies of the character education qualities of all moving picture shows in the community in a given period and have worked with community and managers of picture shows for their improvement? Or what studies have been made of beauty shops, candy kitchens or cheap restaurants in the vicinity of the high school to see what effect these have upon the social and economic ideals of girls? Such studies are a part of a dean of girls' responsibility, are a part of her teaching.

It is not possible to discuss in any detail the specific kinds of work that come in a department of a dean of girls for the problems are innumerable. Three outstanding aspects, however, may be mentioned because of their great educational value—experiments in fellowship, personal adjustments and inspiration-stimuli. Each furnishes rich opportunity to carry out the

challenge of Aristotle: "Make the virtues knowledges," which ought to be the basic principle for all extra-classroom life.

There is no more interesting fact in the life of 1927 than that men must live together intimately. Since this is so, is it not exceedingly important that girls have training for such living? There is no better place to give this training than in the extra-curricular activities because these activities are natural and spontaneous. If they are to be valuable experiments in group living and to train for character, they must be carefully, though unobtrusively, guided. The very nature of extracurricular activities affords rich opportunity for the most natural expressions of imagination, initiative, judgment, executive ability, and gives adequate play to the spirit of freedom so essential to true growth. In making a club or student government organization a success the need for honor, cooperation, unselfishness, courage, leadership and loyalty becomes so apparent that it furnishes the most effective stimulus for their practice. If at the same time the student is helped to see steadily the purpose of the organization, to maintain a high standard of performance, and to insure sincere enjoyment in it, then the practice of the virtues makes them knowledges. Another delightful thing in this part of the high school life is that youth learns the value and joy of fellowship with maturity. All too frequently students miss the joys of companionship with high-minded, gifted teachers and are thus deprived of one of the surest influences for beautiful character.

Just as the student club can be made to be a true experiment in fellowship and at the same time to give pure enjoyment, so can the dance, tea or party have a larger meaning for the student than temporary amusement and recreation. She must see in them an opportunity to show her appreciation of people, not a chance to display herself or her property. If she realizes that she is honoring others, she has made active in her life the true meaning of social esteem. She sees then that good manners are not superficial adornments, but fundamental to fellowship. She sees in ceremony and ritual a deeper purpose than pageant display. She begins to sense what the Oriental has so long emphasized, that character is the binding law of life. Joinville, the French Chronicler of Louis IX and his Crusades, tells how a strange woman appeared in the midst of the crusades one day. In her right hand she carried a porringer of fire; in her left, a pitcher of water. With the one she proposed to burn paradise; with the other to quench the fires of hell. Then, she said, man will be good not for the joy of the reward of the one, nor from fear of the other. The young women of today, like that mediaeval visionary, must learn to do good for good is good to do.

Another important aspect of the work of a dean of girls is that of helping the average individual to rid herself of certain habit or personality handicaps. Here the initiative and responsibility rest chiefly upon the dean and her staff. The individual cannot see herself as others see her. She must depend upon the correction of the group or some member of the group for guidance. This is one of the obviously neglected phases in

character education in the high school. One sees the brilliant girl unpopular and missing opportunities for leadership because of cockiness or overconfidence which express themselves in tactless procedure, in intolerance, in thoughtless honor grabbing. How rarely is this student given guidance? Or take the supersensitive, self-pitying, egotistical, shy, snobbish, forward, ubiquitous or sullen girls. How often are they sympathetically shown methods for improvement, for establishing a right attitude of mind or right emotional tone? Today we pride ourselves on having psychiatrists for the markedly abnormal, but how much greater the responsibility to help the average, normal individual. Everyone has to some degree negative aspects of character or personality. If the high school is training students for academic honors, should it not also train for honors in personality and character?

How to awaken, quicken, or create in girls an impulse to make the most artistic use of the material of their lives is a third important phase of the work of a dean of girls. Here the responsibility must be shared mutually by the girls and their dean. Theirs is the task of creating the spirit that kindleth. This can be done in many ways. Pride in her sex can be aroused by bringing before her in a series of talks the story of woman's contribution to culture. All young girls need to know the struggle and the price paid for the freedom in life which they richly enjoy. Contact with women of achievement in their own community, talks by women of national or international repute make profound impressions upon character and stimulate emulation. Assemblies for girls should be a regular part of each year's program, and each one should deepen a girl's consciousness of woman's place and power in society. If in addition there are voluntary discussion groups in which the girls can evaluate the present taste and skill used in their own living, the sources of inspiration are multiplied. Another great influence is found in beautiful traditions. Every dean of girls should foster such annual occasions as formal induction of freshman girls into high school life, recognition of girls having high scholarship, pageants showing activities open to women, installation ceremonies for student officers, coronation of a senior queen and other events where the beauty of ritual and ceremony can create fine emotional tone. If there is added the inspiration of praise when and where praise is due, both the girls and the dean will answer their own prayers.

However great the need for this type of inspiration, there is a greater, a more fundamental one. The modern girl needs God. Starved spiritually, she needs a religion that in 1927 will give not only peace and serenity, but confidence and power. If she considers church attendance, ritual and creeds old-fashioned, she must be challenged to test personally whether "kinship between God and men be true." What is citizenship in the universe? How exercised? What is life for? What does she wish from it? What give to it? If a dean of girls, herself knowing the

kinship of God, can make those whom she teaches see that they seek life "where it is not and neglect to seek it where it is," she will reveal the real law of liberty. Every high school should have a meditation room where comfortable chairs, soft lights, beautiful pictures, lovely books, all summon the girl to think on the meaning of life. Here is the greatest incentive to noble conduct and fine character.

No matter how well developed or how adequate the direction of the life of the girls, the finest results cannot be assured unless the atmosphere of the school as a whole is uplifting. What the air is to the living organism, the atmosphere of environment is to the spirit. Man breathes it in as he does the air and takes on its quality. He cannot free himself wholly from the influence of his surroundings. Beauty is such a compelling influence that conduct seeks to harmonize itself with it, and deference for things and gentleness of manner follow. And yet how dull, drab, and unsocial are many of our high school buildings. What inspiration is there in long, narrow, dark corridors, the walls of the schoolrooms covered with unsightly blackboards, the chairs arranged in stiff rows reminding one of a penal institution? It is as if no one had thought of education as a socializing, beautifying, glorifying experience or adventure. One cannot estimate the result in increased regard for studies, for instance, if classrooms were adorned, livable rooms with perhaps a fire place, an easy chair for the teacher, and furniture, hangings and decorations in harmony with the subject taught. Or take high school cafeterias. How can we hope to teach girls the importance and charm of lovely manners when the school itself fosters boisterousness, clatter of dishes, nauseating odors, and bread line conduct? It is said that the great social test today is the manner of partaking of food. How well are the high schools today helping young people to meet that test? To strive for beautiful atmosphere is no little portion of the work of a dean of girls.

Beautiful environment, joyous fellowship in activities, inspirational guidance in personal problems and in spiritual and social ideals, right concepts of freedom, all these will develop a loyalty which is worthy of the name school spirit. Devotion to high school ideals concretely expressed creates a school spirit which has no need of brass bands to put it into action, for cheer leaders to excite to absurd emotional expression, nor for state contests to keep it alive. It is the moving current in the stream of the high school world, preserving true freedom and at the same time providing a social control far stronger and more effective than fear and hope of reward have ever been. When high school girls have made it their own they can answer with Antoninus. When asked, "What is thy art?" he replied, "To be good." And they can meet the challenge of Epictetus, one of the noblest teachers of all times.

"The works of God," he said, "are endowed with motion, breath, powers of use and judgment. Being then the work of such an artist will you dishonor him, especially when he hath not only formed you but given your guardianship to yourself? Will you not only be forgetful of this, but

moreover, dishonor the trust? If God had committed some orphan to your charge would you have been thus careless of him? He has delivered yourself to your care and says, 'I had no one fitter to be trusted than you, preserve this person for me, such as he is by nature—modest, faithful, noble, unterrified, dispassionate, tranquil. And will you not preserve him?' "

HEALTH EDUCATION

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A new day has dawned in the educational world. As evidence, many in sincerity and pride point to finer school buildings, an enriched curriculum and better trained teachers. Others, in narrowness and perversity, criticize or condemn our newer educational program because of increased financial expenditures due to more costly buildings, superfluous activities, and higher salaried teachers. To a third and more discerning group, it has been given to see that we are at last recognizing the real object of our educational thought and effort, the one designated by the Great Teacher himself when He "took a little child and placed him in their midst." Either through divine intervention or an expanded human intelligence, we whose only reason for professional existence is the child, are beginning to appreciate our fundamental obligation and to give him his rightful place in the sun.

The child himself is now the central figure in a clarified vision with a broadened horizon and an improved perspective. We can no longer be satisfied to sit by in smug complacency, giving our children only a perfunctory drill in simplified mental gymnastics. We have discovered that our task is to train not the mind alone, but the man; and the man, not for himself alone, but for society. In this great and divine undertaking of guiding the child through a happy, healthy childhood into a worthy adult citizenship we should be sustained by the intelligent support and cooperation of the home, the church, and the community—all established and ordained to share with us the responsibility of this high endeavor.

Our concern for this day, however, lies only in our own immediate field—the school. In these schools which we claim are instituted and conducted for all the children of all the people, the general aim is citizenship—a composite of several fitnesses which enable the child to meet effectively the problems of life. These fitnesses or objectives have been stated variously by educators. There is one point upon which all who have given the matter intelligent study agree; that is, upon the outstanding position of health among these fundamental objectives. Not only does it in itself rank first and foremost, but it is the foundation for all other efficiencies.

Having accepted this broader view of educational responsibility, most progressive school systems have organized some formation for working toward the health goal. It is indeed encouraging to note that, throughout the country, wide-awake communities are carrying on with greater or less success one or more lines of school health work. cursory observation, then, might lead us to view the situation with satisfaction that school people

generally have aroused themselves from their state of lethargy, and, falling into line with progress, have adopted the new order of things leading to vital efficiency. While every progressive step is just cause for gratification, a thoughtful investigation of the developments in the field of school health, brings us no great degree of assurance that comprehensive, steady, day-by-day, telling health education has become a definite, integral part of the school curriculum. To the contrary, the inadequate, ineffectual program indicates confusion as to purpose and results to be attained.

Through the untiring effort of zealous, far-seeing exponents of health education, tremendous gains have been made since the war period in putting this important subject in its place. Having profited by their pioneer work, what must we, as school administrators, do to round out, standardize, and unify the various health activities into a duly recognized and adequately supported subject in the curriculum of all public elementary and secondary schools?

A first essential to this attainment is a correct conception of the meaning of health. To many persons, health means simply freedom from disease; to others it means athletic prowess; still others hold the development of a fine physical body a life purpose. These interpretations which set up mediocre standards of health frequently determine the breadth and scope of the program developed. As a result, we frequently find the so called "health programs" consisting of only one or two of such activities as "medical inspection," school athletics, or gymnastic exercises. While each of these has its place in a rounded program, and while each, effectively employed in an educational way, should make a valuable contribution to individual health, any one such activity, however worthy in itself, should be considered by the school administrator as only a starting-point for the development of a balanced program.

Dr. Jesse F. Williams' well-known definition of health as "the quality of life that renders the individual fit to live most and to serve best," gives us the broader and truer concept of health as something more than the smooth performance of any bodily function and as something more even than physical well being. While we may credit physical health with being fundamental, we certainly must acknowledge the need of mental and social power. As Dr. Williams expresses it, the test of body and mind is the test of "meeting the crises of life in such a way that a distinct advance has been made either for the individual or for society, or both," and the ultimate criterion of bodily and mental health attainment is that of conduct.

If ability to live most and to serve best is health, what is health education? Surely not a perfunctory "medical inspection" with no follow-up and no individual health instruction; surely not the traditional type of study of physiology, and just as surely it is not the sole project of developing a pennant-winning athletic team—the "safe bet" for the local sporting fraternity.

Not all children are born into this world with the same physical and mental heritage. As the elf said to the giant, "I'm just as big for me as you are for you." What is perfection for one is not for another. Individual differences are great but not frequently should they limit the proportionate accomplishment of children in their struggle toward the goal of health and service. The capable and conscientious school superintendent must believe that every child is entitled to his greatest possible opportunity for normal growth and development. Believing this, he will act according to the faith that is in him thereby subscribing to a mighty undertaking. His way may be impeded by seemingly insurmountable obstacles and innumerable problems will need to be solved all along the course but these difficulties are impotent to deter him who contemplates "the child in their midst."

Health education, then, is giving each child his rightful opportunity for normal growth and development—physically, intellectually, morally, and socially. It will develop that quality of life which will fit him to live most abundantly and to render his best service. It must play a big part in producing within him the highest attributes of citizenship—vital, vocational, avocational, civic, and ethical.

The development of an educational program in health will necessarily be strongly affected by the type of community to be served, every system seizing first upon those special activities which will meet the most immediate needs of its own children. If the foundation is well laid and if a practical organization is built up, any school health activity can no doubt be used as a nucleus for a rounded health education procedure. We shall not go into details here as to the development of a program nor of the organization necessary for making it effective. We shall aim, however, to point out some of its requirements and suggest a few of the administrative obligations connected therewith.

Inasmuch as a large percent of children are hampered by physical defects, school health service is a logical starting point in the consideration of essentials. Physical defects must be discovered and, as far as possible, remedied through the cooperation of physicians, nurses, dentists, oral hygienists, teachers, parents, and children. The special staff of physicians and nurses, who should be employed by the department of education, will not only through examination and follow-up see that a high percent of remediable defects are corrected each year, but it will promote such public health measures as vaccination against smallpox, immunization against diphtheria, and goiter prevention. Through health instruction, inspections, and exclusions, communicable disease will be reduced to the minimum. The school system offering clinical service to indigent children, taking care of minor ailments and giving first aid to school accident cases, will prevent many serious physical ailments and will greatly increase regular school attendance. The medical staff will also check up the sanitary conditions of school plants and make such recommendations regarding them as will promote the welfare of the children.

As a natural outgrowth of school health service, the unfortunate and heretofore neglected child is discovered. Realizing that, while not all children are created equal all are entitled to equal opportunity, administrators will adopt modified programs for special schools such as the crippled children's, open air, sight saving and others for the physically defective as well as classes for the mentally subnormal and backward. The well-organized health education division with a fairly adequate medical staff sets standards for admission to such groups, examines all children assigned to them frequently and gives them careful supervision. The specially trained teachers of these classes are closely associated with the health education staff.

The frequent examination of teachers by the home or school physician, followed by individual conferences with school health specialists regarding their particular health problems, gives teachers a personal health consciousness leading not only to physical and emotional conservation on their part but to better instruction, happier children and far happier school administrators.

School health service does for the child what he cannot do for himself; it brings about the correction of defects which hinder his normal growth and development; it protects him against disease, infection, and accident; it recommends for him the special educational privileges suited to his needs; and it surrounds him with the hygienic conditions and wholesome atmosphere conducive to his best progress. All this prepares him for the growth which will come only through his own activity. This brings us to the positive side of health education—positive health teaching. It is our business next to bring to every child the opportunity for those activities through which he can develop and round out in all those directions recognized as being necessary to complete, abundant living.

We must bring within reach of all children and lead every child to participate in, according to his own ability, those big muscle activities which are valuable for the growth and development, not only of the body, but of the mind and of the character. The school program of physical education should include free play, games, athletics, gymnastics, dancing, swimming, hiking and other such activities which promote growth, teach wholesome habits of exercise and lay the foundation for an ability in adult life to enjoy and profit by physical recreation. It seems well here to note the recommendation of the Health Education Committee reporting in the Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence to the effect that schools should further recognize and include in their physical program "general life activities such as gardening, farming, house-keeping, if they are big-muscle activities and if they are healthful and educative."

Health instruction in the modern school is far removed from the traditional formal study of physiology. The new health teaching is teeming with vitality. Through learning the reasons for the practice of definite

health habits, that is, approved health behavior, the elementary school child builds up a body of knowledge of personal hygiene, with special emphasis upon nutrition as being fundamental to normal growth and development. Through the junior high school, instruction in hygiene and nutrition should be continued as a part of the regular school program. In the senior high school, where personal and community health may be taught through the basic subjects, behavior must still be the test of knowledge.

This outlines briefly what may be considered a practicable school health program up to the point where, at the close of the year's work, many millions of children are turned over entirely to the home and community environment. For two months or more during the summer, school authorities to all appearances renounce their obligation to childhood. While every thinking person acknowledges the leisure hour the danger hour, it is the common practice for schools to let go of the child at the very moment when, with an unusual amount of time at his own disposal, he particularly needs the leadership and guidance which will enable him to form the habit of spending his leisure time profitably rather than detrimentally. It is distinctly a function of the school to see that the thousands of children all over the land who are left partially or wholly to their own devices as far as recreation is concerned, are given, during the long vacation, opportunity for joyous, healthful self-activity under skilled leadership. Summer playgrounds with a full program of handwork, story-telling, dramatics, folk-dancing, athletics, music, and clubs have a legitimate claim to their quota in the public education budget. Their organization and supervision may well be placed with the administrative director of health education and their program should in part be an extension of the various "regular" activities of the health education division.

To sum up, we find the rounded health program to consist of (1) school health service, this term being used to cover all corrective and preventive medical and dental work and supervision of the hygiene of the school plant; (2) the organization and supervision of special health schools; (3) individual and class instruction in hygiene and nutrition; (4) physical education; (5) summer playground activities; (6) teachers' health supervision; and (7) last, but not least, definite provision for training the teacher in service to do intelligent and practical health teaching.

Some may note the omission of mental hygiene to which I have not given a distinct place in this resume. This phase of education is to so great an extent the product of all appropriate, well-adapted school interests that it seems better to include it as a part of the various factors of positive health teaching than to make it a separate sub-unit. While mentally abnormal cases must be given clinical psychiatric study and treatment, our program of mental hygiene in the elementary and secondary schools should certainly in the main be one of prophylaxis.

COME INTO THE GARDEN

HELEN FIELD FISCHER, LANDSCAPE DESIGNER, SHENANDOAH, IOWA

I want you to come with me this morning, down the pathway of dreams to your mother's garden. I will open the gate with the magic words of Margaret Widdimer's poem, "The Garden":

There were many flowers in my mother's garden,
Sword-leaved gladiolus, taller far than I,
Sticky-leaved petunias, pink and purple-flaring,
Velvet-painted pansies smiling at the sky;

Scentless portulacas crowded down the borders,
White and scarlet-petaled, satin-rose and gold,
Clustered sweet alyssum, lacy-white and scented,
Sprays of gray-green lavender to keep till you were old;

In my mother's garden were green-leaved hiding places,
Nooks between the lilacs—oh, a pleasant place to play!
Still my heart can hide there, still my eyes can dream it,
Though the long years lie between and I am far away;

When the world is hard now, when the city's clanging
Tires my ears and tires my heart and dust lies everywhere,
I can dream the peace still of the soft wind's shining
I can be a child still and hide my heart from care.

Lord, if still that garden blossoms in the sunlight
Grant that children laugh there now amid its green and gold,
Grant that little hearts still hide its memoried sweetness,
Locking one bright dream away for light when they are old!

Why do these words stir our hearts so deeply? Because they refer to a lost kingdom. Probably an oil filling station stands where your mother's garden once stood and the flowers that "crowded down her borders" are now imprisoned in formal beds in public parks. Even mother's "house plants" have been banished by the gas range.

Few of our modern children will ever understand that poem, and we read it with hungry hearts, for we are sick of artificialities and dizzy with the rapid changes of our marvelous age. We long for the real and the elemental.

We want to rest our souls with something that does not change: the simple flower types of the roadside and of our mother's garden; the old fragrance of lilacs and of wild grape blossoms in June; the feeling of soft garden soil in spring. For with all of these blessed elemental things comes the feeling of relaxation and nerve ease, the feeling of being at home.

And this is the kingdom that every child should inherit by divine right. But we have stolen it from him. We have gone mad with excitement over the wonderful, new mechanical toys of our generation and we have insisted that our children share our madness. We have stolen from them every contact with the beautifully elemental and now we stand aghast if they try to find their way back to the realities of life, through avenues that are unbeautifully elemental.

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF MODERN EDUCATION

JAMES L. HUGHES, TORONTO, CANADA

All true education is modern. All the books on education ever written might be burned except those written by six leaders: Froebel and Pestalozzi in Europe, and Henry Barnard, Horace Mann, William T. Harris, and Susan E. Blow, of the United States, and we would still have left all that is regarded as vital by the leading educators of the twentieth century. All these truly great independent revealers of new educational light were contemporaries of mine, except Pestalozzi, who died twenty-one years before I came. Pestalozzi and Froebel gave the world the transcendent modern ideals in regard to the development of every element of power of each child in its physical, intellectual, and spiritual life. Barnard and Mann gave the world all that is valued regarding the organization and development of free national educational systems, and the establishment of normal schools, and other training agencies to give teachers professional as well as academic training. Harris and Miss Blow were the supreme interpreters of the real meaning of the philosophy of Pestalozzi and Froebel.

I was the adopted son of Henry Barnard during the last ten years of his long life. He wrote the first national school law ever written, when he was twenty-six years old, and in doing so gave the greatest gift to the world that America ever gave. He started the first national school in the world, the first township association of teachers, the first county association, and the first state association. He was the direct cause of the establishment of a national school system in the first ten states of the United States to adopt them, and he was the first Commissioner of Education in the United States.

Modern education does not accept the opinion of a Greek gentleman who said about two thousand years ago that "knowledge is power." The acceptance of that statement prevented the recognition of a true ideal of what education should really mean for nearly nineteen centuries. Pestalozzi said the true educational aim should be the development of "power, skill, and character," and he did not mean catechism character. The main treatment of knowledge in the schools of the world until recently was cramming it in to the memories of the pupils, and then pumping it out at examinations. Modern education claims that knowledge should be applied as it is revealed by teachers or discovered by the pupils themselves. Education meant through the long centuries memorizing facts and solving problems supplied by the teachers. Modern leaders know that children should be problem finders, not merely problem solvers. Problem finding is infinitely more productive in the development of vital minds than problem solving. Every child who is not defective has natural power to be a problem finder.

The great fundamental law of modern education is that every child has one power greater than any other power, and that the complete de-

velopment of that power must become the chief aim of all teachers. No child can ever do for himself or for humanity what God meant him to do, unless his special power has been developed. This central power is commonly called individuality. I regard selfhood as a word that more definitely suggests the true meaning of the new ideal. It is the highest image of God in each person. Each child in a class has a different element of the universal power as his supreme power. That element is his individuality or selfhood.

The kindling of a child's special power must become the chief aim of education. "Kindle" should be the most important word in every teacher's vocabulary. No child can learn properly, unless he is interested in what he is trying to learn, and he cannot be truly interested unless his highest power has been kindled. An illustration will make my meaning clearer than an hour's reasoning could do. I received an appointment on the staff of the training department of the normal school of Toronto on my twenty-first birthday, sixty years ago. A pupil in my grade, the lowest primary, was nine years old. He had been four years in the class. My predecessor told me he was a hopeless dunce, who could not learn anything. Men called children mean names sixty years ago. For six weeks I believed what my predecessor said. I had never had a lesson in drawing, but I soon decided that the old-fashioned mechanical method of teaching drawing was of little use in art, and of no use in developing original power in boys. I planned to develop boys instead of training them to copy pictures. I thought I would try to teach the boys designing. I told my boys that I would come at eight o'clock twice a week to give them a new kind of drawing. I had only one boy the first morning, and he was the dunce. The others evidently were not interested in drawing. I did not wonder. However, I called the shy boy to a front desk and began. My apparatus consisted of a thin board nine inches square on which I had drawn a small square at the center, four small tacks, and four small leaves. I fastened one of the leaves at a corner of the little square, and said "Ed, can you take a leaf and a tack and fasten the leaf at the corner opposite to the one I fastened, with the same part turned to the corner, and at the same distance from the corner?" I never saw his face light up before, but he smiled and said, "I think so," and did it well. "Now fasten the other leaves at the other corners." He did, and saw he had made a balanced form of beauty. I said, "draw in your blank book what you have made." I drew on the blackboard another element of design and asked him to put it at the center of each side of his first picture. He did it enthusiastically. I said, "Good boy, Ed, that is fine." My hand was lovingly on his shoulder when I spoke, and I believe I was the first man that ever put his hand decently on his shoulder. We made rapid progress till the end of the hour. One ounce of appreciation is worth a ton of criticism in kindling a soul.

I had, without planning to do so, kindled Ed at the center of his power. He was a new boy. In two months he was the best boy in the class in drawing, and in subjects related to it. He might have had the best teachers

of literature in the world trying to teach him literature to the present time without being kindled. He was promoted with me as I was advanced from grade to grade. Within a year from the time he left school from the highest grade he had a larger salary as a boy in an architect's office than I had as head of the only model school in Ontario. When the city of Toronto decided in 1899 to erect the finest city hall in America in a city of the same population, all Canadian architects were invited to compete, and a strong committee of United States and Canadian architects was appointed to select the finest design. My dunce won the \$5000 prize. He ranks still as one of Canada's great architects.

Modern education teaches that even in the same family, children are not alike in their selfhood. All the children cannot be kindled by the same subjects. Every child should be free to develop his own selfhood by his own selfactivity. In all operative work of school and home each child should be independent. All may be instructed to produce the same article, but in its construction and decoration, each child should be taught to be original. The same subject should not be assigned for a test in composition or art. Each individual should choose his subject.

By far the most developing work of the schools is the operative work—not carried out by following detailed instructions from the teachers—but by following the original plans and ideals of pupils themselves. True, self-activity is the supreme process of human development. Only a small percentage of teachers yet understand that a self-active child must receive his own visions, and try to achieve them by his own plans.

When the "learning" ideal absolutely dominated the school sixty years ago a few who began to see more clearly gave the world the motto "Children *learn* by doing." The motto of modern thought is "Children *grow* by doing intellectually and spiritually." As a whole, ninety percent of school time is set apart to knowledge storing and ten percent or less to developing the powers of the children. The time will come, when more than half the school time will be given to operative processes that will be directed mainly by the child's own mind. True education must be from *within working out* not as conducted yet in most schools from *without working in*.

Modern education believes that the most important power of a child is its achieving power, because it is the only power that gives value to all the other powers. The first day a child creeps it manifests its three most productive tendencies; the tendency to do, the tendency to make its own plans, and the tendency to achieve its own plans. Ninety-five percent of civilized humanity had greater tendency to do, to plan, and to achieve, when they were a year old than they had when they left school. This deplorable condition is the result of bad training in the homes and schools. Both in the training they get, and the loss of the training they do not get, children are robbed of their basic powers, of their mentality, and their soulhood.

The love of doing, planning, and achieving are the bases of all growth towards the divine; and all progress made from barbarism to our partially

developed civilization has been made by the few of each generation who recognized great visions, planned their achievement, and achieved them.

Let us contrast the old training with the new. The chief words in the old training were don't, stop, and quit, all negative. The new training is positive. The old training tried to stop badness; the new training tries to develop goodness.

"Train a child in the way he should go," is a favorite text all my lifetime, but I never heard a preacher who recognized the profound philosophy of these words. *He* and *go* are the vital words of this text. The text clearly suggests that all children should be goers. God meant all children to be goers and doers. The old training made them donters, and stoppers, and quitters. Men often write about the great importance of initiative, who all their lives have been preventing the development of initiative and originality and achieving power of their pupils through all their teaching years; not merely failing to develop these great natural powers, but absolutely destroying them so far as unwise negative training can destroy the elements of the child's greatest powers.

One of the supreme powers of humanity is *self-control*. What does self-control mean even yet? It means power to keep away from evil. Our finest book on child training takes as an example a man who used to be a drunkard, but now has such splendid self-control that although the saloon is a great temptation, he can walk past it without going in. True self-control is not keeping away from evil, I might keep away not only from the saloon, but from every form of evil and be no more use to God and humanity than if I had been a grasshopper. If I have true self-control as required by modern thinkers, I have such control over my powers that I can achieve the purposes God expects me to achieve. Keeping away from evil is merely negative control and therefore it is weak and unproductive.

What does responsibility mean in the minds of the great majority of the people? I heard scores of sermons that taught me I was responsible for the bad things I did. That is negative responsibility without any real vitality. The modern basis for teaching responsibility is, that I am responsible for the achievement of the good things that I have power to achieve.

Modern thought teaches that no man can truly represent God unless he has strong faith in himself. The old training taught even in the churches that faith in myself was sinful. A favorite text was, "We are poor unworthy worms of the dust." I never cared for wormy Christians. Marmion was sent by the King of England as ambassador to Scotland to settle a matter that was causing trouble between the two countries. When an agreement was reached, Marmion and his troop were guests of the King of Scotland till he got into England, so he was sent to the border chieftain Douglas to be entertained. Douglas despised Marmion, but he received him in his castle, and treated him courteously as the guest of his King.

On the morning of his departure Marmion thanked Douglas as an English gentleman should and held out his hand to shake the hand of his host, but Douglas drew back his hand and said:

My castles are my king's alone
From turret to foundation-stone,
The hand of Douglas is his own,
And never shall in friendly grasp
The hand of such as Marmion clasp.

That would have daunted most men, but Marmion stood squarely up, and said, "I'm not here as Marmion, I am here as the representative of my King,"

He who does England's message here
Although the meanest in her state
May well, proud Angus, be thy mate.

We are not here as individuals; we are here as representatives of our King, and we have no right to mourn and call ourselves worms. God never promised to do anything we ought to do.

When the old trainers spoke of self-consciousness they meant only a consciousness of weakness. Modern education tries to make every child conscious of its best power. That consciousness is the true basis of faith in themselves. The most universal weakness of humanity is lack of faith in their own powers individually. This lack of faith is the result of the negative training of the past. One of the greatest aims of modern education is to develop a profound faith in each man and woman.

Fear has been through the ages the most blighting evil in the lives of children. The tragedies of the past that stirred me most were the brutal floggings of God's little ones to fill their souls with fear. The most dreadful result was not the pain, but the weakening of the characters of the children. Fill the souls of the children with faith in themselves, not with fear. Coercion never kindled a soul, but it has dwarfed millions of millions. It is a negative agency, and therefore evil. Modern education substitutes comradeship for coercion.

Even God himself was used, and still is used to terrify children. The frightful and blasphemous misrepresentations were until recently almost universal, and it was impossible with such negative training to grow up with a true conception of God.

An eight-year-old boy in Boston was making more noise than his mother liked, so she said to him in the high falsetto voice, "God will be very angry with you, if you make so much noise." The boy replied, "O, well! He's always getting mad about something." Irreverent! yes, but the boy was not to blame for his irreverence.

A Sunday school superintendent in Toronto and his little daughter ten years old were on their way to the Sunday school one beautiful May afternoon. The flowers were blooming, the birds were singing, and the girl's soul overflowed with joy. She said to her father, "Father, would not the world be a nice place to live in, if it were not for God and the policemen."

A little girl living near Toronto had an unmarried aunt, her mother's sister. Her aunt was old enough to have been married years ago. There are two kinds of unmarried ladies of uncertain age. When you look at the first kind you naturally say, "I wonder why she never married." When you look at the other kind, you never think of that; you are just glad that some man escaped. I said that once in Virginia, and after my lecture an old gentleman came to me and said: "I classify old maids as you do, but I describe them differently. The first kind I call 'the Lord's salt,' and the second kind 'the devil's pepper.'" The aunt of four-year-old Helen was a D. P. auntie. She said to Helen's mother on Sunday morning, "You go with your husband to church, and I will take care of Helen." Helen had begun to attend a kindergarten, and she began to sing one of the character-developing songs she had learned. Her D. P. aunt was horrified to hear the happy child singing anything but hymns on the Sabbath day, so she said the most outrageous thing ever said to a child with a D. P. look and tone, "God won't love you, if you do that." Helen smiled and replied, "O, well, Moses will." Even a D. P. auntie cannot darken all the light in a sweet young soul.

What a pity it is that for a thousand years unmarried D. P. aunties knew so much more about training children than their loving mothers did!

THE BOILING POINT IN EDUCATION

HENRY TURNER BAILEY, DIRECTOR, CLEVELAND SCHOOL OF ART, CLEVELAND OHIO

I beg of you to think with me for a moment about a very common substance which we call water, because I believe it has a lesson for us all. If we had known water only at a temperature below 32 degrees, we would have known it as a solid, as ice, and I suppose there is very little difference in that solid, no matter how low the temperature goes, and very little change in that solid no matter how the temperature rises until you come to that critical point, 33 degrees. At 33 degrees a physical miracle occurs, a miracle not predicted at all by the substance known to the human mind below that temperature. At 33 degrees the solid suddenly becomes liquid. Now that liquid which we call water remains a liquid, no matter how much the temperature rises, until it comes to another point in its history where a second miracle occurs, again a miracle of which nothing is predicted in the history of water below that. You may raise the temperature to 100 degrees; you may raise it to 150 degrees, to 200 degrees, and it is still water, but the moment you raise it above 212 the water disappears. The thing blows up and you have an invisible substance that we call steam.

Ice is useful. You can skate on it; you can have ice boats on it; you can drive sleighs over it, or even automobiles over it. It is valuable to preserve things. Food will not degenerate quite so rapidly if it is kept on ice. Ice is useful also to prevent germination. Things don't grow very much when surrounded by ice. When you come to water you have a

greater range of usefulness. This liquid is an accommodating substance. It is usable for all sorts of purposes. It is good for irrigation to make things grow; it is good to bear loads of various kinds in transportation of various sort; it is good to dilute things that need to be diluted. It makes possible the beauty of a landscape. It makes possible rainbows to glorify the sky, to say nothing of the clouds. Water is a useful substance.

But there are those who would say that water is not so useful as steam. For when you have this vapor of water, this invisible something that is hot, that is of high potency, that causes explosions of power, you have the greatest factor in the development of civilization up to the time that electricity was introduced. It is astonishingly powerful; there is no limit to what steam can do.

Now, the reason I have called your attention to that is because of its relation to education. When I began teaching I believed everything that I saw in books. I have outgrown that. I was led to believe that if we start a child in the kindergarten and educate him properly, when he gets into the primary school he will know more than he knew in the kindergarten and if we educate him properly from grade to grade his ascent in efficiency is represented by an inclined plane that goes straight up, beginning in the kindergarten and going to the primary school and the grammar school and the high school and the college and the university and that all the time he is increasing in efficiency and in value to his fellows in the world. I don't believe that at all. I think that at first a child is illiterate. I think that illiteracy is a menace to civilization. You all believe it; I am simply rehearsing what you already know.

Illiteracy gives us stolid people in which no growth is possible, people who are wonderfully well adapted to the preservation of old habits and wornout ideals and old theories and old traditions. Illiterate people will preserve those endlessly. But they are simply passive. Illiterate people are the ideal basis for all forms of imperialism to ride on, and we have no use in a democracy for illiterate people.

The first function of the school is to raise the temperature of children from the ice level of illiteracy to the fluid level of education, of literacy, because when children learn to read they have come into a new power. Old things have passed away and all things have become new. One who teaches a child to read works a miracle. Think of all the factors involved in bringing the gray matter of a new brain to interpret crooked, black marks on paper into shining thoughts that bring laughter and tears. The day a child learns to read, as I said, old things have passed away and all things have become new. The ice age is doomed. Sooner or later the desolating glaciers become the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence, forests and farms, towns and parks, homes and gardens, books and pictures, music and poetry, and the peaceful prayers of thanksgiving to God, are possible.

But all that is not enough. If literacy is the objective in primary schools, liberty is the objective in secondary schools. New subjects added to the curriculum, more intensive training, specialists and what not, are but means

and methods for raising the spiritual temperature to the boiling point, and are inefficient unless they do just that. All are the tests and standards of efficiency. All sliding scales and mid-year promotions are but convenient devices for measuring the temperature of the water that is being heated. They are all useless when the temperature passes the boiling point.

What do they amount to in the presence of a liberated human spirit, a Columbus, an Elder Brewster, a Franklin, a Luther, a St. Gaudens, an Edison, a Burbank, a Henry Ford? What do you suppose all our tests would amount to in measuring human spirits like those? To any other mortal spirit, no matter how humble, who has passed the boiling point, who has steamed, who has kindled, as our good friend said this morning, who has expanded, who has come to a realization of himself as a free, self-acting individual, created in the image of God, all those things amount to nothing in the presence of that miracle. It is no small task to volatilize the common water of our democracy as it flows through our grammar and high school rooms, to say nothing of the lukewarm water that pours into college halls. The best equipment in the world, free textbooks and supplies, scientific methods, standardization, college degrees, university credits, cannot do it. Only teachers of flame with enthusiasm and love can do it.

Now, how that is to be done, I am not going to give theories about. I am going to give you two or three illustrations which show that it can be done.

I knew years ago a little primary teacher in an ungraded school whose name was Carrie Leonard. I was visiting her school with the superintendent, William C. Bates, now passed on to his reward. As we were leaving, one of the children came and spoke to Miss Leonard. She turned to Superintendent Bates and said, "The children want to know if you can stay a little while to hear Frank McMenemy play his violin."

Superintendent Bates smiled and said, "Of course."

We took our seats, and this little lame Irish boy limped down the aisle and went to a closet door. (Oh, how I remember that closet door in the first school I attended. It was the place where the teacher kept the things she had stolen from us.) He went into that closet and came out with his violin. He stood in front of us, tuned his violin, and then played as only a native born musician can play. I watched the children, the way they settled back into their seats and smiled and eyed the visitors. They knew what Frank would do to us, and when he finished we all applauded and I looked at Superintendent Bates and there were tears in his eyes and he turned to the teacher and said, "That is wonderful! Have you any other genius in the school?"

The teacher said, "Mary, wouldn't you like to sing for our visitors?"

Mary arose and made a little curtsy and said, "I'd love to." (We had individual singing in the school I attended. We all took a part in it.)

Mary came out, stood before us without the slightest embarrassment and sang as a bird sings in the morning, marvelously. When she finished I said to the teacher, "Have you anybody else who practices the arts?"

She said, "Louis, wouldn't you like to draw for Mr. Bailey?" And this little French boy jumped up and said "Sure," and he grabbed a piece of crayon and drew a prancing horse on the blackboard as full of life as anything I ever saw.

The teacher turned to me and said, "Now you know why I always have good marks in my drawing. I know how to teach, and Louis knows how to draw. I teach Louis the lesson and Louis demonstrates and all the children follow."

The teacher said, "Jack, wouldn't you like to tell these people a comic story?" This little boy smiled and came forward and told that old story about the bootblack in London who trained his dog to soil his feet in the gutter and then come out and soil the shoes of the passers-by to make business for his master. He told it capitally.

Bates turned to Miss Leonard and said behind his hand, "What is Peter's specialty?" Peter was one of these slim fellows who at fifteen was six feet and an inch tall. You find those occasionally in school.

Miss Leonard said, "Oh, Peter is our specialist in height. Peter, it is getting a little warm here, would you open the window?" This boy began to go up, up, and reached the top of the window and pulled down the sash. The teacher said, "The children are very proud of Peter; there is nothing in the room that he can't reach."

The superintendent said to Miss Leonard, "You have extraordinary children here."

She made this remark that I have never forgotten: "Every pupil in my room is a specialist."

I think I have time to tell you about the man I take off my hat to, Stephen A. Snow. I had an awfully good time in school. You know, I have enjoyed living tremendously from the first moment that I remember, and in the high school we had the best time ever.

It came along toward the end of the course and graduation approached. It was the first graduation the school had ever had. And Mr. Snow announced one time that we were going to have the first graduation and were going to have a real one and he said, "We are going to select a valedictorian, and we are going to have a salutatorian and we are going to have a historian," and he went on and outlined this program for the graduation and I said to myself, "Well, I guess I will be valedictorian. I don't see any reason why I shouldn't. I might as well buckle down and win that honor."

So I studied a little harder and sure enough I went out and became valedictorian.

Mr. Snow came to me and said, "I think the topic of the essay, the oration you are to give in connection with the valedictory, had better be "The Influence of Steam in Civilization."

I began to read in the encyclopedia and I hunted up all the facts I could find and I wrote my essay on "The Influence of Steam in Civilization." Finally the time came for the rehearsal. I went onto the platform with

my other classmates seated down there in front and Mr. Snow, and I gave my oration. I had committed it to memory perfectly and I felt very proud of myself. And as I came down off the platform Stephen Snow met me, took my hand and looked me in the eye and said, "Henry, I expected something better than that from you."

Well, I never was so surprised in my life or so humiliated. I couldn't forget it. It was with me day and night. "What did he mean? What did he mean?" I shall never forget how unhappy I was for the next week. I shall never forget the night when I couldn't sleep for thinking of it. I shall never forget ten o'clock that night when suddenly a whole new program for that oration came into my mind, something to be spoken, not to be written, and I got up out of bed with my brother Fred lying there sound asleep and wrote until four o'clock in the morning. That thing just poured out on the paper. And then I slept and when my mother called me by quoting poetry to me as she used to in the morning and I awoke and saw the sun, I said, "Well, I wonder." I lay in bed a moment and began that new oration and I could say it straight through. It came so from my heart, so vitally out of me, that I knew it.

I went to school that day. We were going to have a rehearsal that night. It was Wednesday night, with graduation Friday. I said to Mr. Snow, "I have been thinking about what you said and I have a new oration."

"Why, it is too late."

"No," I said, "I know the old one anyhow. Let's just try the new one."

He said, "Well, all right."

Oh, I am not boasting, God forbid, but I shall never forget that moment when my classmates had their eyes fastened on me and Snow sat there with the tears running down his face as I gave that oration, and when at last I was through he rushed up on the platform and took both hands and said, "Henry, thank God, you have come alive at last."

Don't give them up. Hold on to the last minute the way Stephen Snow did with me, because the most important thing you can do in the world is to raise all the material, all the water that runs through your mill, to the boiling point.

How are you going to do that? I think there is only one way and that is the way the Chinese potter did who threw himself into the furnace. That is the only way. Unless you are alive, unless you are enthusiastic, unless you are a free spirit thinking for yourself and not running your school according to the electric clock, there is no hope. But if you are free and active yourself, then there is some hope. Only a dynamic spirit begets free dynamic spirits. The *sine qua non* of an efficient public school system is an efficient public school teacher, that is all, a free spirit with a passion for souls.

Oh, for a hundred thousand of them right now to develop in this generation the power necessary to beat our guns into farming tools, our monopolies into profitsharing guilds, our rivalries into cooperative service, to destroy

our slums, beautify our cities, banish graft, clean up the newspapers, develop the moving picture in the right direction, Christianize our churches, bring in everlasting peace and the federation of the world. The passive excellencies of water can never achieve the greatest industrial results. Nothing but the active high power of superheated steam can do it. Nothing but a democracy of free spirits, dynamic and unafraid in self-forgetful cooperation for the common good, can realize the divinely inspired visions of humanity.

Oh, let's not look at the wrong thing. Let's not look at a penny so near the eye that we can't see the dollar over there; let's not set our eyes on the things that are temporal, including the sheets with all the tabulations, I. Q., and all the rest. Let's not forget that there is something beyond that, deeper and finer and higher, and all go back to our great teacher, our great American teacher. Can rulers or tutors educate the semi-god whom we await?

He must be musical, tremulous, impressional,
Alive to gentle influence of landscape and of sky,
And tender to the spirit touch of man's or maiden's eye.
But to his native center, fast shall the future fuse the past,
And the world's flowing face in his own mold recast.

That is Emerson's marching order to us public school teachers for realizing the ideal future of this democracy.

AN UNDERSTANDING CITIZENSHIP THROUGH ADULT EDUCATION

EMILY GRIFFITH, PRINCIPAL, OPPORTUNITY SCHOOL, DENVER, COLO.

The only excuse I have for being on a program of superintendents and principals would be that I have been having a big experience, friends, in the last eleven years, and I do want to tell you about it, and I do want to go right into it just as fast as I can because twenty minutes is a short time to talk of an experience of eleven years.

Eleven years ago we started in Denver, Colorado, a school. We said the first thing, "We will just have this school and there will be no entrance requirements." Aren't you tickled over that? It seems to me that is quite a prophecy, that we would have no entrance requirements, no one would ever say, "Did you finish the eighth grade?" There would be no such question. Why, I put my desk right at the very front door so that there wouldn't be anybody that even looked hungry to come in that I wouldn't let in. I just thought one time of the story of Abraham Lincoln. You know he was sitting in the pew in church and a puzzled looking man came up the aisle, an old man (and you know there are so many puzzled looking people who come into my school) and lots of people just let the old man go along and didn't say very much to him, but Abraham Lincoln, the President at that time, walked down the aisle and touched the old fellow on the elbow and said, "Come in and sit with me." And that is what

I am trying so hard to do with these thousands of people. Last year 9000 puzzled people walked past me in the front door of the school, each one trying to find something, that up until that time he had lost.

Then we said there would be no age limit. You could come all the way from sixteen to seventy-five. We did that just to try to make it as free and easy as we could for them to get in. We didn't want a single barrier to keep this person who had come back for his second chance to get something which he all his life had longed for, from getting it, so there wouldn't be one thing in his way to keep him out.

Then we said to him, "You can come in and stay just as long as you want to during the day. You don't have to stay all day nor one hour nor two hours, just as few hours as you please; you can come in any hour and on the blackboard right there it says 'You can enter any time you want to. Go right to your classrooms: we know you try to be on time.'" It is a hard place for a nervous teacher, an awfully hard place for one who is used to having her classes all come in at one time and all go out at another time. But in that school they come just whenever they can get there, and some of them only come for two weeks.

I know just before I left, a girl ran up the steps and said, "Oh, you are not going away, are you, because I have to learn buttonholes before six o'clock tonight if I am going to hold the job in the tailoring place where I am working." That was a very immediate need. I often see the immediate need for things. I went into a place the other day where a girl back of a counter said, "Come in, Miss Griffith, just a minute. You know I worked fractions in arithmetic, but now that the lace has to be sold by fractions tomorrow, I am just afraid of it," and a man rushes in and says, "I must mark my goods above cost tomorrow, and how long will it take me to do that?" Oh, that is such a vital thing. You know I would hardly trust anybody with that. Only very few people could give that man the thing he wanted just at that minute. Then besides I have had the young persons who have stayed seven years with me and finished sometimes not only the fundamentals of an education, that for some reason went by in the younger days, but also a full four-year high school course, so they could still go on at the ages of twenty-seven, twenty-eight and thirty. I saw forty of them graduate last year from a full four-year high school course. This year there will be 150 of them go out, who wanted something later on in life and the business world taught them that they must have it.

We let them take what they want. You know Arthur Dear, from Columbia University told me one time when he visited us that he thought we represented cafeteria in education. Here is the thing spread out, now come along, take what you want. You know it isn't quite as good a meal as you might get at one of your splendid hotels, not quite as good a meal as you get in your high school, folks, but it is a filling meal, that kind of education that gets them by in the day's work; it makes a happier look come into their eyes; it gives them the thing that they have been longing

for. I am glad it is cafeteria. But I tell you what I do with the plate that comes along. If they have not asked for the bread on that plate, which is the fundamentals of the thing that I know they ought to have before they go out into the world, I put that bread on there in a few days. I see the boy who thinks he needs to be an auto mechanic, but I tell the teacher down there, "Don't you neglect a little arithmetic for that boy. Have him write some letters; have him do some big things; put the names of some good books on the board that he ought to read."

As I said to a boy one day, "Here is your eighth grade certificate. You don't know how you got it."

He said, "I never expected to hold that in my hand," but he had finished it, and he finished it at odd times as he went along.

Who comes to such a school? I went down your streets this morning just to look your folks over. I went down the streets of Seattle and Spokane not long ago. If I should put a piece in the paper that I am here to talk with people who want to go on with an education or want to learn a trade or want to be a little better than the trade they are in, this auditorium wouldn't hold them tomorrow night, the place would be so full.

I went to a city not long ago and somebody said, "The opportunity lady is here in town to give people their second chance," and do you know, I could hardly get along the street and my hotel room was besieged with young people and older people and all sorts of people who wanted this thing, which sometimes we make awfully hard, it seems to me, for them to get.

I am sorry about this. I wanted to talk to you about it this time, but everybody else has talked about it, but I do want to say to you it isn't always poverty that keeps the young people out of school or makes them come back to get the thing which they should have gotten at ten or eleven years of age. A visitor went into a school not long ago and visited in a room of physics. The visitor went in with the superintendent. There was a nice little teacher there, a product of a good normal school, but a girl with not much training outside. She didn't know people very well; she hadn't lived long enough yet. A young fellow stood up. He had one of those suits of clothes on that made him look as if he had been caught in the rain; he looked like that all over. He was making a recitation and the teacher had that look in her eyes as much as to say, "I am awfully sorry he happened to be on his feet when you came in." The boy looked that way too and made a miserable recitation to the teacher who was listening, and to the principal I suppose, too, and the teacher said, "You know, that is the usual run of his recitations." Young John threw himself down in his seat finally with that look on his face that I have seen behind bars, and that look that I see in the eye sometimes of the man of thirty who tells me he couldn't go on in school, but just for the fun of the thing and just because there were some flappers in the room who sort of looked down on John and looked at him as though they didn't believe in him and were

half making fun of what he said, just for fun I said to the principal when we got out in the hall, "Don't mind me, but I am going back a minute."

I said to John when I went back into the room, "Now, to this young man down here I just wanted to say that I am afraid the class didn't get the big point he made," and I just happened to notice one big point he did make. "That was a big point, young man, where did you find it? I don't think you found that in a book, did you?"

The class all commenced to look at him as though they thought, "Well, maybe there is something to John."

John straightened up as much as his clothes would let him, and he said, "I didn't get that out of a book; I got that out of a machine shop."

I said, "Would you mind tonight looking up a little bit more and as I am going to the train in the morning, could you meet me out in the front of the building?" I wish you could have seen the difference; I saw the hungry look come in his eye. I saw that look come to him which I see in the eyes of thousands of people who have been misunderstood all the days of their schooling, the look I didn't want to see, folks, but it is the look that I wish all teachers might recognize; it is the look that we after having a great deal of experience see and know. The great teachers may have this, too, at night time when they think sometimes with a little sorrow in their hearts what the day brought, but I can tell on every person who comes to me at school the mark of a great teacher if they have ever met a great teacher in their lives. They have the great desire to go on, the desire to be something, but the thing that I regret is that so many people come leaden-eyed, dreamless, without any ambition, ambition having never been aroused in them to do the big thing which I know they are capable of doing.

I like to see the untrained worker with but a very little knowledge who comes in by the hundreds and gets to love the job that he is doing in the daytime because he understands it, who says to me, "Tomorrow will be a different day. I can show the boss how to read that blueprint tomorrow." And he goes out with a big aim in his life, and a different look, a citizen, a happier citizen because he knows what he is going to do.

I don't like the wrong attitude that so many people get toward us, the attitude that says I cannot do it. I think I know sometimes where this attitude comes. I tried it and I wish you would try it. In rooms where pupils have had a great setback, I tried to have the people get up and recite if they ever did recite, and I had the others look for all the good things they said, and report on all the good that was in that recitation, and nobody said a word about anything that was wrong in that recitation except the teacher at the close of the recitation. You know it is a fine thing to get to looking for good things in people. It is a fine thing for you to look for the good things in me while I am talking to you now. Try it on your wife; try it on your husband; try it on your children. It is a fine thing; it is a big game; try it on the children in the school.

Then here comes the woman with a little baby. Your community chest is taking care of her. I love to see her come in my schoolroom and go up to a beauty parlor or a millinery room. I am supposed to talk on the things which are to lead to better citizenship. Do you know of anything that makes a school look more like a home than to have a baby cab and a baby in it and a mother studying? I have had hundreds of them. Last year we sent 175 women out to make their own way in the world, and at least fifty of them were being helped by the city of Denver. I would say that those people grow into more understanding citizens.

Then here is another thing. We have a nice employment bureau there. I really think I have done something for the citizens of Denver in employment. I send a boy out after I have trained him and I immediately call up the president of a concern and I say, "I have just sent a boy into your employment. Last week I heard you make a speech at a club on 'We Build.' Now I am sending you a boy I have been building for about two years, and I want your firm to take him and build him the other way." He is a pretty brave man to send him back to me. He wouldn't dare let that boy go unless he gave him every bit of consideration, because the next time I went to a big club meeting, a luncheon club at noon, I might say something about it, don't you know?

I told a story about a man one time and a fellow in the audience turned white while I was talking. I made up my mind I would watch him. I told about a girl I sent out as a stenographer and she was a poor one. I did the best I could do with her, but she didn't stay long enough. I sent her out to a man and he sent her back, and I could hardly get her to work for three weeks again, she was so discouraged. When I spoke where this man was the next time, I said, "I wish you wouldn't send my people back until you say something good about them. You could have said to her, 'You are a good speller, you look the part,' or something like that." And then I said, "I could have told when she came around the corner that something nice had happened to her and she would have come in and said to me, 'I can do it, I know I can do it. He says I can spell, and it is only a little while until I can do the other.'" It makes so much difference. I plead with you don't send people away without hope in what they can do.

Then when I see somebody come into my place and they have been there night after night and night after night, I call up the employer and I say, "Did you know you had a man that has been coming here for two years? Did you know you had anybody with that much pep in your place of business?"

And he says, "Well, I didn't know it. I would like to see one of my men that can work like that."

Then I say, "Well, he is here; you had better come down. I will tell you what I will do; I will give you his name and if you are going to make promotions don't you think he would be a pretty good fellow to promote?" And in two or three nights a nice, hard working man, maybe with should-

ers a little bent by the long winters of hard work, will stop at the desk and say, "Something nice happened yesterday. I got the promotion I have been waiting for for two years." Such a little thing for me to do; such a great big thing in the life of the person.

Folks, don't know so little about your people! Know them as well as you would a bug that you were going to find out and classify, anyhow. Don't let them go unless you know something about them. I wouldn't try to find out about a bug that lives up in the Rocky Mountains and I wanted to know about it, unless I knew where it slept and what it was eating and something about it, would you? No, but I will tell you, I have gotten this plan, when a man sits down or a child sits down at my desk about the first thing I look at is his feet. I watch the walk to see if he is hungry and I wonder where he sleeps. Those are the things I think of first. I saw a school dentist plugging up a little child's teeth one time. It had a swollen face, and the bottoms of its feet were so wet and soaked that the water was running out of its shoes. I said to him, "I think you are starting at the wrong end like so many people do. You just start at the wrong end of the thing. Why don't you fix his shoes and then his teeth will take care of themselves." He said, "I am a dentist."

Then a little girl came to me. I have worked with her and she is going to be a stenographer, but, oh, my. She just doesn't look the part yet. She hasn't any good hat, her finger nails are dark, and her dress is terrible. She isn't a wholesome person. Do you know, Denver wouldn't let me send anybody out like that now because I talk so much about it. They say, "You send her over to us; we have got a bathroom in the bottom of the school now and we have got lots of business dresses." There are lots of stores that will take my people and dress them up. What is the use of getting somebody all ready for a thing and then fall down at the last minute? What is the use of getting boys through the eighth grade, getting them all ready for high school and then not connect them up with a job and let them drift through the streets of your city not knowing where they are going?

I say any school should get its eighth grade boys ready on Friday night, the school should know where they are going Monday morning, and the same with the high school students. The greatest waste that I know in the resources of Colorado or any other state is the time between a boy's leaving school and connecting up with his job. Whose business is it to get the boy connected up with his work if it is not our business?

I should like to talk with you about doing individual things for people. The one thing that has made Opportunity School the institution it is, is because we have looked upon each person that came as an individual. My little boy came in on his two crutches and said to me after being with me a year, "My hip has turned out, Miss Griffith, to be a tubercular hip and I must go to Roumania; I am being deported." The great United States

of America deported the little boy and he said, "I dare not take any money with me and I am to be put off in the winter time wherever the boat happens to stop." It is a pretty hard thing to be individual with that boy, to make him a real individual, but I will tell you how I did it and it turned out so nicely.

I knew the immigration bureau wouldn't look in the pads on his leg, so I put about \$100 that friends gave me into those pads. Everybody wanted to help the boy. I sent him to a big store and they clothed him with nice warm stuff and the last thing I did was put five letters on him. I wrote a whole lot of letters and put them all over him, addressing them to a commissioner of education, to some preacher, to some college boy. He was gone about eight months before I heard of him and I was afraid he had died in the cold country. Just before I left to come here I got this letter from a Harvard boy. He said, "I thought you would like to know that I met your boy on the boat with a note which said 'To some college man,' and I want to tell you a lot of us got interested in him. Did you know your boy can speak five or six different languages and that we put him in a hotel and he is coming on fine? He wanted us to get the word through to you that he is still alive and coming on splendidly."

I think there is an individual thing in every person; it is the big thing to know the real need of that person, and you say you can't supply it? Well, now out of 9000 people a year I haven't found one that some way or another could not be helped in our city.

Then I like to think of the foreigners who come to us. They just need a friend even more than they need English, and the illiterate woman who takes her book and says, "Oh, I can read," and the world of books is opening up to her, is a wonderful case, but more than that, the foreign people who come to me are like the little Italian girl that I sent out to camp last summer. She said, "I never used to look at your moon. I always thought about the moon in Italy; I never listened to your birds sing, I always thought of the birds in Italy." But last summer in camp she said, "I saw your moon with a little American girl and now it is my moon, and your stars are my stars because I saw them through her eyes, and I did hear the night call of your birds because a little American sat with me."

So, when the lights go out at night and you have been there since half-past seven in the morning, and you see them pass you at the desk at night, and the boy with the blueprint he has made goes by and he feels happy, and the little woman goes by who has worked all day and is learning a trade, and the young American goes by with his wheel as the lights commence to go out, you do see in the looks of the eyes of these people that there is something that is coming into their lives, a bigger and a broader and a fuller understanding. Each one is becoming an understanding citizen of the United States.

THE LOWEST FOURTH: THEIR EDUCATIONAL, SOCIAL, CIVIC, AND VOCATIONAL WELFARE

M. EDITH CAMPBELL, DIRECTOR, VOCATION BUREAU, CINCINNATI PUBLIC SCHOOLS

It is unnecessary to tell you how deeply I regret that Mrs. Woolley is not able to be with you this morning. Those of you who have heard her, realize all that you are missing—her incomparably clear, illuminating presentation of a subject in which she is not only deeply interested, but on which she is singularly able to speak. Those of you who have not heard her will, I hope, some day have that privilege. Her years of patient research, her profound knowledge, and her wise understanding of the child, give to her words unquestioned authority.

We have recently published a volume by Mrs. Woolley which presents her findings concerning the child who leaves school for work at an early age. This study gives the history of the establishment of the Vocation Bureau in the Cincinnati schools; and presents the results of an investigation, covering the history of several hundred children who went to work and of a control group, for comparison, of children who remained in school. In the main, my presentation is based on this study.

We began the investigation in 1911, with F. B. Dyer as Superintendent, completing the work during Dr. Condon's administration—thus enjoying the encouragement and assistance of two singularly wise and effective superintendents. During this period more than 700 working children were tested annually for five years, their social and industrial histories obtained, and a similar group of school children examined.

Throughout the investigation the school child showed superiority. But this very superiority throws a greater responsibility upon the school system for the child in the working group, in the lowest fourth, who needs even more than the school child careful guidance and supervision. The reason is given by Mrs. Woolley:

It is true that the majority of children who leave school under sixteen are the mentally inferior group, and failure in school is a more compelling motive than economic pressure in sending them into industry. But the conclusion to which this points is that our school system must be reorganized, not that these children should be allowed to work. If the school, as at present constituted, has nothing to offer this large group of children between fourteen and sixteen who cannot profit by the usual academic work, then it must introduce a new type of education that will give them something of value. Inferior children mature later than do normal and superior children, and it is doubly important to protect them from undue strain and responsibilities during this period of their most rapid physical and mental growth. No educator really believes that allowing the inferior children to leave school, after the required number of years of academic failure, is a good educational policy. It has been allowed to go on merely because the school has not known how to meet the situation.

The school is challenged by the fact that retardation, not economic status, is a prime factor in causing a child to leave school for work. We in the public school system have complacently accepted the theory that poverty for which we were not responsible sent children to work. We have not considered the success or failure of the working child after he left the schoolroom, our responsibility. Now we find through facts not theories, that we are just as responsible for this child until he is mature, as we are for the child who stays in school, completing high school. These are the factors, given by Mrs. Woolley in the order of their importance, which cause children to leave school:

1. Level of ability of the child
2. Parental attitude and family ideals
3. Health
4. Industrial or economic status of the family

When these findings were published, the National Association of Manufacturers gave out extensive reviews of Mrs. Woolley's book. They claimed that here were irrefutable arguments against stringent child labor laws; that the child evidently needed industry even more than industry needed the child. If retardation, inferior ability, caused the child to leave school, of what advantage was the school to the child? And we must admit the logic of this accusation. We have also to admit that we have wrongly stressed wage-earning increment in its relation to educational status. We have unconsciously taken from the business world its standard of success in dollars and cents. Educational values cannot thus be measured or even rewarded. The rewards for education, in Mrs. Woolley's opinion, must be presented to the children, not in false promises of a higher wage but in terms of a "rich reward in the pleasure of performance." She has thus specifically replied to the manufacturers:

The manufacturers regard the child primarily as a wage-earning unit. To the educator he is very much more than that. His ability to earn a living is but a small part of his preparation for life and one that for children of limited mental capacity requires little or no training. It is ability to live harmoniously, to be a good member of a family, to take his enjoyment wholesomely, to contribute to community progress, that requires the training. Herein lies the real function of education. If education has failed up to this time to accomplish this result for some group the remedy is not doing away with education. It is in making it more efficient.

One thing is obvious. With this new and individualized education that seeks to adapt the school program to the varied capacities of school children, the task of education will become more complex, and its cost will become greater. As far as the child destined for work is concerned, it implies a longer period of supervision and cooperation on the part of the school before the young worker is thrown completely on his own resources.

Here we have described in concrete terms the task of the school in meeting the educational, social, civic, and vocational needs of the lowest fourth. And why does industry not lend us a hand in attempting such a difficult task? Instead of issuing propaganda against child labor and compulsory

education laws, industry could be of invaluable assistance. The dilemma of the school consists in the fact that the children whose future work is without educational content are the very ones who cannot keep up to the standards of traditional school work. They are incapable of doing the older type of school work normally and they need no preparation for the technic of wage-earning. As yet, the dilemma has been in no way met by the school. Even toward a routine job, "the attitude of the child" can be changed. And industry could place its untold facilities at the disposal of the schools, for accomplishing such a result. By careful occupational analysis; by assisting communities in giving more resources to the child who enters a routine job; by raising the standards for working hours and conditions; by innumerable contacts with educational procedures; by discovering why ability among beginners is so rarely recognized, industry could help to develop a constructive program for solving this educational problem.

We have found that a more varied vocational program for the child, within the school is needed. May I venture to disagree with a recent speaker who insisted that no dull, or retarded children should be permitted to enter vocational classes. It is just as much the duty and responsibility of a vocational teacher paid from federal funds to care for a dull child, as it is the responsibility of the already overburdened principal. The Federal Board for Vocational Education has rendered an inestimable service in lifting from trade education the stigma which formerly was placed upon such training. But most unfortunately the requirements laid down by this board prevent the admission to vocational and cooperative classes of children who have not reached seventh and eighth grade requirements. Local boards of education are not supplying funds to establish classes for children of fifth and sixth grade status who are in sore need of vocational and cooperative opportunities. These children are not all defective, and many of them are retarded because of maladjustment to courses in which they are not interested and in which they cannot succeed. The psychologist, again and again, after patient and accurate analysis of the child's needs, finds no school facility to carry out the well formed advice for the child's education.

The federal board should not be permitted to develop its high standard for vocational education, at the tragic expense of the child who cannot meet an arbitrary grade requirement. It is through such machinery for the retarded as well as for the superior child that the school must assume its share of legislative procedure. The fifth and sixth grade child who will enter industry at fourteen and sixteen years of age has just as strong a claim on school expenditure and supervision as the child who goes through high school.

In attempting to meet the needs of this group of children, the schools should have more facilities for individual diagnosis. The mental as well as the physical condition should be taken into consideration. Careful attention should be given to a cumulative record card which should be made

a basis for all vocational guidance and training. The social environment of the child should be given to the teacher through the trained social experience of a visiting teacher. And a most important element in an individual diagnosis is the home.

We recall that our second factor which influences the child to leave school is parental attitude, the atmosphere of the home. Mrs. Woolley states:

The entire matter of home atmosphere and whether it tends to promote the normal mental life of the child and to stimulate in him an appreciation of education and a desire to obtain it, is of vital importance. A family atmosphere which is torn by dissensions between the parents, or a broken home caused by separation of the parents, creates in the child a state of mental distraction and eventually a discouragement which prevents the school progress of which he might otherwise be capable. In other instances, although the family atmosphere is normally harmonious, the parental ideals of education may be very limited. The child is brought up with the ideal of immediate wage-earning rather than with that of remaining in school.

At present the school is very lacking in a technic for relating its problems to the home. Theoretically the school is an adjunct to the home, created for the purpose of assisting parents in the task of bringing up children, and yet only too often the education of the home and that of the school are conducted quite independently of one another. Something of the technic of social case work, as developed by the social worker, must be taken over by the school in its investigation of the extra-schoolroom conditions which are interfering with school progress. The visiting teacher is the pioneer who is blazing the trail in method, but her lead must draw after it a host of followers before the general need is met.

As far as machinery is concerned, the attendance department of the school holds the strategic position. The difficulty with our present attendance officers is that they have the traditions of the police officer rather than those of the social worker. Their function has been in the past merely to arrest and haul into school truant children. The attendance officer of the future should have the function now being performed by the visiting teacher: that of diagnosing the conditions of home and neighborhood which are interfering with school progress and of doing what can be done to correct such conditions. To fulfil these functions more officers would be required, and the standards of training and preparation would have to be made more rigid and different in kind. When the attendance departments of the schools are transformed into departments of social diagnosis and treatment, the school will be equipped to deal with a phase of education which is at present sadly neglected.

One must of course concede that what the school can do to better home conditions and raise the level of home ideals is limited, but no other agency in the community has the same opportunity to come in contact with all the homes of the community in an educational capacity. The visiting teacher has amply demonstrated how such a function assumed by the school may result in better educational progress for the child. Probably no addition which could be made to our school organization would bring larger returns than that of a department of social diagnosis and treatment. We may look forward to it as one of the next great developments of public school education. Not until the means of social diagnosis are at hand can the psychological laboratory of the school function adequately.

In the matter of our third factor, health, the importance is so obvious that we may only stress the need for physical diagnosis and constant care.

The fourth factor, the economic status of the family of the working child, brings to light many interesting facts. While the percentage is small

of those who go to work, driven by poverty, we must not lose sight of the "heroic sacrifices on the part of the family" to keep many children in school. Scholarships for the purpose of keeping the superior child in school are rapidly increasing in a number of cities. In Cincinnati \$6000 given annually by the Community Chest has been increased through individual gifts to \$10,000. This experiment has yielded splendid results. It has enabled the child of superior ability to overcome the "terrific disadvantage" under which he labors when deprived of education. We now have conclusive proof that through this assistance, these children will make contributions to their community in its artistic, civic, and industrial ideals. The schools and the community can thus provide for the child thwarted by economic status. Thus we can assist the child of superior ability. But for all the children, not only according to mental ability, but according to the demands and rights of personality, we must find a way for service. Dr. Condon has well said that we dislike the phrase of "lowest fourth." He has also placed the standard for this convention's program in terms of character, citizenship, ideals, which he has many times said to me, could only be completely realized through facing with the child life's experience and reality, the day's work. The school has too long thought in terms of its "highest fourth." Preparation for college must not overshadow preparation for life toward which the very heart and soul of the public school system—the lowest fourth—blazes the path.

Until very recently the school has not even felt a sense of responsibility with regard to the children who drop out early. The general attitude toward them was that if they could not profit by the education offered them, that was their fault and the school was in no way responsible. Leaving school was the only possible outcome. The whole system has been dominated by a desire to prepare children for the next higher educational level. The efforts of the elementary school have been centered upon preparing children for high school and those of the high school on preparing children for college. Doubtless preparation for more education is one entirely legitimate and exceedingly important purpose of the school, but when it dominates education to such an extent that nothing adequate is accomplished in preparation for living for almost half of the school population, the tendency needs to be curbed. Now that scientific methods have made it possible to determine fairly early in a school career which children will be able to profit by prolonged training of the academic type and which ones are sure to be limited in accomplishment, there is still less excuse for merely selecting the superior and rejecting the inferior.

No educator really believes that allowing the inferior children to leave school, after the required number of years of academic failure, is a good educational policy. It has been allowed to go on merely because the school has not known how to meet the situation. Now that specific vocational training seems to be eliminated, the school is in a still more difficult position. It must try to find out how best to fit children of limited mental

ability for a life in which wage-earning will take the form of monotonous labor. Let me suggest two elements in a solution of the problem. The first consists in the attempt to change the attitude of the child toward, and his type of interest in, his job. The second consists in more stress on preparation for a wise use of leisure time.

Shall we follow these children with wise guidance and supervision? Shall we study more thoroughly the singularly illuminating lights thrown by adult education on our elementary education? It is possible to give these children resources for well-being and happiness; it is possible to give them a right attitude and interest in their job—whether it is skilled or unskilled. The school is equal to the task. We reply to industry that we are just as concerned as the employer is, in teaching the child the life-giving necessity of work. We are not encouraging idleness. We are attempting to imbue the child with a spirit, an attitude for work, which will be an enduring, life long satisfaction—not a task rebelliously performed. We dare not send forth our lowest fourth unguided and confused. If we do the soul of our school system will surely die, for a great philosopher warns us: "Learning does not liberate men . . . when their souls are cowed or perplexed."

EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

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I came here with some hesitation because I have felt for a good many years that those educators with whom I have come in contact over the country, whether in the grade schools or the high schools or the colleges, have neither a comprehension nor a very deep interest in that part of industry which seems to me to be at the center. But after listening to Miss Campbell I have changed my mind. I was particularly impressed by something she said toward the latter part of her address. She said we must find some other standard for the value of an education than income. It seems to me that the most necessary thing for you educators to learn, or let me change the phrase, it seems to me the most necessary thing for you to come to a conclusion about is the meaning of industry, what industry is for. Whether the worker is made for industry or industry for the worker, we all know that long ago a very wise man said, "Man is not made for the Sabbath." It seems to me it is quite as true as that, that man is not made for industry, and yet can we seriously say here today, those of us who are in contact with industry and know its goal, that man is not made for industry? We all know the goal; we all know the measure of success in industry. The goal of industry is profits, and the success of industry is based upon the balance sheet. I am speaking now with complete accuracy. I don't mean to say there are not exceptions. But if you teachers believe in that, if you believe that is what industry is for, that the worker is merely

a cog in the industrial machine by means of which our material welfare will be increased, if you believe in that, then I see no likelihood of your being able to think through and help through a different social order.

Those teachers with whom I have come in contact seem to me not much concerned with the structure of society, but chiefly concerned with their place in that structure. If you are chiefly concerned not with the structure of society but with your place and the child's place in it, I repeat that I do not see how you can contribute very much toward a change in industry.

My experience with regard to industrial problems, more particularly the educational side of industry, dates back in its intimate relations to approximately eleven years ago, when the governing of the company with which I was connected at that time and still am, was turned over to the workers. When we began that experiment, they were told, although of course they didn't believe it in all its details, that they were to have as quickly as they wanted it absolute control; they were to decide not only their working hours and their incomes, but they were to legislate all the laws which concerned that industry, and that no laws which concerned the United States Steel Company or any of the other large corporations of the United States are in essence different from those which concern a small company like the Columbia Conserve Company.

They thought, and I believe there are not many men or women in the United States who do not think, that the chief problems of industry are wages and hours. They thought that in the beginning, and they naturally concerned themselves chiefly with wages and hours.

But as my consideration of industry in its relation to society more and more matured (after my graduation from college) I came in 1917 to believe that the tragedy of industry was not the tragedy of long hours and low income, but lack of a creative environment, lack of an environment which stimulated the workers.

Many of us believed, and probably for many of us it is true, that the chief value in life is material things, but that is not true with all, and I hope it is not true with a great majority. For those for whom it is not true, the tragedy of industry is its mechanization, beginning with approximately 100 years ago when there was the industrial revolution and the beginning of the machine age. Believing that to be the tragedy of industry, it seemed to me that our goal, the goal of this experiment we were trying in Indianapolis, was not the goal mainly of raising the economic status of the workers, but the goal of so educating them that they could relate their industrial life to the outside world. They could get permanent values, inspiring values, creative values out of their work life. It seemed to me that the only way to do that was to bring them into conference, bring them into the machinery of management.

Long ago I had what is called an education. I went through the schools, and I went through college. But I can say quite truthfully that the education I have had in the last ten years, sitting in intimate relationship with a group of very ordinary people, so far as their educational background

is concerned, is far superior to the education I had preceding that period which is almost negligible as compared to the education I have gotten since then. All that period furnished me was merely a tool by means of which I came to better understanding of the difficulties, the desires, the hopes, the fears, the ignorance and the inhibitions of people who didn't have the same kind of tools.

As far as appreciation and being inspired by what seemed to me to be the genuine values in life, my education began almost with the period of 1917.

Miss Campbell has talked about the lowest fourth. I don't know exactly what that means, and I agree with her I don't like the word "lowest" attached to any human being, but during the last ten years, we have been dealing with a group of people whose educational background did not average the fourth grade.

I can say with accuracy that ten years ago we did not average the third grade. There were a few who had gone beyond that. Many of that same group of sixty people are still with us, and many others have come. I have watched the development of that early group, I have been impressed with the distance they have gone, not only in a greater mastery of the technical features of their work, but in a greater mastery of the meaning of industry, of its relations to society in general, of the real values in life.

I have already said that I have felt that same progress myself. In order that you may understand a little better what I have already said, I want to repeat that our experiment up to date has concerned itself with giving an opportunity to a group of people to govern themselves. We believe that by the process of doing a thing we get a better education than by the process of receiving suggestions and precepts from others. So this group of people have been doing not only the things that I spoke of in the beginning, the determination of their own working day, the length of it, and what they got for it, but they have chosen their own leaders, their manager, their superintendents, their assistant superintendents, their foremen and their forewomen. They have decided on sales policies, problems of finance, problems of production and problems of distribution. Those are the difficult problems in industry. As they struggled with these problems it must be obvious to you as teachers that the effect upon them has been tremendous in two ways. The direction which I have already spoken of, that of making them technicians, making them better masters of the difficulties of production and distribution and finance also brought them into that most difficult of all fields of life, the problem of how to get along together in a state of freedom.

It isn't particularly difficult in a state of autocracy to avoid serious quarrels, because the autocrat when confronted with what seems to him to be a dangerous person or a dangerous group of people, who are fault-

finders, who are pulling away does not find it difficult to apply the autocratic remedy, to discharge that person, metaphorically to behead him. It is not difficult in government or in industry to do that, but it is difficult when you bring a group of people into complete freedom to avoid anarchy, to avoid an excess of freedom by which freedom itself will die in order to get a group of people to live together, when no man has the right of capital punishment over another. I might say that with us long ago we reached the position where no individual in our company could discharge another, where no individual in our company could engage another. All that is done by the action of the group itself. Of course when that situation arrives, and the man in the ranks knows that his foreman or his superintendent has not the power of discharge, it is likely to be misinterpreted, it is likely to be abused.

We have now reached the most critical period in our whole experiment, just as democracy and government is reaching its critical period. Can we learn to live together?

Referring to the matter of the lowest fourth again, I am not sure that the lowest fourth is the most difficult group of people for industry to deal with, whether they be adults or whether they be minors, if we want to advance industry toward a fraternity, toward an equality. In fact I feel at times quite to the contrary—that the most difficult people we have today in our organization or in organizations similarly conducted, is that group of people who call themselves educated, who believe that an education is a tool by means of which we want to climb out of the class in which we are to a class more economically safe and in a higher so-called social position.

My chief criticism of the school system, whether it be in grade school or high school or college, is that we teach just that about education, that we teach that education is not a tool by means of which we serve, but a tool by means of which we gain. I hear it on all hands, spoken by parents, spoken by their children, spoken by teachers. What do we go to college for is the question. When I go about the country, as I have occasion to do at times, and speak before groups of students, in Harvard or Yale or Princeton or Michigan or Wisconsin or wherever it may be, and make an appeal to students with this thing we call a higher education, to get into industry and to use that tool as not the means of exploiting those who haven't it, but a means of assisting those who haven't it, what reply do I get? From 999 students out of 1000, it is "What have I an education for?" I don't know how you feel with respect to what an education is for. I have tried to make my attitude clear. My belief in education is that it is a liability and not an asset unless education is used in the sense in which Bassi wrote to Garibaldi, when Garibaldi, sick and despairing in prison felt that all the work he had done for Italy was lost. Bassi wrote to Garibaldi in these words: "Measure your life by loss and not by gain, not by the wine drunk, but by the wine poured forth."

And Jesus said it in simpler words: "He who will be first among you shall be your servant."

THE FACE AT OUR WINDOW

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It was in the year 1816 that Lord Byron and Mr. and Mrs. Shelley were summering in the Alps. It proved to be a very wet, rainy summer, and many days they had to spend indoors, and one day they were given over to telling ghost stories. After they had run out of them in the afternoon Lord Byron and Mr. Shelley began to discuss evolution, as it had been worked out at that time by Erasmus Darwin, the father of Charles Darwin, and as the evening wore on and they were talking about how things beautiful and lovely had come out of the ferment and stew of things, Mrs. Shelley became weary and began to excuse herself, but as she started up the stairs Lord Byron turned to her and said, "Now, Mrs. Shelley, tomorrow promises to be another rainy day and we want to have another ghost story. You must come down with a ghost story of your own."

Mrs. Shelley in her book tells that she did not wish to do it and so she told Lord Byron that she couldn't write a ghost story.

He said, "What! You, the daughter of the greatest literary personages that England has ever produced, can't write a ghost story! You must."

Mrs. Shelley said, "I went to my room; I threw myself upon the bed, and there between waking and sleeping I had what some people would call a presentiment. I saw a wan, worn student kneeling upon the floor of his laboratory and looking out through a window and there on the outside was a great monster that he had created in his laboratory. This monster, with a terrible leer and frown upon his face, said to the student in his expression, 'Here I am, just as you have made me in your laboratory. Come out and show me how I can live a happy life.'"

Mrs. Shelley wrote it out in brief and when Mr. Shelley came to the room and read it he had her write it out in greater extension, and the next day when they read it at the fireside Lord Byron had her write it out in greater extension, and out of it came the great work of "Frankenstein." I read it some ten years ago; I read that story of how this man Frankenstein, a gentleman of Geneva, when he had a son born, conceived that this son must master a scientific education. It was about the time of Tennyson's first "Locksley Hall," when everybody thought that to master the world you must master science. So Frankenstein conceived for his son Victor a great scientific education, but Victor was enamored of imaginary things; he had studied Albertus Magnus and various other imaginary things, and finally the father got somewhat out of temper with his boy, and when at seventeen years of age, Victor came to his father to ask if he might marry his cousin Elizabeth, the father said, "No, there will be no marrying until my program for you has been carried out. You must go to the great German University and there you must immerse yourself in scientific lore." Victor went and when he came to the German University and they asked him what he had read preparatory to coming in and he told

them, they said with a smile, "Better were your mind vacant than to come here with it filled with these old women's tales." And it stung him to the heart and he there highly resolved that never again should father or teacher have the right to reprimand him because of his lack of scientific zeal.

He threw himself into it with a reckless abandon. They soon set him in a separate room and finally the teachers were writing to his father, "So far as your son showing an apathy toward scientific learning, he has discovered within himself a zeal that frightens us and we have given him a separate room." And there, Victor Frankenstein working away came upon that great problem that has puzzled every great scholar, "What will it profit me if I solve all questions and cannot tell whence comes life?" And he set to work getting human tissues, building them together, preserving them by a process which to Mrs. Shelley must have been a prophecy, but which I think has been perfected scientifically. He articulated them together in a huge monster in human form, and then as the day drew near when he was to inject the chemicals and turn on the magnetic batteries, this boy with fasting and sleeplessness was all atremble. He finally injected the chemicals, turned on the magnetic battery and the great muscles began to contract, the eyelids began to twitch, and finally it stood on its feet, and so overcome with fasting and the vigils, Victor Frankenstein fell upon the floor of his laboratory.

In the morning the cool breezes coming through his window awoke him and he looked out to see this monster that upon the streets had been set upon by the men, had been struck with great clubs until his face was bleeding, and as he stood before the window with that terrible leer on his face, said, "Now you have made me what I am; come out and show me how to live a happy life; come out and show me how to relate myself to others."

Victor Frankenstein was so overcome that he went into a sort of delirium. Months passed by and when he came to himself a note from the father said, "Victor, come home. We have waited long for your homecoming. Many times have we prepared, but now you come home to a sad reception, for your little brother, William, whom you left, flaxen-haired and beautiful, is now dead and dead under the most peculiar circumstances. The maid had taken him forth to play and when the little lad wearied himself and had laid down under the shade of a tree and had gone to sleep, the maid left him. When she came back she found him dead, dead with great black fingerprints on his throat."

Victor set out, thinking that he knew what had put the fingerprints on the throat of his little brother William. When he came within the environs of Geneva a great storm was on. He saw a huge form moving from tree to tree. When he got in he found the maid arrested. Under that peculiar psychological law that we know little about, she had confessed that she killed the child. Victor knew she had not, but he was not willing to confess his responsibility for turning loose this monster. Then the father came to him and said, "Now, Victor all my plans have gone awry,

I am a broken, old man, I would see my grandchild on my knee, I would see you and Elizabeth married."

Victor said, "No, it is I now who counsel delay. I must have one more year to pursue and complete my studies."

With that year he set out to find this monster and kill him. He met him in a cave in the Alps Mountains and when Victor would have fallen upon him to kill him, this monster, having acquired the power of speech, said, "Hold until you have heard my story, then when you have heard it take this life if you will."

Then he told briefly how that night after he had been created in the laboratory, how he walked out upon the streets and saw other forms, like unto his, a great ill-defined emotion within him said, "I want to go, I want to know these people," but when he came near to them they struck him with staves; they hit him with bricks and he fled, bleeding to the forest. He said, "I slept by day and traveled by night. Presently I came to these mountains, and one day I looked down on this cottage of the shepherd and I watched him and in the early morning I saw the shepherd come forth with his staff to lead his flocks on the mountain; I saw another about his size, dressed differently, come out to bid him goodbye; I saw little ones come out and climb up on his legs and on his shoulders. I said, 'What manner of man is this that when he goes forth to his work in the morning goes forth with blessings and benedictions? I must know more about him.'

"And I went and digged a hole by the side of the cabin, and in the daytime I looked in and I saw the shepherd come in and his wife and children gathered around him. I saw the shepherd open a great book and I saw him talk from that book and then the book was closed; I saw them get upon their knees and I saw an old one with the stopped eyes look toward the ridge pole of the cabin and speak to something way off there. I watched every word; I attached the words together, and as days went by I soon began to see the meaning of the words, and one day when they were on their knees I heard this old one with the stopped eyes say to that thing way above the ridgepole, 'A famine is in the land; we are hungry; the children have been without meat. Oh, bring us meat.'

"Then," said this monster, "for the first time I felt a real stir within my heart. Someone had asked for help. And that night I hunted far and wide. I slew a deer; I brought it back and laid it upon the porch of the cabin and then I waited. The shepherd awoke; he came out on the porch and found the deer and brought it in. Then the mother and the children and the old one came out and all fell upon their knees and lifted their faces to the ridge pole and thanked that thing way beyond the roof for having brought the meat. Then for the first time I felt a real thrill of joy that I had heard a call and I had gone out and helped to make people happy.

"But one day I had a great urge to go in and talk. I wanted to speak to someone, and when the shepherd and his children were gone and just the old one with the stopped eyes remained, I made bold to go in. When I got in my muscles were in a spasm and I was all nervous, but finally I

spoke, and the full meaning of my words fell on the ear of the old one, and, joy unspeakable, I heard the voice of another human, and responded, and finally my muscles relaxed and I sat in the chair, and for a few brief moments I felt that exquisite joy that comes when one human relates himself to another in words, one speaking and the other hearing, but presently I heard voices outside, and my muscular spasm came back. I leaped to the door and there was the daughter of the shepherd. She screamed and said, 'A monster, a monster! A frightful monster.' And the shepherd struck me with his staff and the son threw a stone and the dogs bit at my heels. I fled to the forest, my blood hot and my temper bitter, and I highly resolved that I would go back and burn and destroy, but the rain falling upon me cooled my blood and sweetened my temper and I said, 'I am not like others; I must go back and try.'

"I went back and crawled into the hole by the cottage. When I looked in the morning the cottage was empty. No one came. Finally two peasants passing by said, 'The shepherd and his wife and the children have gone, never to return. They have seen a strange face about here, and a strange form, and they have gone.'

"Then when I found that every effort of mine to find friendship, love and comradeship failed, I determined that I would find him who had created me to this life of misery and I would take away his life, and I went to Geneva. When I came within the environs of Geneva one day, lying in the edge of the forest I saw a beautiful young woman bring forth a more beautiful little child, flaxen-haired. I watched him as he played. When he went to sleep under the trees and she went away I said to myself, 'I have made a mistake; I have been trying to relate myself to old ones. Here is a little one. I will take him and he shall come to know me and I to know him and my life will become beautiful and large and full of meaning.' I leaped forth and grabbed this little one in my arms and as I pressed his little, soft, velvety form to mine, I felt a thrill throughout my whole body such as I had never had before, and when I looked in his little face and pressed it against mine I knew more than I had ever known before what it meant to live, but when he opened his little eyes a terrible look came upon his face and he put his little nails on my cheek and said, 'Put me down, or my father, Monsieur Frankenstein, of Geneva, will punish thee.'

"When I heard that name and knew it was he who created me to this life of misery, my fingers settled upon his throat and for one ecstatic moment I felt the joy of taking away life of him who bore the name of the man who had created me to this life of misery."

It was ten years ago that I read the story and you will agree that Mrs. Shelley has told a ghost story. It has a shiver in it, but as I read it as a father and as a teacher, these things came to my mind which I think cannot fail to be of interest to everyone, that in the laboratories of the home, the church and the school and the community, we are creating the men and the women of tomorrow who are going to come back to our window and look in upon us, either with the frown and the leer of malediction upon their

faces or with the smile of blessing and good will for what we have done, and fortunately for us in our attempt to reconstruct a better generation we don't have to rob the graveyards as Victor Frankenstein did. Over the great biologic precipice, these people are coming into the world in God's old-fashioned way, articulate of body, ready to be built up into strong, virile men and women through the process of developing certain sets of relationships.

The first set of relationships that we must develop if we are to have happy faces look through our windows, are biologic relationships. Some of the unhappy faces that have come to my laboratory were men and women whose stomachs were burned out, whose nerves were shot to pieces, whose nerves were fagged. They came to say, "See what you have done in the home; see what you have done in the community; see what you have done to me. My physical body all shot to pieces, I have come to let you have a farewell look at me."

The great lamented President Emeritus of Harvard, Charles Eliot, had it right when he said three-fourths of a happy life depends upon a sound, healthy body or a stomach that can digest and assimilate, a skin that scintillates and responds to the touch of the air and water and sunshine, a nervous system that really scintillates with joy at its contacts in the world, and I have come to believe that we must do everything we can to see that every child that comes into the world shall have its tree of life hung with a healthful body and that we must surround him with all the conditions that we can so that he will come to our window with a smile of blessing upon us for what we have done to make his biologic life as happy as possible.

Another set of relations we must develop are the emotional. I don't know how it has been with you, but some of the most unhappy faces that have come to my window have been men and women whose emotional life has been swept by a storm. It has never been rightly directed. They have never learned how to love the things that are lovable, and to hate only the things that are to be hated. In the schools we are given over mainly to that part of the soul that we call the intelligence. I am told that when you see an iceberg out in the ocean they will point it out and say that is an iceberg. You look at it but what you really see is only one-eighth of the iceberg. Seven-eighths of it are down under the water. You see the little glistening part up here caught by the sun, but down under the water are seven-eighths of it caught by the mighty tides of the ocean. In our education systems, especially in the home and the church and in the school I think as well, we must reckon with this great submerged seven-eighths of the human mind, these great emotions out of which the ideals are formed.

Take the matter of love and hate. We can't touch it over much in our schools, but every one of these boys is going to be gripped and shaken tremendously one day. I have seen my own boys, if I can be spared a personal reference, as I put them to bed. The happiest hour in the home was that

bedtime hour when the little fellows had put on their bedclothes and were ready to go to bed and after the pillow fight they would stretch out on the bed and then when I would go away I would say, "There you are, boys, between clean sheets. Oh, how safe you feel, but one day, my lads, the great master human passion is going to strike you and when it comes God grant that it will come like a great refining fire, that you will play the game like a good sportsman, that you will play it honestly and fairly and squarely, and when this master passion comes to strike you that you will be taller and better for the way you meet the situation."

How feeble and impotent we are in the home, in the church, in the school, and in the community in directing our boys and our girls along these fundamental lines. But, oh, if we can conspire together so as to rightly direct the emotional life of children, so that they shall be sanely emotional, so that they shall love the things that are lovable, how many more happy faces will come back to our window!

I do not wish to neglect the intellectual relationships. I think some of the unhappiest faces I have seen have been great, huge physical forms with a vast deal of emotion in their lives, but who could not think. Down in the St. Louis station just a few months ago as I came through there I saw a man with a large family, a white man evidently from the mountains. He had a large amount of luggage and he was going out to the gate to find what train to take and he couldn't read his ticket and he couldn't find the gate. He went up to one of the colored boys with a red cap to help him find the gate. I looked at this man's face. There was a sadness on it. Oh, the great doors that had never been opened simply because he could not see through a word and understand its meaning.

I have come to believe with all the joy out on the football ground, with all the joy in our athletics, that the greatest joy in our public school system today is the joy that comes when a boy has got the intellectual power, the grip to grip a paragraph and squeeze out the truth. The greatest joys I think are not in the rah-rah's, but when a man is able to think God's thought after Him and rejoice with exceeding great joy.

I once, on a Sabbath evening, went into a laboratory meeting in Chicago. A man had just made a speech and the people were using language that schoolmasters are not accustomed to hear even on a week day. I thought I had got into the wrong place, and I was going to leave when I saw a man about six rows of seats from the platform vault right over those seats and up onto the platform and he turned and said, "Sit down, sit down, every one of you sit down. This man has lied to you and I want you to sit there until I show you he has lied to you." I don't know whether the man ever had an eighth grade diploma, but I never in ten minutes of my life have seen a man with sheer force of intellect put the two-edged sword of thought and intelligence into a breath of sophistry more cleanly than he did, and it came to me then as never before that in this great republic we are simply building upon sand if we cannot train men and women to see

through the sophistry of the mountebank; and as long as we train our citizens so they can think straight, I am not afraid of this great republic.

But another set of relations: if we are going to have citizens happy to come to our windows, we have got to train the imagination. On those blessed teachers, those blessed mothers and fathers in church or state or wherever they may be, that are unloosing the wings of children's imagination, rests a lot. I can remember as a boy about twelve years of age I came to look for the first time on a print of "The Man With a Hoe." I looked at it and my mother had spoken about how sad a face he had. I said, "Of course, I know why he is sad." On a farm in southern Illinois I used to have to go out with a hoe and hoe the cockleburrs out of the corn and out of the garden and I always hated it. I never went with any joy to it, and I said, "I know why he is sad; he has got a hoe and somebody is sending him out to hoe the corn or whatever it may be."

But I came in later years to know that it was not because he had a hoe. Why, a man with a hoe ought to be the happiest man on earth. He goes out into the blue sky, into the pure air, and touches the earth and gets the tang of the new turned earth in his nostrils. No, he is not sad because he has a hoe, but because no one has ever unloosed the wings of the imagination. He is as provincial as the hitching post to which he ties his horse; he is as unfeeling and unimaginative as the clod on which his feet tread, and I can more and more give my blessing to the teacher who not only unlimbers the powers of the intellect, but who also unloosens the wings of imagination.

I do not know how many of you have ever heard Henry C. Bunner's lines that he calls "One, Two, Three."

It was an old, old, old, old lady
And a boy that was half past three,
And the way that they played together
Was beautiful to see.

She couldn't go romping and jumping,
And the boy, no more could he;
For he was a thin little fellow,
With a thin little twisted knee.

They sat in the yellow sunlight,
Out under the maple tree,
And the game that they played I'll tell you,
Just as it was told to me.

It was hide-and-go-seek they were playing.
Though you'd never have known it to be—
With an old, old, old, old lady
And a boy with a twisted knee.

The boy would bend his face down
On his little sound right knee.
And he guessed where she was hiding
In guesses One, Two, Three.

Then she covered her face with her fingers,
That were wrinkled and white and wee,
And she guessed where the boy was hiding,
With a One and a Two and a Three.

And they never had stirred from their places
Right under the maple tree—

This old, old, old, old lady

And the boy with the lame little knee—

This dear, dear, dear old lady

And the boy who was half-past three.

Ladies and gentlemen, only a real teacher can impart to a crippled boy and a decrepit old grandmother the power to translate a little spot under a maple tree into a playground, that doesn't cost the taxpayers a single dollar in excess, the great playground of the imagination that gives them the wings of the morning and makes them cosmopolitan so they can fly to the uttermost parts of the earth.

Another set of relations we must develop are the relations of play. I have come up in my part of this country under the old fetish of work. We believed in work, everything was work, hard work. I have come in my own lifetime to see what I think is the danger of the enthronement of work as a great national god, and I have come to believe that the happy faces that we want to see at our window require a little different treatment. I have seen them come to my window, prematurely old men and women, and they say not in their own voice, "I never had a day of play in my life; I never knew what it was to give myself with a reckless abandon to the recreative power of play. Teach me how to play." All my blessing will be on the home, the church, the school and the community that are trying to induce our children, our men and our women, to go out and play, to rejoice, and the play that does not stop at the eighth grade, play that goes right on with the man and the woman. And when we find a man and woman with gray in their hair, who yet can play, who have the happy faculty of abandoning their work and playing, we shall have happy faces at our windows.

Another thing. I am convinced that we are going to have unhappy faces at our windows until every man and woman finds a work that he or she can do and do with a certain kind of joy. I know these guidance people (I do not want to cast any reflection upon them), these vocational guidance people; they have a cocksureness among them that I can't understand. I don't understand how they can be so certain about it. When my boys were young, every day they knew just exactly what they were going to be. One day they wanted to be the conductor on the train, the next day they decided they would rather be a motorman. They wanted to be a baseball pitcher today, tomorrow they wanted to be a catcher. One day when one was about eighteen years of age he came home from college and said, "I wonder what I am going to be. Won't you sit down and talk to me about what I am going to be?"

If you ever have a child of yours come to you and ask what you want him to be, if ever you are going to have a serious thought you are going to say as his father, "I don't want to hang about his neck the millstone of a piece of work the doing of which will make him smaller every day that he does it, I want to get a bit of work for him which is work for the worker,

which shall build him up." But I have found out this, and I think this is the reason vocational guidance hits it as often as it does. I reached the conclusion that the average boy or girl with the average ability can do any one of ten or fifteen things, one just about as well as he would do the other, and if you get him on any one of those and create within him the artistic point of view he will rejoice in his work.

Once I was way down in Brookville, Indiana, on the river, in a week's institute. I was sitting in the lobby of the hotel and I saw a man coming in with a market basket and some powdered soap. He began to wash the window on the cigar stand. I watched him. Then he turned to me and said in broken English, "Do you like to see a beautiful, clean glass?"

I said, "I am interested in the way you are doing it."

He said, "If you want to see a beautiful, clean glass I pray of you do not look until I have finished."

Afterward he stepped aside just as Michelangelo or Raphael stepped aside from the great work that had leaped from their fingers and said, "Now, sir, if you would see a beautiful, clean glass, come and look." And I saw a glass that was not only clean but that was iridescent.

With that kind of egotism that we grant to a real artist, he said, "Oh, I have all the work that I can do, all the fine ladies of Brookville will have no one but me wash their windows." You didn't have to hitch a four-horse team to him to drag him out of his bed. Every day he went forth to his work the way he would if it were the work of an artist.

Upon the lakes in Michigan I discovered a man by the name of Clineham, and he came down to help build a bird bath and build it in stone. He stayed there six days and when I came to make out a check for him he said in all sincerity, "My good friend, I don't like to take one dollar from you. Look, I have had eight days of beautiful play here with you and your boys, beautiful play in making this beautiful bird bath, play, play all the time. Oh, I love my work, it is play all the time." I believed. I didn't advise him to allow his artistic sentiment to go so far as to refuse the check for the work. I do believe there is a whole lot of the income that doesn't get into the check.

I believe that we have got to develop in the home and the church and the community and the state a certain kind of social relationship if we are going to have happy faces at our windows. This great monster in the cave on the Alps Mountain said to Victor Frankenstein, "Companionship I must have; if you will create for me a companion I will go to the Amazon and I will lose myself forever in the forest of the Amazon, but companionship I must have."

Ah, ladies and gentlemen, the most solitary, the most solemn, the most serious faces that I have ever seen at my window have been those of men and women who have never achieved the capacity for friendship, for comradeship, who walk along the road in the midst of thousands, lonesome, not knowing companionship or comradeship, and I have come to believe that every man, every woman, has a right to companionship of the right kind. I count no man's life a failure who has ever come to know the meaning of father, of mother, no man's life has ever been a failure who has come to

know the meaning of work, no man's life is a failure who has come to know the meaning of son or daughter or brother or sister, and no man has got a right to come to my window and look through with a frown on his face who has come to know the meaning of a friend, real and true, that he can depend upon, that will stand by him. Life is not a failure, it is not a hollow mockery as long as we have one solitary friend who will stand by us, and I come to believe that in all these laboratories in which we work we must have regard to developing as much as we can through literature, through all the influences that we have that spirit which makes a man a comrade, and I shall not try to hold my friends on the ground that they are perfect, if I do I shall fail. That old proverb that "No chain is stronger than its weakest link" is true so long as it is applied to a chain and you are pulling on the end links, but when applied to human character it is as false as any lie ever uttered.

Human character is as strong as its greatest virtue and I shall select and hold my friends, if I want to be happy and a good comrade, not in terms of their littleness, not in terms of their faults, but in terms of their great virtues.

The last set of relations, and I have no authority to speak on it, but the older I grow the more I believe that there have got to be relationships not only with the life that is but a hope that reaches beyond. You may not be concerned with it, but some of the most unhappy faces that I have seen come to my window have been men and women who have done fairly well in this world but there is a haunting look like the hyena on their faces, a restive look, and they never come to have a philosophy of life; they don't see that "Through the ages one increasing purpose runs, and the thoughts of men are widened with the process of the sun."

I have come to believe, I don't care what religion a man gives his faith to, if it satisfies him that is all right to me, and I am even ready to go out and take the hand of the honest doubter if he can't see through the fog and the mist; I will take him by the hand and call him my brother if he is honest and cannot believe, but I do feel the older I grow that every man and woman needs a kind of philosophy that leads beyond the mere shifting currents of this life, and I would like finally to have my faith pinned to something like this, where the poet says:

The soul secure in its existence
Smiles at the drawn dagger
And defies its point;
The stars shall fade away,
The sun himself grow dim with age,
And nature sink in years,
But Thou shalt flourish in immortal youth,
Unhurt amid the wars of elements,
The wreck of matter and the crash of worlds.

Ladies and gentlemen, as parents, as teachers, as workers in this great field, this great laboratory of humanity, if once in a while we can lift our shades and look out and see the happy faces of men and women whose

bodily health makes them happy, if we can look out and see them sweet and wholesome in their emotional life, loving good pictures, loving good music, loving the things that are worthwhile, if we can look out and see them as they grip a paragraph and squeeze the idea out of it, as they listen to some talk and get the idea, if we can look out and see them in their imagination taking the wings of the morning and flying to the uttermost parts of the earth, if we can look out and see them happy at their play, happy in their work, happy in their homes, happy in their church relationships, happy in their comradeship on the great way, and if it might come to us to look out and see them with a face lit by that transcendent hope that goes over and above all others, if we might see them with that, I think we could congratulate ourselves that in the laboratories of the home, the church, the school and the community, we have done our part to bring back to look through our windows the faces of happy children and of happy men and women.

MUSIC AND THE SACRED SEVEN

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Some years ago a party of wise men, more than three and not all from the east, came together and after due deliberation announced to an expectant world the seven objectives of education. Whether the number seven was chosen because of educators' eternal fight against the seven deadly sins, or whether, as seems more likely, this sacred number was selected because they saw the lamp of knowledge flower into a seven-branched candle-stick, they have never disclosed. It may be that some day the number will be enlarged to meet new delinquencies of men, or to celebrate new advances in education. Or we may reduce it to a single formula as announced by our educational philosopher, Dewey: "to achieve a life of rich significance." Somehow this statement has always sounded complete to me. But the number seven has stuck, and we talk of health, fundamental skills, worthy home membership, vocation, citizenship, worthy use of leisure, and ethical character. If this bare skeleton should be clothed with soft palpitating flesh, it would look like this: There shall come forth from our schools a people enjoying abundant health, trained to keen intelligence, finding confidently their places in the world's work, dwelling in happy homes, exercising wisely the obligations of loyal citizens, using worthily their leisure time, and guided by high principles in all their daily contracts with their fellows. This is a glorious ideal, a consummation calling for high endeavor.

Now, where shall music be found, and where is the place of harmony among the sacred seven? Some of us can remember way back when music was not included in any school course of study. It would do for girls, who hoped some day to play variations on "Listen to the Mocking Bird" or Sigel's March for four hands. Very few persons attempted to sing, except those who belonged to a church choir. The Saturday night rehearsal was a serious matter, and ears were more efficient than eyes in learning the

tune and its adjacent parts. In those days a boy who ventured to sing might as well wear dresses and be done with it. He would, however, be permitted to play in a band, and would be tolerated by an abandoned segment of the social circle if he could fiddle "The Devil's Dream" or "The Irish Washerwoman." Still, that boy was dangerously wicked and to be avoided by all well-bred children with white hands and clean collars.

That was fifty years ago. Fortunately things have changed. The maid of song no longer has to stand outside and beg admission to any circle. She is the most welcome of the sacred muses; and Terpsichore may now bring as her companions Calliope, Melpomene, and Euterpe. As soon omit history from a course of study today as music, and woe to the superintendent who slights either. Both are elements contributing to a life of rich significance.

Much as I love music, much as I believe it should have a large place in any school, I cannot say that it makes an equal contribution to each of the seven objectives. I might repeat the ancient confession of the base drummer who had cured his consumption by joining the band. And I might assert with confidence that all little boys who feel their waist lines while they sing, know that they are using the whole of their lungs, and will never have to fight a battle with the White Plague. But such an assertion would be even more far-fetched and ludicrous than some others I have heard of, in which educators have sought to give certain procedures an honorable parentage.

And I shall not urge too far the place of music in making a good citizen, except by indirection. I know the dynamic force of the shrilling fife and throbbing drum. Hardly a youth can resist the call to arms; and his feet must beat with measured tread as the boys march down the street. Nations rise to ecstasies of enthusiasm at the intoning of their great hymns, and armies sweep forward to victory or to death. This religious fervor was born years earlier, when, in the schoolrooms of childhood, they stood together and sang, "My Country, 'tis of thee;" then reached forward children's hands and reverently repeated, "I pledge allegiance to the flag of the United States." The hymns of this nation, our national airs, they are a secret force which runs through all its parts, even to the islands of the sea, uniting us all into one people, undivided and indivisible, America, the beautiful.

Men rarely realize the place music has achieved in the business of the world. I am told that today it takes third place among the professions. And this statement is not intended to include those who publish, manufacture, and sell musical merchandise; it includes only those who are engaged in producing music for pay. Had any boy or girl said fifty years ago that he or she had chosen music as a profession, that youth would have been a subject for paternal disquietude. As well expect to earn a living by fishing as by fiddling. Old King Cole might need his fiddlers three, but most communities could use but one, and it was a seasonal occupation even for the one.

Today in Minneapolis, with its population of 435,000, there is a vast host earning money with their musical skill, in our great symphony orchestra, and many smaller orchestras in our show and picture houses, dinner orchestras, dance orchestras, radio orchestras; singers in theaters and churches, teachers of music, seven hundred thirty of them, altogether thousands, more than the lawyers, than the doctors, the dentists, the school teachers. The apprentices for the practice of music are taught in our schools; and many step right out from school into very attractive places— attractive if only earnings are considered, but delightful, too, because here men may do what they like best to do.

For some reason music was not included among the fundamental skills. The honored trilogy is too sacred to be lightly profaned by a trivial subject. Born of good New England stock, reading, writing, and 'rithmetic were early accepted as worthy a position in good society; but what contribution could music make to the immortal three? It could not increase a bank account and had a doubtful place in the worship of God. For either worthy object it was yet a hazard; our elders played safe and found no place for music. Yet it will be interesting for a few minutes to consider the help music brings to the ruling three. Many persons have never suspected that music had any contribution to make to this powerful triumvirate.

There was a time when some of us foolish classicists believed in the transfer of training, and it needed no courage to affirm that the study of Greek, Latin, and mathematics had made some contribution to the powers of the giants of elder days. Then there came along a group of iconoclasts, and our idols fell down with a crash. There was no such thing as formal discipline or transfer of training. A boy might by a rapid elimination classify a Latin word as a noun in the ablative of means, but that ability would give him no help in classifying a fraction as improper or placing a bird in the hawk family. Some enthusiasts went so far as to infer that a girl might be very neat in caring for her hands but would not wash the dinner dishes any better for that. Sometimes the correlation was negative; and the implication was that she who washes dishes best must ever have soiled hands. However, the noise of that battle has died away; and though the explanation of how transfer occurs has not been settled to the satisfaction of the belligerents, the fact that it does occur in greater or smaller degree has been accepted by most persons. And the principle which is now most invoked to explain transfer is that when activities have in them similar elements, they make mutual contributions to power.

And what has this to do with music? Just this: many of the activities of the mind in learning to sing are the same as those used in learning to read. May I briefly speak of the technic used in teaching music? All children go to kindergarten. One of their principal activities is singing. They love it; and they learn many beautiful songs. They organize, too, their children's orchestras; to older people these little players give much pleasure, but for themselves, the performers, they are real orchestras and the source of unbounded joy. Through the first grade they sing along, gather-

ing a large repertoire of lovely melodies, and gaining a real appreciation of sweet tones and swinging rhythm. And so into the second grade they come singing. By this time certain "pattern songs" are just as familiar as "The Little Red Hen" or "Mother Goose." In exactly the same way as words and phrases are learned as signs of objects and actions, black notes in certain places stand for the tones they have been singing. Only fifteen minutes a day are given to study of music in the beginning and this gains only five minutes in the next four years. It is easier to learn to read music than to read words; in the modern way both are good fun.

In another way the study of music assists children to read words. It is not so long since a child read new stories much as if pronouncing words in a spelling lesson. Today he is taught to see groups of words together, and he says them together in phrases or even sentences. In modern music teaching, too, he is compelled to see ahead and sing phrases. The class never stops; it keeps going. There must be the same eye span in music as in literature. To stop to pronounce single words or to sing individual tones is as ruinous to good reading as to good singing. Oh, surely there are hard words as there are hard intervals; but in both cases the pupils can generally dig them out. Power is gained in both by doing it themselves; weakness is confirmed when a teacher does it for them.

As early as the second grade children sing alone. A teacher might just as well assume that each pupil knows the multiplication table when a class chants it in unison, as to assume that each individual can sing a line when all together can do it. Independence and sureness can be gained only by individual singing; and independence is essential to part singing and instrumental playing. In the fifth grade two-part music is taken up, and school orchestras begin to appear in this and the grade following. All the way along children become accustomed to hear their own voices; there is no more consciousness of self-singing than of self-speaking. Timid mousies disappear; natural children, unconscious at school as at home, sing and speak without hesitation and without fear.

Music for a short period each day is study, not recreation. The mind must be bent to its task. The power to shut out all the world beside, and attend to the present task, is not ephemeral; it persists. Memory is developed; not alone memory of musical phrases, but when on the fourth time through a new piece books are closed, and both words and music of simple melodies are repeated, shall we say there is no gain in ability to hold in memory fragments of loveliness, whether of tone or of words?

What I have been trying to say for the last four minutes is that music worked with, not played with, makes a real contribution to mental strength. Fear of self is cast far away and independence is established; and instead of opening a path flower bordered and perfumed leading toward sentimental weakness, music is offering an exercise of unrecognized importance leading on to intellectual power.

The instructor in harmony in our high schools took all the pupils in the music course for two years, seven hundred of them, and an equal number

of pupils as they came in other courses. The music students had eighteen percent of all marks "A" and three percent of all marks "F." The other group ran ten percent "A's" and seven percent "F's." I know that this does not completely establish the value of music training, but it corroborates the judgment of the sage of Cambridge, Charles W. Eliot, who said that "Music is the best mind trainer on the list." And the judgment of Gladstone: "Music is one of the most forcible instruments for training, for arousing and governing the mind and spirit of man."

Where shall music be found? and where is her place in education? A lovely maiden, serving unobserved and without mention is music, to build up a mind with power, concentrated on its task, freed from trembling fear, achieving a life of rich significance.

And yet as surely as man thinking is not the whole man, so surely have we mentioned but a fraction of the function of music. Music makes its greatest contribution to a life of rich significance not through training the intellect, but through refining the soul of man. And to refine the soul, it must come frequently under the lovely spell of music. Music is not so much a thing to be explained and talked about, as a thing to be exposed to. Man loves not because he knows; man loves because he has been exposed to beauty, whether it be a simple flower, a lovely woman, a haunting melody. And as the object of his love is beautiful, so his soul assumes the beauty it looks upon. We break the bleak walls of our schoolrooms with beautiful pictures, we read from school books the world's rich literature, we sing the great songs of all nations. And under the magic spell of words, of color, of tone, the souls of children reach out and up into regions of beauty, and at each excursion into this bright realm they bring back rich treasures that can never be taken away.

Men are truly what they are in their leisure time. During the day forty-five million of us leave our homes to be slaves, not unwilling slaves, to duty. In field or shop, in the street or school, each assumes his place among the ranks of those who toil. His commander may be a superintendent or it may be his job. He is not free. But when labor is past, the day deepens into night, and the lights of the city begin to gleam, most men are free. What do they do? Then they tell what manner of man they are. Lovers of light or lovers of darkness? Schools are answering this question. One out of ten in some of our high schools is in our orchestras (not by compulsion, but by choice); two out of three are singing in great choruses. We believe that just as surely as the number of youth upon the tennis courts and golf links is increasing because of the new joy found in gymnasiums and on athletic fields, so certainly the number found playing and singing just for pleasure is growing to a host. Mother at the piano and, beside her, brother or sister with violin or saxophone, is the surest protection against a wasted life I know. In my boyhood I saw others spend their evenings at the livery stable; but a cornet, a piano, and a flute called Gib and Jennie and me away from smut and nastiness to beauty and sweetness. And millions in thousands of little homes are tonight having a

good time, safe with music. And as youth grows to manhood and new homes are set up, musical instruments are as necessary as dishpans and brooms. Little children come into these homes of beauty, and they can know fathers and mothers because some still live at home; and these young lives are moulded by the music they hear. A fine form of insurance against moral bankruptcy is a musical instrument. Those are trying days when sister plays her scales and brother sobs on a saxophone; but the noise of it is not so distressing as the voice of the police matron announcing that son or daughter is at the station. Which premium will men pay and what annuity have they purchased? Worthy home membership is one of the sacred seven; and no study of budgets and calories brings so sure a contribution to a life of rich significance in the home as does the gentle power of music.

All are truly grateful for the change in character of the music offered in theaters and to radio audiences. The finest artists in the world sing to us and play for us, and homes become places of joy to millions every evening. Loveliness is surely winning against ugliness and vulgarity. Yet better though the music be, in the indiscriminate mixture of bad and good, progress of the unlearned toward an appreciation of beauty and refinement must be accelerated by the schools. Appreciation of what is good and disgust for what is common must be one objective. Only good music should be found in our books; but even among the good there is a choice. The heart of a child is true, and his preference is seldom wrong. And these finer things of his choice should be sung over and over. They become the touchstones by which all other music is tested and the child becomes an unerring critic. It would be very difficult for any of us older ones to tell what good music is; we do not define, we just know and love.

And while we love a miracle is wrought. One day I went to one of our high schools. I was taken around behind the stage, and stood in the wings. The room was dark, except for the lights on two music racks and a piano lamp. Two girls and a boy were playing a charming trio. No other persons were on the stage. No one seemed in charge, and yet not one of the two thousand students moved or made a sound. The spell of beauty was over them, and behavior was as lovely as the music. This could never have been, had they been soused in jazz; but beauty begets refinement, and refinement is the mother of self-control.

But be ye doers of the word, not hearers only; then you shall know the truth. We have been thrilled by the singing here tonight. We are to hear an orchestra of artists chosen from all the states, woven into a nation's chorus! that single thought lifts us to a passion for country. But what we hearers feel is but a spark beside the glow of emotion which fires the souls of these boys and girls. And day after day in the great high schools of this nation youth is carried away on wings of song to nobler ambitions and desires. At Christmas time through the corridors of our schools, children go singing. On every national holiday, millions of boys and girls sing their devotion to country. Orchestras of one hundred pieces, with balanced

choirs, interpret the greatest compositions of every nation. As they play and as they sing, each feels the emotion of the whole swaying group, combined and amplified in self. His whole body creeps and trembles, as the great chorus sweeps forward to its triumphant hymn of joy. To listen to a great symphony lifts the hearer above the muck and mire of earth; but to be a part of a great orchestra or chorus carries each performer far into heaven's heights. Appreciation comes to its complete flower in participation.

And while he performs, whether singing in chorus or playing in the orchestra, something beyond appreciation of music slowly enters his mind—he alone is not making this music. It is a cooperative matter. We name always the lesson of cooperation, when we speak of the value of athletics. He is a poor captain indeed who gives all his plays to a friend or to himself. Nor should the backfield attribute the success of the team entirely to their plunging prowess. It is the line that makes possible their progress; it is the submission of the individual for the good of the whole that brings victory. Better than athletics is music for establishing the subordination of each to all. Piccolo must join the trombone, clarinet must assist the violin, else the great symphony cannot be performed. Nor shall brass beat down wood winds, or drums overpower the strings, but all together, in intelligent submission to the leader, make up the trembling harmony. Solos must sometimes be sung, but how barren when unsupported by chorus or orchestra. Among our people there must be leaders, peaks rising above the level plains; yet we should never forget that democracy swings forward only when supported by the deep diapason of all humanity.

Recently I heard of a wise father who said to each son as he left home for college, "Son, I know what you will do when you are alone, and I have no fear. But what will you do in a crowd?" No individual could steal away his judgment, but the crowd! Shall we forever resign all the powerful influences of masses to the kingdom of darkness? Schools should sing their school songs, their national songs, their great religious hymns, the finest music of all nations. In America, the benevolent, all peoples of the earth have come together, bringing with them the noblest expressions of their race. In this strange land how they are thrilled by some familiar strain from Rossini, Sibelius, Grieg, Chopin, Brahms, Franck. Pietro and Erick, Francois and Johann, Jack and Pavlov forget traditions. In the great school chorus, the world melts into one, one singing. What we long for, that we are for one transcendent moment, nor shall we ever forget. The intangibles are the realities; the things which are not seen, they are eternal. And as surely as man has builded a machine which amplifies an infinitesimal whisper until it fills millions of homes, there will float mysteriously from deep down in infinite space some day another angel's song of peace and brotherhood, wrought into sweeping unison by the power of music, a world singing. Where shall music be found? and where is the place of sweet harmony? Everywhere; for man will call for her, wherever he strives to achieve a life of rich significance.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

DALLAS, TEXAS, FEBRUARY 26-MARCH 3, 1927

OFFICERS

President, RANDALL J. CONDON, Superintendent of Schools.....Cincinnati, Ohio
First Vice-president, FRANK W. BALLOU, Superintendent of Schools.....Washington, D. C.
Second Vice-President, DAVID A. WARD, Superintendent of Schools.....Wilmington, Del.
Executive Secretary, SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND....1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

FRANK D. BOYNTON, Superintendent of Schools (term expires 1927).....Ithaca, N. Y.
M. G. CLARK, Superintendent of Schools (term expires 1928).....Sioux City, Iowa
NORMAN R. CROZIER, Superintendent of Schools (term expires 1929).....Dallas, Texas
E. E. LEWIS, Professor of School Administration, Ohio State University (term expires 1930)
Columbus, Ohio

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

February 26

The fifty-seventh annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence opened Saturday afternoon, February 26, 1927, at 2:00 o'clock with a formal program opening the exhibits at the Fair Park Exhibit Hall. Frank Bruce, American School Board Journal, Milwaukee, Wisconsin, presided, and President Randall J. Condon delivered the opening address.

February 27

The annual Vesper Service was held Sunday afternoon, February 27, at 3:30 o'clock in McFarlin Auditorium, Southern Methodist University. This was followed Sunday evening with an organ recital by Palmer Christian of Ann Arbor, Mich. All other general sessions of the Department were held in the Fair Park Auditorium.

February 28

After the convention had been called to order Monday morning, Norman R. Crozier, superintendent of schools, Dallas, Texas, presented a gavel to President Randall J. Condon. The president announced the appointment of the Committee on Resolutions and the Board of Tellers. He stated that the general theme of the convention was *Ideals, Character, Citizenship, and National Unity*.

March 1

At the business session on Tuesday morning, committee reports were presented by Edwin C. Broome, chairman, for the Commission on the Curriculum; Herbert S. Weet, chairman, for the Committee on the Articulation of the Units of the American School System; Charles H. Judd, chairman, for the Committee on Materials of Instruction; George Wheeler for the Auditing Committee; E. E. Lewis for the Executive Committee.

Nominations for officers were made as follows: For President, M. G. Clark, superintendent of schools, Sioux City, Iowa, and J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, San Francisco, California. For second vice-president, Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, New York, and D. E. Wiedman, superintendent of schools, Bellingham, Washington. For member of the Executive Committee for four years, Frank M. Underwood, district superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Missouri, and David A. Ward, superintendent of schools, Wilmington, Delaware.

Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, New York, called attention to the proposal made at the Washington Convention one year ago, that Article 3 of the by-laws be amended to read as follows:

The dues of this Department shall be \$5 per year for both active and associate members, and shall be paid annually to the Executive Secretary. In lieu of said annual dues, a six-year membership shall be issued by the Executive Secretary to any active or associate member upon the payment of \$25 in advance.

On motion of Mr. Boynton, the amendment was adopted.

March 2

Chairman M. E. Pearson presented the report of the Board of Tellers which was as follows:

Dallas, Texas, March 2, 1927

To Randall J. Condon, President of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association.

We hereby certify that the election of officers for the Department of Superintendence held this day was conducted in accordance with the Constitution and by-laws and that the following persons were elected to the offices named:

President: J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, San Francisco, California.

Second Vice-president: Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, New York.

Member of Executive Committee for four years: Frank M. Underwood, district superintendent of schools, St. Louis, Missouri.

Respectfully submitted,

M. E. PEARSON, *Chairman*

M. H. MOORE

FRED S. SHEPHERD

E. C. FISHER

J. A. KOONTZ

E. E. LEWIS

March 3

At the morning session, on motion of Superintendent M. G. Clark of Sioux City, the election of Superintendent J. M. Gwinn as president of the Department was made unanimous. Mr. Clark was appointed to escort Mr. Gwinn to the stage. In response to words of greeting from President Condon, Mr. Gwinn replied in part as follows:

I appreciate very much the high honor that has come to me, and I feel that as we look forward in the year ahead, we shall find many great problems confronting the schools of America which need our attention. Some of these problems will be more apparent to you than to me, and I am inviting you now to send to me any suggestions in reference to the program of our future work.

I wish to say that I feel it was more the desire of the members of the Department to keep Mr. Clark on the Executive Committee another year than to have me as President that caused a few more of you to vote for me than for Mr. Clark, because had you made Mr. Clark the President you would have lost his services on the Executive Committee, and by making me the President you retain his services on the Executive Committee, so that the Department will have the counsel, the advice and the wisdom that he can give. I appreciate very much his generosity, and I thank you for your support and pledge my best endeavor to make the program next year as good as can be made.

At the afternoon session, committee reports were presented by Frank W. Ballou, chairman, for the Commission on Economy and Efficiency in the Business Administration of School Systems; William M. Davidson, chairman, for the Legislative Commission; Richard O. Stoops, chairman, for the Committee on Uniform Records and Reports.

At the conclusion of the address by Frank D. Boynton on "Again the Open Door in Education," it was voted to request the Research Division of the National Education Association to prepare a study on the problems presented in the address.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was presented by J. M. Gwinn, superintendent of schools, San Francisco, California. One member recorded his vote against Section 7 of the report. The other sections were adopted unanimously. The final business meeting then adjourned.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

Adopted March 3, 1927

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

PHILANDER P. CLAXTON, *Chairman*, Superintendent of Schools.....Tulsa, Okla.
MAY TRUMPER, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.....Helena, Mont.
ISAAC O. WINSLOW, Superintendent of Schools.....Providence, R. I.
J. G. COLLICOTT, Superintendent of Schools.....Columbus, Ohio
LIDA LEE TALL, Principal, Maryland State Normal School.....Towson, Md.
LOUIS P. BENEZET, Superintendent of Schools.....Manchester, N. H.
SUE M. POWERS, Superintendent of Shelby County Schools.....Memphis, Tenn.
J. M. GWINN, Superintendent of Schools.....San Francisco, Calif.
C. H. GARWOOD, Superintendent of Schools.....Harrisburg, Pa.

1. The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association of the United States, assembled in its fifty-seventh annual convention, reaffirms its faith in American democracy and in the free American public school, which makes possible the continuance of that democracy and gives to the great body of American people the power to readjust themselves to ever-changing conditions of industrial, social and civic life, to create new standards for new conditions, to preserve their inalienable rights of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness, and to obtain for themselves ever larger measures of freedom and spiritual wealth. It would warn against any tendency toward the return to that limited form of education which has for its purpose only, or mainly, the formation of habits that fit for specific conditions and duties in a static society rather than for intelligent and courageous participation in the great adventure of life in freedom and democracy.

We hold with the patriotic president of Texas, Mirabeau B. Lamar, that a "cultivated mind is the guardian genius of democracy, and while guided and controlled by virtue, is the noblest attribute of man. It is the only dictator that freemen acknowledge and the only security that freemen desire."

2. We recognize the equal right of all children, regardless of wealth, social position, native ability, and all other conditions, to full and free opportunity for the kind and degree of education which will insure their best and fullest individual development, and fit them most perfectly for the duties and responsibilities of individual, social, civic, and spiritual life. Therefore, we commend the increasing efforts of boards of education and administrative officials to adapt school organization, courses of study and methods of teaching to the varying needs of children. We recommend and urge the hearty support, financial and otherwise, of the scientific research whose aim is to discover the means by which teachers and administrative officers may determine more readily and accurately the educational possibilities and needs of individual children.

We also welcome the widespread interest in the readjustment of courses of study in schools of all grades to meet more perfectly the abilities and interests of children and the demands of society; and, both for economy and efficiency, would recommend the closest possible cooperation of the various agencies at work at the task of curriculum making.

3. Policies of administration, forms of organization and courses of study all depend for their results on the life-giving work of teachers in the classroom. We urge, therefore, that in the employment of teachers only their fitness for the position sought be considered, that teachers be given large freedom in their work, and that such salaries be paid them as will make possible the achievement of the highest standards of personality, educational preparation and professional skill. Superior teaching service should be rewarded by proper recognition and salary to the end that teachers may be placed and retained in those positions where they can render their highest and best service.

4. The enlarged program of education demanded by the present and the future is necessarily more costly than the programs of earlier years. But we would call attention to the fact that right education of all the people has a direct relation to material wealth. It is through the vision, scientific knowledge, technical skill, and business ability produced by such education that the resources of the country are developed and potential wealth turned into actual wealth. No people ever became poorer by thus preparing themselves for the effective use of their capital of time, energy, resources, and money. It is very largely because of our generous expenditures for education that our unprecedented wealth and wealth-producing power have been gained. We would, therefore, urge the adequate support of all sound and well-considered programs of public education as investments sure of satisfactory financial returns as well as of the more important returns in good citizenship and in cultural and spiritual wealth.

5. That children of rural districts and of towns and cities of less wealth

may not lack essential opportunity for education that will enable them to live and serve as well as those who are fortunate enough to be reared in wealthier communities, we repeat our former recommendation that a large portion of the support of schools be assumed by the larger units of county and state. That taxation for education may be more evenly and justly distributed, we recommend careful study of the principles of taxation and the progressive adoption of modern, equitable, and scientific methods of obtaining revenues for the support of schools.

6. We recognize that under our form of government responsibility for the support and administration of education rests with the states. In order that they may more fully and effectively meet this responsibility, state and county school administration should be kept free from partisan and factional politics. We believe this can be accomplished best through rightly constituted state and county boards of education with administrative officials selected by and responsible to these boards. The wisdom and effectiveness of this policy have been demonstrated in city school administration. We recommend its adoption in all school administrative units, whether state, county or other units.

7. The development of our American program of education is dependent upon the contribution made by the several states and localities which make up the nation. The federal government has long accepted the responsibility for conducting inquiries and disseminating information in support of the programs which are controlled and administered locally. We believe that further progress in education throughout the nation is dependent upon scientific inquiry which should be conducted by the national government and the results of which should be made available to all who work in education. We believe that this most important function can be best carried out by the establishment of a Department of Education, with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. We pledge our aggressive support to the Curtis-Reed Bill, which is now before Congress and which provides for the establishment of a Department of Education and for the more adequate support of scientific research in education under the direction of a Secretary of Education.

8. We recognize the great service which the United States Bureau of Education, with meager financial support, renders the cause of education in so many fields. Until some better agency for this service has been established by Congress, we urge such appropriations for this Bureau as will enable it to perform effectively the great and important functions for which it was created.

9. We commend the work of the Commission on the Curriculum and particularly the Yearbook on the Junior High School as a conspicuous example of a type of cooperative professional service that we are glad to see our profession rendering to its members and to public education.

10. Realizing that interruptions of the work of the pupils in pursuit of the regularly constituted courses of study greatly interfere with the cumulating efficiency arising from continuity of effort, we therefore look with great disfavor upon all attempts by outside agencies to exploit the pupils

through the introduction into the program of the schools of materials and activities not organically related to the regularly constituted courses of study and the legitimate purposes of the schools.

11. We heartily commend the cooperative national, state and local observance of American Education Week as a means of stimulating and uniting the interests of pupils, teachers and parents in the advancement and support of public education throughout the nation.

12. We would record our full appreciation of the fine musical programs and art exhibits in connection with this convention. They are good evidence that we are rightly coming to regard music, art, and other similar subjects as fundamental in the education of American children. We recommend that they be given everywhere equal consideration and support with other basic subjects.

13. As a further means of securing to country children opportunities of education more nearly equal to those of city children, we recommend the extension of the policy of well-planned continuous programs of school consolidation.

14. We reiterate our approval of all just and effective legislation to prevent the exploitation of children for commercial profit, and to make possible their full participation in all the opportunities offered for their education.

15. From time to time university presidents, school superintendents and other educational executives are called upon to take a stand for what they know to be right and necessary for education in the face of hostile political and partisan activity. We commend the members of our profession who have had the courage to undergo this sacrifice, convinced that public opinion, through their efforts, will ultimately realize the necessity for protecting against every selfish interest those who are working for the youth of the nation and for the fundamental principles and policies of public education.

16. Finally we recommend and urge that a worthwhile health program be carried on throughout the country, emphasizing in particular personal hygiene and the evil effects of narcotics and alcoholic beverages, that character building be recognized as a fundamental objective in all parts of the school program to the end that the youth of the land shall be strengthened in all moral and spiritual values; that respect for law and order and a sense of personal civic responsibility be encouraged in all schools; and that a happy and helpful attitude of tolerance be inculcated to the end that American youth shall be imbued with the spirit of worldwide brotherhood, peace and progress.

17. To the state of Texas, to the Governor, to the city of Dallas and its citizens, to the schools, their officials, their teachers and their pupils, to the churches, to the public press, and to the many organizations that have given of their best efforts in our behalf, we render cordial thanks for the delightful hospitality and efficient management that have made this fifty-seventh annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence a notable success.

The Department of Teachers Colleges
American Association of Teachers Colleges

THE DEPARTMENT OF TEACHERS COLLEGES takes the place of the Department of Normal Schools, which was formed at the Cleveland meeting, August 19, 1870, by a reorganization of the American Normal School Association, which had been organized in 1858. See *Proceedings*, 1870:176; 1906:524. In 1924 it was voted to appoint a committee to discuss the possibility of combining with the American Association of Teachers Colleges. See *Proceedings*, 1924:614. In 1925 the combination was effected. It was arranged that the National Education Association would take over the publications of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, including its year-book, in 1926.

The officers of this Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Dwight B. Waldo, President, Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Mich.; *First Vice-president*, Victor L. Roy, President, Louisiana State Normal College, Natchitoches, La.; *Second Vice-president*, C. L. Phelps, President, State Teachers College, Santa Barbara, Calif.; *Third Vice-president*, T. T. Allen, President, State Normal School, East Stroudsburg, Pa.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, W. P. Morgan, President, Western State Teachers College, Macomb, Ill.

1870: 1- 88	1885:223-248	1896:642-666	1906:707-711	1917: 383-417
1873:164-199	1886:389-423	1897:709-736	1907:739-759	1918: 209-235
1874:214-254	1887:467-604	1898:728-757	1908:703-739	1919: 221-259
1875:138-153	1888:465-515	1899:835-904	1909:547-597	1920: 237-263
1876:157-211	1889:557-613	1900:480-491	1910:563-595	1921: 515
1877:139-174	1890:717-759	1901:635-646	1911:695-709	1922:1063-1085
1879:113-135	1891:709-741	1902:529-649	1912:809-897	1923: 737-744
1880:176-193	1892:407-435	1903:539-595	1913:523-553	1924: 613-637
1881:199-218	1894:819-871	1904:567-593	1914:497-565	1925: 863
1882:173-181	1895:672-718	1905:517-557	1915:763-815	1926: 838-947
1884:236-258				

MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES AT DALLAS, TEXAS, FEBRUARY 24 AND 25, 1927

Program

FRIDAY AFTERNOON—2:00 OCLOCK

New Curricula for the Teacher-Training Colleges of Pennsylvania, J. LINWOOD EISENBERG, Principal of State Normal School, Slippery Rock, Pennsylvania.

Discussion—G. H. BLACK, President of Washington State Normal School, Ellensburg, Washington; W. J. BANKES, Dean of College of Education, Municipal University, Akron, Ohio.

Content of Subject-Matter in College Courses for Students Preparing to Teach in the Secondary Schools as Influenced by the Curricula in the Secondary Schools, A. LINSCHIED, President of East Central State Teachers College, Ada, Oklahoma.

Discussion—ROBERT J. WRIGHT, President of East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina; C. L. PHELPS, President of State Teachers College of Santa Barbara, Santa Barbara, California.

Diagnostic and Remedial Requirements by the Department of Education for Entrants to Teachers Colleges in Ohio, WALTER SCRIBNER GUILER, Teachers College, Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

Reports—

a. Secretary-Treasurer W. P. MORGAN, Macomb, Illinois.

b. American Council of Social Studies, H. B. WILLIAMS, Bowling Green, Ohio.

The first session was called to order Friday afternoon at 2:10 and the meeting was opened by prayer by Dean Minnich, president. About 100 were present at this time and the program as printed above was given, with the exception of the response by President Wright, of the Teachers College at Greenville, North Carolina, whose place was filled by Professor Henderson, of the faculty of that institution. President Phelps, of Santa Barbara, was ill and was not able to take part in the discussion.

FRIDAY EVENING—6:30 P. M.

BANQUET PROGRAM—PALM GARDEN

Guests of the Association—Francis G. Blair and Randall J. Condon

Music—by Department of Music, North Texas State Teachers College, Denton, Texas, R. L. MARQUIS, President.

President's Address—The American Association—Need—Unanimity—Solidarity, H. C. MINNICH, Dean of Teachers College of Miami University, Oxford, Ohio.

Unique Opportunities of Professional Schools, W. S. GRAY, Dean of School of Education, University of Chicago.

Selection and Training of Persons for Appointment to Positions on the Administrational and Instructional Staffs of Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges, AMBROSE L. SUHRIE, Professor of Teachers College and Normal School Education, School of Education, New York University.

Suggestions Relative to the Declaration of Achievements and Services of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, BRUCE R. PAYNE, President of George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.

Reports—

- a. Committee on Cooperation with Bureau of Education, J. A. H. KEITH, Indiana, Pennsylvania.
- b. Committee on Subvention for Research Work in Teachers College, D. B. WALDO, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

The report of the secretary-treasurer was approved and a committee composed of the president, secretary and L. N. Hines, of Terre Haute, Indiana; Homer E. Cooper, of the state normal school of Richmond, Kentucky, and George E. Martin, of Kearney, Nebraska, was appointed to report on the recommendations of the secretary at the Saturday morning meeting.

A motion carried that the secretary send a telegram to John A. H. Keith expressing the congratulations of the Association on his election to the State Superintendency of Pennsylvania. Just before the session closed President Marquis, of Denton, Texas, invited all members of the Association to take an automobile ride to Fort Worth and Denton on Sunday, February 27, starting at 9:00 oclock and returning at 6:00. 106 members took the trip.

The Friday evening meeting began on time and was carried out according to the program, which is printed above.

Superintendent Blair of Illinois, was unable to attend the entire session and excused himself early. Superintendent Condon, of Arizona, was unable to be present at the beginning, but came later. Joy Elmer Morgan, Editor of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, was present and responded when introduced to the Association. President John A. H. Keith was unable to be present, but sent his report. It will appear in the yearbook.

Following this D. B. Waldo made his report of the committee of subvention for research work in teachers colleges. It will appear in the yearbook. Following his report the motion was made and carried that the committee be continued.

SATURDAY MORNING—9:00 OCLOCK

The Report of the Committee on Standards and Surveys, E. S. EVENDEN, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, Presiding.

Training and Status of the Training-School Teachers, NOBLE LEE GARRISON, Director of Elementary Education, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan.

Present Practices and Standards in Financial Accounting for Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges, G. W. FRASIER, President of Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado.

Report of Committee on American Council on Education, E. L. HENDRICKS, President of Central Missouri State Teachers College, Warrensburg, Missouri.

Saturday morning's session met as scheduled and the program as printed above was presented with the exception of President Frasier's address, which was omitted because of his absence. However a proposed study of teachers college libraries was presented by George W. Rosenlof, of the Teachers College of the University of Nebraska.

After Dr. Garrison's paper was presented a motion was made and carried to have it mimeographed and mailed to the members.

Earl Rugg, of Greeley, Colorado, discussed a report that he is going to propose on standards in use in the teachers colleges. This appears in the Yearbook.

A committee on declaration of achievements and services of the teachers colleges in the American Association was provided and appointed as follows: Chairman, Bruce Payne, of Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee; additional members, E. L. Hendricks, of Warrensburg, Missouri; J. L. Jarman, of Farmville, Virginia; J. G. Riggs, of Oswego, New York, and G. H. Black, of Ellensburg, Washington.

A committee on nominations, composed of G. H. Black, of Ellensburg, Washington; R. Elliot, of Chadron, Nebraska, and R. L. Marquis, of Denton, Texas, was appointed.

SATURDAY AFTERNOON—2:00 OCLOCK

The Teaching Profession, Leadership and Responsibility, GEORGE F. ARPS, Dean of the College of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

The Washington Tentative Standards, H. A. BROWN, President of State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wisconsin, Presiding.

Report of the Committee on Accrediting and Classification, H. W. ROCKWELL, Principal of Normal School, Buffalo, New York., Presiding.

Election of Officers

Unfinished Business

President George Martin of Kearney, Nebraska, chairman of a special committee to report on the secretary-treasurer's recommendations, reported as follows: I recommend that the following institutions be dropped from the membership for non-payment of dues: Albion, Idaho; Hyannis, Massachusetts; Fredonia, New York; and that the request of the following institutions to be dropped from membership be allowed: Danbury, Connecticut; Worcester, Massachusetts; and Clemson Agricultural College at Clemson College, South Carolina. Also that the teachers college at Fresno, California, be refused reinstatement, although it has paid its dues for 1926-27, unless it pay the dues for the two preceding years, and that the fee accepted for the current year be returned unless the back dues are paid. It was also recommended that the secretary-treasurer be requested to notify by registered letter with return cards on December 1 of each year all delinquent members of the Association and report to the Association all that have not removed this delinquency by January 1, following. It was further recommended that the member institutions be requested to pay one-half a year's dues, \$2.50, to satisfy their dues up to January 1, 1928, and that thereafter the year for collecting their dues be from January 1 to December 31. It was further recommended that the secretary-treasurer be authorized to send each member institution one copy of the yearbook annually. All of the recommendations were approved by a vote of the Association. The program was then given, as printed on the preceding page.

President H. A. Brown, of Oshkosh, Wisconsin, and Principal H. W. Rockwell, of Buffalo, New York, were absent. Dr. Evenden, of Teachers College, Columbia University, presided during the discussion of the Washington tentative standards and introduced Marion E. McDonald, of Teachers College, Columbia University, who gave an address on "A Critical Study of Psychology in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools." President Charles McKenny, of Ypsilanti, Michigan, read Principal Rockwell's paper.

The nominating committee then presented the following nominations: President Dwight B. Waldo, State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Michigan, President; President Victor L. Roy, Natchitoches, Louisiana, First Vice-President; President C. L. Phelps, of Santa Barbara, California, Second Vice-President; President T. T. Allen, of East Stroudsburg, Pennsylvania, Third Vice-President; E. S. Evenden, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, member of committee on standards and surveys; Shelton Phelps, of Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee, and Noble L. Garrison, of Ypsilanti, Michigan, delegates to the American Council on Education; President Charles McKenny, of Ypsilanti, Michigan, chairman of the committee on accrediting and classification; President Bruce R. Payne, of George Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee, representative to cooperate with the United States Commissioner of Education; President H. B. Williams, of Bowling Green, Ohio, member of the board of directors

of National Council for the Social Studies; Dean W. J. Banks, of Akron, Ohio, H. G. Bennett, of Durant, Oklahoma, and U. S. Conn, of Wayne, Nebraska, committee on subvention for research.

The report of the committee was unanimously adopted.

During the report of the committee on standards and surveys Dr. Evenden presented the following standard:

Living Conditions of Students

A. Each teachers college shall make definite provisions to insure for its students living conditions which provide proper safeguards for health, morals, and mental efficiency and shall promote a responsible type of citizenship and leadership on the part of individuals.

B. When dormitories are maintained these shall be of safe construction, shall be kept in wholesome sanitary condition, and shall be under responsible supervision.

After considerable discussion these standards were adopted. Dr. Evenden then proposed the following revision of section 14 in the former standards, to be known as No. 15:

XV. Classification of Colleges

A. Any teachers college which completely meets these requirements shall be designated as a Class A College, provided that until September, 1929, it may fail to meet three of these standards; until September, 1930, it may fail to meet two of them and until September, 1931, it may fail to meet one of them, and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class A College provided, however, that it shall always meet the definition set up for a teachers college in I of these standards. (Any subdivision of a numbered section indicated by a letter shall be regarded as a standard except where it is a recommendation only).

B. Any teachers college which fails to conform to not more than two of these standards shall be designated as a Class B College provided that until September, 1929, it may fail to meet five of these standards, until September, 1930, it may fail to meet four of them and until September, 1931, it may fail to meet three of them and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class B College.

C. Any teachers college which fails to conform to Standards VA, VB, VIA, VIIA, VIIC, VIID, VIIE, VIIG and VIIIA shall be designated as a Class C College.

After some discussion these were adopted. It was then agreed that the first new standard should be called Roman IX and that each of the other standards in the former set should be moved up one number.

A motion to amend Article 7, Section D, to require 180 hours of practice teaching lost. A motion was then made that the committee on accrediting and classification report to each institution this year the particular standard which it fails to meet. This motion carried.

President Felmley of Normal Illinois made a motion that the matter of dealing with teachers of fifteen years or more of successful service who fall below the minimum standards be referred to the committee with a request that some plan be devised whereby such teachers may not be penalized by the standards. The motion carried.

President A. J. Matthews, of Tempe, Arizona, moved that such institutions as extended an invitation to be inspected by the committee on accrediting and classification have such inspection, to be given by the committee or its agents and that the expense be borne by the institution.

A motion of President L. N. Hines, of Terre Haute, Indiana, that copies of the corrected standards be sent to the institutions passed.

After the newly elected president had been introduced and expressed himself in fitting remarks the meeting adjourned.

SATURDAY EVENING—8:00 P. M.

Joint Meeting with State Departments of Education

S. M. N. MARRS, President of the Section of State Departments of Education, Austin, Texas, and

H. C. MINNICH, President of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, Presiding.

Topic—Judicious Control of Teacher-Training by State Departments of Education.

J. M. McCONNELL, Commissioner of Education, St. Paul, Minnesota.

BENJAMIN J. BURRIS, President of the Ball Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana.

Discussion—

J. C. MORRISON, Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education, Albany, New York.

W. F. BOND, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Jackson, Mississippi.

M. P. SHAWKEY, President of Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia.

A. J. MATTHEWS, President of Tempe Normal School, Tempe, Arizona.

LESTER S. IVINS, Kent State Teachers College, Kent, Ohio.

The joint meeting Saturday evening was carried out as printed above and the two addresses were given, one by J. M. McConnell, Commissioner of Education of St. Paul, Minnesota, and the other by B. J. Burris, of Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana. They are printed in the yearbook. Mr. McConnell was unable to be present, but his address was read.

STANDARDS FOR ACCREDITING TEACHERS COLLEGES

ADOPTED AT WASHINGTON, D. C., FEBRUARY 26, 1926. REVISED AT DALLAS, TEXAS, FEBRUARY 26, 1927

I. Definition of a Teachers College

A. A teachers college, within the meaning of these standards, is a state, municipal or incorporated private institution, or an independent unit of a recognized college or university, which has at least one four-year unified curriculum; which is devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers; which has legal authority to grant a standard bachelor's degree; which has granted and continues to grant such degree; and which requires for admission the completion of a standard four-year secondary school curriculum, or equivalent training approved by this Association.

B. A similar institution devoted exclusively to the preparation of teachers, which requires for admission the completion of a standard four-year secondary school curriculum, or equivalent training approved by this Association; which has a curriculum less than four years in length and does not have legal authority to grant a standard bachelor's degree; or which has a curriculum four years in length, but has not granted and does not grant a bachelor's degree, shall be designated as a normal school or a junior teachers college.

C. Normal schools and junior teachers colleges shall conform to the same standards as teachers colleges except as hereinafter specifically indicated.

II. Requirements for Admission

A. The quantitative requirements of admission to a teachers college accredited by this Association shall be at least fifteen units of secondary school work, or the equivalent. These units must represent work done in a secondary school approved by the state department of public instruction of the state in which the college is located, and must conform to the definitions of the various units as recommended by the state department of public instruction, or must be evidenced by the result of examinations.

Experienced teachers over twenty-five years of age may be admitted to a teachers college for such work as they are qualified to take, but before receiving a diploma or a degree they shall meet the full entrance requirement.

If the state department of public instruction maintains no accredited list of secondary schools or publishes no definitions of secondary school units, those of a regularly recognized accrediting agency shall be used.

B. Equivalence for entrance or secondary school work shall be determined only by regularly scheduled written examinations, which shall be of such

character as to satisfy the committee on admissions of the college that the applicant is fully prepared to do college work as hereinafter defined.

C. Experience in teaching shall in no case be accepted for entrance, or credit toward graduation, except supervised teaching in the training school.

III. Standards for Graduation

A. The quantitative requirement for graduation shall be the completion of at least one hundred twenty semester hours of credit, or the equivalent in term hours, quarter hours, points, majors or courses.

B. The requirement for graduation for a normal school or junior teachers college with a two-year curriculum shall be at least sixty semester hours or the equivalent; and for a normal school or junior teachers college with a three-year curriculum, at least ninety semester hours or the equivalent.

IV. Size of Faculty

A. There shall be a reasonable ratio of students to faculty in the college department, which shall be subjected to investigation to determine the proper ratio.

B. In the training school there shall be at least one training-school teacher for every eighteen college students, each of whom does ninety clock hours of student teaching.

V. Preparation of Faculty

A. The minimum scholastic requirement for teachers in the training school shall be graduation from a college of recognized standing, presumably evidenced by possession of a bachelor's degree or equivalent training. Six years after the date on which these standards take effect, the minimum scholastic requirement for all new training-school teachers shall be the same as for teachers in the college department.

Teachers who have been members of the faculty of the training school for not less than five years, and whose training is not equivalent to this requirement, may be considered to have equivalent training for six years after the date on which these standards take effect, provided that the president of the college submits a statement of their training and experience and files with the Committee on Accrediting and Classification a declaration that such members of the faculty are rendering service in their own teaching and in the supervision of student teaching which is of a superior quality as judged by the standards of the best public-school systems in the state in which the teachers college is located.

During this period of six years this declaration must be made annually and shall be based upon actual inspection of the teacher's work.

B. The minimum scholastic requirement for members of the faculty who give instruction in the college department shall be graduation from a college of recognized standing and additional training which shall include at least one year of study in their respective fields of teaching in a recognized

graduate school, or equivalent, and presumably possession of the master's degree. Members of the faculty who have served in their respective positions for not less than five years, and who do not meet this requirement, may be regarded as having done so for six years after the date on which these standards take effect, provided that the president of the college submits a statement of their training and experience and files a declaration that such members of the faculty are giving satisfactory instruction of college grade.

During this period of six years this declaration must be made annually until each such member of the faculty has secured the required training, and shall be based upon actual inspection of the work of such members of the faculty.

C. It is desirable that members of the faculty of the teachers college should possess training of a distinctly professional quality, which represents at least three years of study beyond the bachelor's degree, in a recognized graduate school, or corresponding professional or technological training. The effort of a teachers college to maintain a faculty of higher scholarly equipment than is required by the minimum standard, shall be held to constitute a strong presumption that superior work is being done. The proportion of members of the faculty which should be on the different levels of training above the first degree shall be subjected to immediate investigation.

VI. Teaching Load of Faculty

The following teaching loads shall be the maximum for a teachers college faculty: Sixteen clock hours per week, or the equivalent. Equivalence shall be based upon the ratio of one class period to one and one half class periods in shop and laboratory work, one to one and one quarter in physical education, and one to three quarters in English composition.

VII. Training School and Student Teaching

A. Each teachers college shall maintain a training school under its own control as a part of its organization, as a laboratory school, for purposes of observation, demonstration, and supervised teaching on the part of students. The use of an urban or rural school system, under sufficient control and supervision of the college to permit carrying out the educational policy of the college to a sufficient degree for the conduct of effective student teaching, will satisfy this requirement.

B. Student teaching shall be so organized as to lead to a proper initial mastery of the technic of teaching and, at the same time, protect the interests of the children in the training school.

C. No teacher in the training school, who is also responsible for a regular amount of supervision of student teaching, shall be required to have charge of more than forty children at any one time.

D. The minimum amount of student teaching required of every graduate of a teachers college shall be ninety hours of supervised teaching.

E. For every eighteen college students to be given ninety hours of student teaching, there shall be a minimum group of thirty children, either in the campus training school or in affiliated urban or rural schools under the supervision of the teaching college.

F. No training-school teacher shall supervise, in a year, the entire student teaching or more than eighteen college students, each of whom does ninety hours of student teaching, or an equivalent number of student teachers.

G. In the case of use of affiliated urban or rural schools for student-teaching purposes, when the degree of affiliation and control is restricted to such an extent that a teaching force of more limited training than is contemplated by these standards must be used, and which is not capable of effective supervision of student teaching, or which by the terms of the affiliation is not expected to do supervision of student teaching, there shall be one full-time supervisor of student teaching for every fifty student teachers, each of whom does ninety hours of student teaching. Such supervisors must possess the scholastic qualifications required of members of the faculty of the college department.

H. It is recommended that at least two-fifths of the teaching in the training school should be done by regular teachers of the training school or by other members of the faculty.

VIII. Organization of the Curriculum

A. The curriculum of the teachers' college must recognize definite requirements as regards sequences of courses. Senior college courses must not be open to freshmen who have not taken the prerequisites for these courses. Programs consisting mainly of freshmen and sophomore courses carrying full credit shall not be available for students in the junior and senior years. Coherent and progressive lines of study, leading to specific achievement within definite fields, must be a characteristic of the college curriculum.

Each teachers college must, therefore, adopt an organization of its curricula which will provide in the junior and senior years a sufficient number of advanced courses which require elementary courses as prerequisites, so that at least one-half of the work of a student in the junior and senior years shall consist of advanced courses open only to juniors and seniors.

B. In a normal school or junior teachers college with a three-year curriculum, one-half of the work of students in the last year shall consist of advanced courses to which freshmen are not admitted.

IX. Living Conditions of Students

A. Each teachers college shall make definite provisions to insure for its students living conditions which provide proper safeguards for health, morals, and mental efficiency and shall promote a responsible type of citizenship and leadership on the part of individuals.

B. When dormitories are maintained these shall be of safe construction, shall be kept in wholesome, sanitary condition, and shall be under responsible supervision.

X. Library, Laboratory and Shop Equipment

A. Each teachers college shall have a live, well-distributed and professionally administered library bearing specifically upon the subjects taught. At least fifteen thousand volumes, exclusive of public documents, are recommended as a minimum.

B. Each teachers college with less than five hundred students should have a definite annual appropriation for the purchase of new reference books and current periodicals, amounting to at least \$2500. Teachers colleges with five hundred to one thousand students should have a definite annual appropriation amounting to at least five dollars per student registered. Teachers colleges with larger enrolments should have an amount equal to at least four dollars per student. The foregoing is to be regarded as a recommendation rather than a requirement.

C. Each teachers college shall be provided with laboratory equipment sufficient for instructional purposes for each course offered.

D. Each teachers college must be provided with suitable shops and shop equipment for instructional purposes for each course offered, including gymnasiums for physical education; commercial equipment for courses in commerce; suitable kitchens, dining-rooms and laboratories for household arts and adequate farm buildings and demonstration farms for work in agriculture.

XI. Location, Construction and Sanitary Condition of Buildings

The location and construction of buildings, the lighting, heating, and ventilation of the rooms, the nature of the lavatories, corridors, closets, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, and method of cleaning, shall be such as to insure hygienic conditions for students and teachers.

XII. Limits of Registration of Students

A. No teachers college shall be placed on the accredited list, or continued on such list for more than one year, unless it has a regular registration of at least two hundred students of college grade.

B. A notably small proportion of students of college grade registered in the third and fourth years, continued over a period of several years, shall constitute grounds for dropping a teachers college from the accredited list. Fifteen percent of the enrolment of a teachers college should be in the junior and senior years.

C. A normal school or junior teachers college with a two-year curriculum must have an enrolment of at least sixty students of college grade, one-third of whom must be in the second year.

XIII. Financial Support

A. Each state or municipal teachers college must have an annual appropriation sufficient to provide a faculty of the size, quality, and attainments hereinbefore prescribed; the required library, laboratory and shop equipment with proper repairs and replacements; sufficient supplies and material in all departments for educational and instructional purposes; repairs and replacements in the physical plant adequate to maintain the plant in good working condition; and suitable staffs, supplies and material for the effective operation of the physical plant. A marked inferiority or insufficiency in material resources shall be accepted as a strong presumption of unsatisfactory educational conditions.

B. If the teachers college is a private incorporated institution, it must have a minimum annual income of \$50,000 for its teachers college program, one-half of which shall be from sources other than payments by students; and an additional annual income of \$10,000 for each one hundred students above two hundred, one-half of which shall be from sources other than payments by students. If such teachers college is not tax-supported, it shall possess a productive endowment of \$500,000, and an additional endowment of \$50,000 for each additional one hundred students above two hundred.

XIV. General Requirements

A. The character of the curriculum, the efficiency of the instruction, the scholarly spirit and the professional atmosphere of the institution, the standard for granting degrees, and the general tone of the teachers college, shall be factors in determining eligibility for accrediting.

B. No teachers college shall maintain a secondary school, or a department in which strictly secondary-school academic work is offered, as a part of its college organization, except for training school purposes.

XV. Classification of Colleges

A. Any teachers college which completely meets these requirements shall be designated as a Class A College, provided that until September, 1929, it may fail to meet three of these standards; until September, 1930, it may fail to meet two of them and until September, 1931, it may fail to meet one of them, and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class A College, provided, however, that it shall always meet the definition set up for a teachers college in I of these standards. (Any subdivision of a numbered section indicated by a letter shall be regarded as a standard except where it is a recommendation only.)

B. Any teachers college which fails to conform to not more than two of these standards shall be designated as a Class B College provided that until September, 1929, it may fail to meet five of these standards, until September, 1930, it may fail to meet four of them and until September,

1931, it may fail to meet three of them and nevertheless be given the rating of a Class B College.

C. Any teachers college which fails to conform to Standards VA, VB, VIA, VIIA, VIIC, VIID, VIIE, VIIF, VIIG and VIIIA shall be designated as a Class C College.

XVI. Accrediting and Classification of Teachers Colleges

A. For the purpose of administering these standards, a committee of five members, known as the Committee on Accrediting and Classification, is hereby created, one member of which shall be elected annually by the Association for a term of five years. (In 1926 five members shall be elected for terms of one, two, three, four and five years respectively.)

B. The secretary of the Association, or the executive secretary, whenever authorized and appointed by the Association, shall be the secretary and the executive officer of the Committee on Accrediting and Classification.

C. Each teachers college accredited under these standards shall file annually with the Committee on Accrediting and Classification a report on a blank provided for that purpose by the committee.

D. These standards shall go into effect on September 1, 1927. Not later than the date of the annual meeting of the Association in 1928, the Committee on Accrediting and Classification shall prepare an accredited and classified list of teachers colleges on the basis of information contained in the reports submitted to the committee by the colleges.

E. The Committee on Accrediting and Classification may inspect or cause to be inspected any teachers college when it deems such inspection necessary.

F. The Committee on Standards and Surveys shall have power to appoint any commissions for investigation of any problems concerning standards which it deems necessary and desirable.

THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES—NEED—UNANIMITY—SOLIDARITY

H. C. MINNICH, PRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION, DEAN OF TEACHERS
COLLEGE, MIAMI UNIVERSITY, OXFORD, OHIO

In another fortnight, March eleven, organized teacher training in America will have reached its one hundred and fourth milestone, and *l'école normale*, from which we received our early statutory name, is but little older.

Teacher preparation has proceeded in America under two types of institutional organization. In one type the curricula were organized, controlled and taught by a faculty in an institution with a single function, namely—the preparation of teachers for the public schools, and in the

other type the function of preparing teachers was assigned to a section of the faculty, in an educational institution, whose major interests and objectives lay entirely outside of the field of teacher-preparation, and whose general faculty organized, controlled and taught the curricula, except those courses known as pedagogical.

Samuel Reed Hall founded the first type in Concord, Vermont, in 1833, and conducted it through a period of seven years most successfully. This type was adopted in Massachusetts in 1839 by the establishment of the state normal school, at Lexington, and for sixty years was the chief exponent of teacher training in this country.

This same Samuel Reed Hall conducted for another seven-year period, following his seven years in the Concord school, training classes in Phillips Academy, as a section of that Academy, known as the teachers seminary. So that the founder of normal schools in America does not seem to have committed himself solely to either type; at least he experimented in both types.

These two types of organization have persisted through the century in varying forms in accord with the development and changes in the organization of American educational institutions; and today we have 292 of the former and 588 of the latter. Of the former 196 are state supported; 29 are supported by cities; and 67 are private and receive no support from state or municipality.

Of the 588 colleges and universities that prepare teachers for the public schools, 118 confer degrees in education. Of these at least 50 percent have well organized colleges of education within the universities. Fifty-six are supported by state or municipality. Four hundred and seventy colleges and universities today are preparing teachers with work organized under departments of education, or under departments of philosophy or sociology.

I need but make a brief historical statement to account for the situation above. When the teacher-training school was transferred from the continent to America, the dominant idea was the preparation of the elementary school of preparing only the elementary teacher became a fixed policy in some of the states. In the middle-west where the more populous small school districts began to stretch up the elementary school into secondary field the normal schools in this section, *pari passu* expanded their scope of curricula, laboratories, etc., and from 1865 to 1900 teacher-training in the states was practically all carried on in single-purpose type of institutions.

With the new emphasis upon secondary education, and its inspection by the state universities and the state departments of education, the demand for trained teachers in the secondary school became insistent. In 1908 President Van Hise read a paper before the National Association of State University Presidents, urging trained teachers for the high schools, with 20 to 30 hours of professional work.

The normal schools of the middle-west began to add subjectmatter

courses to meet the demand that teachers in high schools should have four years of education beyond the high school. The colleges began to add professional courses to meet the demand that all high-school teachers must be trained for the work.

The single-purpose schools already possessed facilities for student-teaching, or practice teaching. These they expanded to meet the standards which were fast becoming fixed. Normal schools grew at once into teachers colleges.

The 118 colleges of education and well organized departments of education in colleges and universities, organized and increased practice facilities.

These two classes are doing standard types of training for all needs demanded in the public schools. Further differentiations must be made, however, by these schools in curricula organization to meet the needs of the specialization in subjects which are developing in the high schools, as well as further differentiation in curricula for the preparation for the new types of elementary school organization.

Standards—Standard educational opportunity for every child has become the school policy in at least 40 states, by practically all state departments of education, by educational and welfare workers throughout the republic—it has become a universal program.

General assemblies and legislatures have voted appropriations far in the millions to aid school districts unable to provide standard educational opportunities for children.

Every study in the last ten years reveals a great diversity of levels of educational opportunity. Sections of underprivileged children exist in every state, and in many states wide expanses. Illiteracy still stalks abroad in the land; and we realize that 6 percent illiteracy in a country of narrow majorities is a threat and menace to our institutions. Much has been done to remove these inequalities in the quantitative field; housing, school equipment, length of school year, etc. Our greatest problem now is the standardization of the qualitative phases of public schools. This is our task—this greatest of all social endeavor falls upon us.

The legislatures remove inequalities of schoolrooms, of lengths of school term, of payment of salaries, of transportation of children, but only the teacher-training institutions can guarantee standard instruction, standard teaching, uniform levels of intellectual and spiritual contacts.

Three distinct essentials occur to me:

(1) That no student shall be allowed to enter the teacher-training work who is not of standard intelligence. We may not get the greatest intellects; they may wish to enter fields where advantage is greater, and the spectacular a little more likely; but we must be protected against the borderline type—we will get a good percent of great minds.

(2) That the training-school shall have an opportunity, throughout the college life of the student, to bring him into a full appreciation and sympathy of the great public service upon which he is about to enter. Only those who will prepare for teaching as a career may be permitted

to receive the approval of the college and recognition of the state upon entering this sacred work. This policy might reduce the intellectual level of the class of beginning teachers, but it will heighten the intellectual level of the whole staff, and will step-up the devotion of teachers, and the efficiency of instruction a hundred fold.

(3) That every student who chooses to enter upon the work of teaching shall have the opportunity of a standard preparation. Nothing educationally is so raggedly and unevenly done as the preparation of teachers. Unless every teacher in the states shall have a standard preparation for his work, equal educational opportunity for every child is a mockery and national jest—unworthy of a great people.

The 470 colleges in the United States that are preparing teachers, principally for the academic subjects in the high schools, have, in the main, called well prepared men to teach the formal professional subjects, such as psychology, principles of education, school administration, etc. In a study of 94 of the smaller colleges of the North Central Association, the 205 professors of education held degrees as follows:

29.2.....	Ph.D
55.6.....	M.A.
13.2.....	Bachelors
1.9.....	No degree

However, 205 professors of education in 94 colleges are too few men to give scholarship instruction in the several fields of education. The average was two to the college and the largest number was five.

A cursory study of these colleges indicates that the subjectmatter taken by the students in these colleges preparing to teach in the schools is taught by an underprepared teaching staff, and the instruction is given on a pure scholarship basis. In the laboratory facilities for student teaching, these smaller colleges are doing not only little, but poorly, in the main. I have known practice teaching in these schools to consist of a few (27) recitations, in which the class was comprised of one sub-freshman student who was cramming to pass the college entrance requirement in beginning algebra. While this is an individual instance, I insist it is not altogether a typical of the small general college endeavor. We need an added cry throughout the land—not only a trained teacher for every school, but a standard-trained teacher for every school.

Wherever a training school is not spending about 20 percent of its budget on facilities for practice teaching, it is not doing standard training, and the students of that college are underprivileged.

One more idea! A few years ago I made a number of visits among the *l'école normale* of France. When I asked the minister of education to give me so many permits to visit the various types of normal schools, he replied, "there are no different types, they are all alike." I later found this literally true down to beds in barracks, desk chairs and penholders for the rectors. The painting of the buildings was all of the same color. One cries out, "What deadly uniformity!" yet, under the greatest test

to which a civilization can be put, war, the French did not acquit themselves ignominiously.

I have just tabulated 386 colleges and universities that are preparing secondary teachers, and find that they are offering 160 titles in education courses. These, of course, are exact verbal readings and are not to be taken too seriously, but that we lack uniformity in our required offerings for the preparation of teachers for identical positions remains painfully obvious to any student of teacher preparation.

The professional training is not controlled by the specific needs of "trainee," as some daring writer has called this student. What is true of the inaptness of much of the professional training is more sorrowfully true of the subjectmatter.

Dr. Buckingham in his most illuminating study on "Supply and Demand in Teacher-Training" shows that in Ohio we are just preparing teachers, with little regard of the demand. In a single instance, in one year we prepared 248 teachers of chemistry—95 of these were called to teach chemistry. It is quite common for a graduate of a general college, without a day of practice teaching, to teach first grade in an elementary school. We are suffering in this field of education from an attack of malignant initiativitis. Thus far we have been as one crying in the wilderness—"Another cometh after me, whose shoe latchets I am not worthy to unloose." Either this, or we must ourselves consolidate all the forces in teacher-training to establish the high way. Teacher-training must not have so many compartments. All of us are striving to produce teachers of high quality, no matter what section of schools they may enter. Only a unity of forces will make it possible for us to secure for America a standard trained teacher for every school.

Marvellous as the development of teacher-training in America has been, we now must move together into the field of better guarantees to every school that every child shall have quality instruction as well as quantity facilities; unanimity and solidarity among the best forces can achieve it.

UNIQUE OPPORTUNITIES OF TEACHERS COLLEGES

WILLIAM S. GRAY, DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
CHICAGO, ILL.

Teacher-training institutions of collegiate rank, or higher, are of relatively recent origin. Schools and colleges of education in state universities and in private institutions are the product of the last quarter of a century, with very few exceptions. Four-year teachers colleges have developed largely within the last decade. The phenomenal growth of these schools and colleges, both in number and in the scope of their activities, has come at a time when public education, general academic education, and professional training are being studied critically and modified radically. The very forces which now challenge the practices of the

past have created the demand for and made possible the establishment of new and broader types of professional schools. A few examples will serve to illustrate the nature and variety of these opportunities.

The *Twenty-Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* describes clearly the gap which has existed for decades between the curriculum of our public schools and American life. In the judgment of the committee that prepared the report, the greatest hope for improvement in our national life lies in the development of a new and dynamic curriculum. "A curriculum which deals in a rich, vivid manner with the modes of living of people all over the world—a curriculum which will set forth the crucial facts about the community in which pupils live; one which will interpret for them the chief features of the basic resources and industries upon which their lives depend—a curriculum which will enable pupils to visualize the problems set up by human migration; one which will provide them with an opportunity to study and think critically about the form of democratic government under which they are living, and to compare it with the forms of government of other people. A curriculum which will not only inform, but will constantly have as its ideal the development of an attitude of sympathetic tolerance and of critical open-mindedness—a curriculum which deals courageously and intelligently with the issues of modern life and which utilizes in their study the cultural and industrial as well as the political history of their development—a curriculum consisting of a carefully graded organization of problems and exercises, one which recognizes the need for definite and systematic practice upon socially valuable skills."

The statements which have been quoted describe only a few characteristics of the reorganized curriculum that is needed in America today. Some of us may not agree with all the features of the proposed program; to others it may sound visionary. We are all agreed, however, that an improved and enriched curriculum is needed for boys and girls in elementary and secondary schools. Herein lies not only an opportunity but a responsibility of teacher-training institutions. In the present emergency, there is need not only of aiding in the development of new and vital materials of instruction but also of giving to prospective teachers a clear vigorous understanding of American life and of training them to interpret it to children. The attainment of these goals will require radical enrichment of teacher-training curricula based on the clearest vision and keenest thinking that professional schools command.

Current criticisms of academic education likewise suggest opportunities for creative work. In recent discussions of junior college education, the need of a radical reorganization of the aim and content of the first two years of a college course has been vigorously described. Instead of introducing students to intensive studies of particular fields of knowledge, the need today is for a type of training that rounds out and completes their general education and gives them a broad, sympathetic and appreciative understanding of the world in which they live. This view of the

function of the junior college years takes on unusual professional significance when we recall the fact that teachers of broad culture are needed who have a clear understanding of American life which they can interpret intelligently to their pupils. An examination of the four-year curricula of teachers colleges shows that some progress has been made in enriching the curriculum of the first two years in the direction indicated. These institutions have a unique opportunity to set enviable standards. Many of them are organizing for the first time a four-year program. They are unhampered by established departments which insist on following traditional practices. They are free to introduce types of courses which will develop teachers of broad vision, wide human sympathies, and an understanding of modern life such as we have rarely had in the past. In accomplishing these aims they will not only contribute to the professional training of teachers, but they will aid materially in the solution of one of the very important problems in collegiate education.

The third example which I shall give is taken from the sacred precincts of professional training in the technical sense of the term. An examination of the programs announced for the Dallas meeting of this and other organizations shows that courses in education are the object of vigorous constructive criticism. The unsatisfactory status of these courses may be attributed, in part at least, to their mode of evolution. Developing, as they did, in departments other than education, much content was included which has relatively little value in training teachers. Furthermore, so-called vested interests developed which tended to perpetuate traditional types of content. As the problems of teaching changed from decade to decade, the plan was adopted of adding new courses rather than modifying established ones. This practice has continued until scores of elementary courses are now given in some institutions. Unfortunately, the scope of these courses is often determined more largely by time allotments and the logical implications of given problems than by a critical study of the needs of teachers in specific fields.

In order to secure an adequate grasp of professional problems, students are often required to take a relatively large number of courses in education. This is done frequently at the sacrifice of an adequate understanding of American life and thorough preparation in subjects to be taught. Furthermore, these courses are often elected by the students in any order they choose. Consequently there is little or no progressive mastery of the field and there are numerous duplications. An open-minded, critical study of these facts leads to the conviction that a thorough reorganization is needed of the content and sequence of strictly professional courses. The study of the problems that are involved offers a vigorous challenge today because the fundamental principles of curriculum construction at the professional level are themselves matters of honest controversy and scientific inquiry. The demand for the reorganization of professional courses makes possible the development of curricula which are more vital and practical.

The discussion thus far exemplifies the fact that current criticisms of public education, of academic education, and of professional training suggest unique opportunities for teachers colleges, as well as for other types of teacher-training institutions. Scores of examples could be given illustrating a very wide variety of opportunities which the natural course of events has brought to our doors. The serious problem which we now face relates to the means which may be used in meeting these obligations effectively. In my judgment, there are three which have high potential and immediate practical value. In the first place, we should utilize to a maximum degree all of the vision, wisdom, experience and judgment which the members of our faculties possess. In the second place, we should rely chiefly on the science of education as a technic in the study and investigation of problems. In the third place, we should make use of the science of education as a body of content wherever it has contributions to offer. In the part of this report that follows I shall present briefly a few examples which illustrate the application of these means to typical problems.

Let us consider first the problem of reorganizing a series of courses in education which will provide an adequate introduction to the professional problems of teachers. The first step in any program of reorganization is to provide agencies charged with the responsibility of carrying forward essential constructive activities. For example, in the institution with which I am associated, we are making a critical study at present of a series of courses in education for prospective high school teachers who have had no teaching experience. We found it necessary early in this study to appoint a committee, the members of which represented more or less divergent views concerning the nature and content of such courses. The program of one member of the committee has been so arranged that he is free to devote much time and energy for two or more years to detailed, constructive work. As the work of the committee went forward, it became apparent that additional committees were necessary to deal with particular problems, such as the relation between the general courses in education and the special methods courses. Finally, it has been necessary to go frequently to the faculty as a whole for direction, guidance, and such wisdom as it could contribute. In other words, whereas special agencies must be provided for intensive work, the faculty as a whole must be placed on an actively cooperating basis, if we are to profit to a maximum extent from its vision, wisdom, experience, and judgment.

A second problem which must be studied in reorganizing elementary courses in education relates to the types of curricula which an institution should organize and administer. This step is necessary before decisions can be reached concerning the nature, number, and variety of courses that are necessary. Inasmuch as the need for trained teachers and school officers varies in different sections of the country, teacher-training institutions should not all conform to a single type. State institutions can probably define their functions best through cooperative studies of the needs of the state as a whole as well as of the local areas served. Investigations

similar to the survey of the needs of the Michigan state normal schools and of the supply and demand for teachers in Ohio illustrate desirable steps in this connection.

A third problem, to which little attention has been given in the past, relates to personal and professional traits and characteristics which are desirable on the part of students who go into particular types of service. In order to make studies of these matters as they relate to prospective high school teachers, the committee of our faculty, to which I referred earlier, trained interviewers and arranged conferences with all members of our staff. The specific questions asked by the interviewers follow: "If you were selecting a teacher for a high school of which you were principal, what qualities would you look for?" "In your opinion, what characteristics should this institution seek to develop in students who are to become high school teachers?" "Think of the best and the poorest high school teacher you have known. Describe each."

A preliminary summary of the responses of the faculty to these questions revealed two important facts. The first is that there are wide differences of opinion concerning the academic and professional training that is essential and the personal characteristics and traits that are desirable. These differences suggest a number of problems which are now being considered both by the committee and the faculty as a whole. The second fact is that the members of the staff consider the development of certain personal traits, attitudes and characteristics a very essential step in the training of teachers. The emphasis given to such matters in their reports was far greater than that ordinarily given in professional courses. This specific problem has been referred to a special committee which is to study this study more thoroughly and to develop ways and means of promoting the development of essential traits and attitudes both in regular course work and through such supplementary agencies as may be provided. The fact which should be emphasized at this point is that progress almost invariably results from the systematic objective study of specific problems.

A fourth problem relates to the methods of determining valid principles on which the content of professional courses should be selected. This is a critical problem today as shown by the fact that these very principles are themselves matters of honest controversy and scientific research. A survey of the literature shows that many recommendations have been made. For example, one group of educators maintains that the content of professional courses should be derived deductively from general aims, objectives, and principles. The curriculum builder, according to this view, starts with statements in their most general form, and through analysis determines the methods which the classroom teacher should use. On the other hand, a second group urges that we begin with the activities of teachers, and through a process of induction derive the aims, objectives, and principles which determine good classroom procedure. In the fact

of conflicting recommendations, such as these, what procedure should a committee or faculty adopt?

There is no single answer to this question. In my judgment a plan similar to that adopted by the committee to which I referred earlier is both valid and suggestive. When it faced various conflicting recommendations it immediately planned three steps, namely, a critical analysis of the implications of each recommendation, a series of comparative studies relating to principles, objectives, and activities, and a number of classroom experiments. Time will permit only two examples. The first relates to the study of the adequacy of the materials in elementary texts in education which have been developed largely through the analysis and application of general aims, objectives, and principles.

The topics found in six so-called introductory texts in education were analyzed and classified. Opposite to them on sheets of paper were listed related items in the activities list of the commonwealth teacher-training study. Similar comparative studies were made of the items in the activities list and the important facts, principles, and objectives which appear in current texts in methods, tests, and measurements, educational psychology, history of education, and classroom management. The results of these studies showed clearly that much material in these books is so remotely related to classroom problems that it has little or no place at least in an introductory series of courses. Many of the items in the activities list are not justified by existing aims, objectives or principles. It was on the other hand found that the activities list contained a wealth of material which could be used to distinct advantage in enriching and concreting some of the discussions in the texts. The additional fact was noted that certain important activities of teachers, such as the development of appreciations, are inadequately discussed in the texts examined. After detailed studies of the data collected, it was concluded that each source of information has its advantages and limitations. Both are essential at present, the one to give direction and concreteness to a given unit and the other to aid in deriving all of the essential facts and principles necessary to an understanding of the problems that teachers encounter.

A second example relates to a classroom experiment to determine the wisdom of introducing topics through a study of specific cases as compared with an initial presentation of basic principles and facts. The results showed that neither plan should be used exclusively. For example, in considering matters of discipline, the class made a splendid analysis of important issues on the basis of actual cases, and formulated a comprehensive set of principles on which to base decisions. They were able to do this because of their wide experience and observation, and through the use of good common sense. When they attempted to deal with a unit on problem solving in the same way they were unsuccessful. After two days of more or less futile effort, the keener members of the class concluded that they were not prepared to solve specific problems in this

field intelligently. They suggested, furthermore, that they should first study systematically important facts concerning the general nature of thinking and the various processes that are involved. After they had made a somewhat careful study of these matters for a few days, they were able to deal with specific problems quickly and intelligently. The tentative conclusions of these experiments are of little consequence in this discussion. The important fact which merits emphasis is that critical analysis, scientific inquiry, and experimentation must enter more and more largely into the study and solution of the instructional problems of teacher-training institutions.

There are hundreds of unsolved problems that are urgently in need of thorough study. If the potential capacity of teacher-training institutions could be put immediately on a war-time basis, unprecedented progress could be made in their solution.

Reference has already been made to the fact that wide use should be made of the science of education as a body of content in the study of professional problems and in the reorganization of courses.

With your permission, I shall present an example from the field of reading. For many decades, reading was taught in American schools by the A-B-C method. As early as 1838, Horace Mann made a vigorous attack on current methods of instruction, pointing out the fact that children did not understand the words which they pronounced. He urged that the teaching of reading should begin with words, because they are the elements which have meaning. In this connection he was urging the necessity of basing education on correct psychological analysis. During the latter part of the 19th century, and the first quarter of the 20th century, reading has been studied in great detail. Through the use of classroom and laboratory measurements a distinction was uncovered which has proved of great significance, namely, the distinction between oral and silent reading. The differences between these two types of reading have been studied both in psychological laboratories and in classrooms. As a result, there has come into existence a body of scientific principles and a body of principles of practice which can be described as belonging to a special science. What has been said with regard to reading may be said equally well with regard to other school subjects and phases of professional work. There is rapidly developing a science of administration, a science of supervision, and a science of teaching reading, spelling, and mathematics. The science of education as a content may, therefore, be drawn upon heavily in the reorganization of professional training and in the solution of professional problems.

Teacher-training institutions have not only the opportunity of enriching professional courses with scientific content, but, what is more important, the very interesting opportunity of contributing to the development of that content. It has been my privilege during the past three years to summarize more than 600 scientific studies in the field of reading. It is both

an interesting and a significant fact that a large majority of these studies have been made by public school workers. Disregarding the work done in five or six centers, very few contributions have come from teacher-training institutions. Those who have been summarizing studies in other fields report similar facts. In my judgment steps should be taken at once to organize more agencies in all of our professional schools which will be concerned chiefly with the development of bodies of scientific materials on which both the validity and the practical value of courses for teachers depend.

In conclusion, I wish to emphasize again the fact that education has been passing through a period of rapid development and transformation. The very forces which have brought about these changes have created unique opportunities for teacher-training institutions. These opportunities are as broad as the field of education itself. They relate not only to the problems peculiar to teacher-training institutions, but they include also the vital issues of elementary, secondary, collegiate, and university education. In the study and solution of these problems there are at least three important sources of help, namely, the vision, wisdom, experience, and judgment of the members of our profession which should be drawn upon heavily at every step of progress; the methods of science which should be our chief reliance in the study and solution of our problems; and the science of education as a content which should be used whenever possible in increasing the validity and practical value of instructions at every level. I know it is a matter of gratification to all in our profession to see that very rapid progress is being made today in the solution of professional problems. I believe, confidentially, that if the potential capacity of all teacher-training institutions can be used to a reasonable extent in the scientific study of important problems, we face a period of unparalleled progress in the attainment of high professional standards.

THE SELECTION AND TRAINING OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL STAFFS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

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There are upwards of 750,000 teachers, supervisors and administrative officers in charge of the educational program of the more than 22,000,000 children in the public schools of our country.

To find young men and young women of good health, of fine intellectual capacity, of high moral purpose; to train them for entrance upon the professional service of these millions of school children and to keep them alive and growing professionally so long as they remain in this service is at once the incomparably difficult task and the high privilege of the American teachers college. No other type of professional school has had committed

to it so great a responsibility; no other educational institution has ever had presented to it so challenging an opportunity.

To one who has had the privilege as I have had in recent years of visiting scores of these institutions, of addressing their students, of conferring with their faculties, of studying first hand their educational programs, of becoming saturated with the spirit of their service there comes in due time the certain conviction that they occupy a position of strategic advantage in the further development of the program of American education.

The American teachers college, with meager financial resources and inadequate equipment, understaffed and overworked, is, in spite of all these handicaps, steadily gaining in prestige and growing in favor among thoughtful men and women everywhere. This institution is the most democratic of all our schools and colleges of every type. It has with increasing definiteness and certainty placed its primary emphasis on meeting the most fundamental need in American democracy and in American life generally, namely, the need in every classroom in the public schools of the nation for a competent teacher, a leader of children, a foreman who can create worthy ideals, right attitudes, and permanent life interests, who can help them to find worthwhile work to do, who knows how to promote cooperation and to develop the team spirit, who, as an expert workman himself, is able to direct the efforts of others to successful achievement.

It is at once apparent that with such a philosophy of education and such a program of service, the teachers college has need, above all others, to have on its administrative and instructional staffs men and women of well seasoned personal integrity, of the highest professional character, of unquestioned loyalty to the public service, men and women whose steadfast devotion to the task of social reconstruction and betterment through the ministry of teaching becomes a source of life-long inspiration to future teachers now under their instruction, and exerts a powerful and stabilizing influence upon all who have already entered upon teaching or other educational service.

Yes, the glory of the teachers college has ever been and must ever be in its faculty. In every great teacher college of the future the members of the faculty will be chosen because they have made full and adequate preliminary preparation to teach in such an institution, because they can teach well and because they love to teach teachers. They will be retained in the service because they teach progressively better from year to year, because they exemplify to each other and to their students the possibility of continuous professional, intellectual and spiritual growth, because they can teach by what they are and by what they do and not merely by what they say, because they have dynamic as distinct from mere traditional academic scholarship, because they are free from pedantry and pretense of every kind; because they are agreeable, companionable, human—in a word—able and willing and happy to work in the spirit of comradeship with young people who have come together to educate themselves and each

other with such help as they can get from good teachers. It is obvious that the selection and proper development of such a staff in each of our several hundred teacher-training institutions is a problem of the first magnitude. There isn't a man or woman among us who has carried that responsibility for a period of years in any one of these institutions, large or small, who has not many times each year said to himself, almost in despair, "Who is fit for these things?" Because I have carried that responsibility and am soon to undertake it again. I may perhaps be pardoned for assuming the right to speak to you as a colleague. For the sake of directness I may have to be a bit didactic, and for the sake of brevity, perhaps a bit dogmatic. And if I fare no better at your hands after I am through than I sometimes do with my graduate students who are getting ready for administrative service in teacher-training institutions, I may regret that I have not spoken less dogmatically and more briefly.

May I raise, then, some questions and attempt to answer them without primary reference to their serial order?

1. What is the most satisfactory type of professional training and experience a person might secure as a preliminary preparation for entrance upon service in a teachers college?

2. Where are persons who have made such preliminary preparation to be found in adequate numbers?

3. What are the inducements which must be offered?

4. Specifically what policies should be adopted to provide for continuous professional growth through advanced training and otherwise of persons who have entered upon this service?

In setting up a staff in our best medical schools great emphasis has been placed upon the policy of choosing professors for most of the courses—and for all of the strictly professional courses—who have had actual experience in the practice of their several specialties. Except in those pure sciences which are basal to medicine as an applied science, graduates of academic institutions, no matter how high their standing may be, are not acceptable as instructors and for obvious reasons.

In the best of our law schools the more important—that is the strictly professional courses—are given by persons who have had years of experience in actual practice as attorneys or counsellors-at-law, and only courses of a more general nature are given acceptably by persons whose training has been limited to non-professional graduate school work and who are without actual experience in the practice of law.

A very different policy has prevailed in professional schools for teachers. Too large a percentage of our staff members have, in the past, been without a satisfactory background of practical field experience in public education. And, too, a considerable proportion of those who have had such experience have joined the forces of the teachers colleges only after their days of real professional usefulness were almost over. Perhaps the practical reason for the wide prevalence of this policy is not far to seek. Until comparatively recently there were not to be found in any great numbers

in the elementary schools those who had a sufficiently broad background of general education and fundamental professional training to warrant their appointment to a teachers college staff. This situation, however, has changed in recent years and is now changing with great rapidity. There are increasing numbers of able men and women, more particularly the latter, serving as teachers, supervisors or principals in elementary schools in towns of intermediate size, as well as in larger cities, who have gone as far as the master's degree in some good university school of education or who, on receiving reasonable assurance of suitable appointments in due time in a teachers college, would take the necessary steps to do so.

One of the ablest teachers college executives I have known has been pursuing the following plan in recruiting for his vacancies: He secures the active cooperation of superintendents, supervisors, and principals in finding those teachers and officers now in service in the public schools who with additional training and an enrichment of experience would seem to be acceptable and available for appointment when vacancies occur or additional staff members are required. Then he sends out, as occasion offers, a number of the trusted members of his faculty to make an inspection and check up on their efficiency, their professional spirit, their health, their personal interests, their general availability. If a sufficient number of the reports are distinctly favorable in any one case he personally visits the teacher in question or sends the dean of instruction or the director of training to do so. If his personal impressions or those of his official representatives are favorable, he proposes an agreement to this effect with the person concerned; that, if she will, in summer terms or during a period of continuous study for a year or more, make specific preparation for a particular type of service in the teachers college he will appoint her to the faculty on the completion of such preparation or as soon thereafter as a suitable vacancy may occur. This plan has worked especially well in filling the numerous vacancies occurring in the staff of the demonstration and training departments. There is no longer any good reason, under ordinary circumstances, for appointing teachers to vacancies in these departments, without the assurance that they will spend at least a summer term in making specific and technical preparation for this important and highly specialized type of service. The teachers college president who sends a hurry up call to a university appointment bureau or to a commercial teachers agency for 5 or 7 or 11 demonstration and so-called "critic" teachers is more likely to have his requisitions filled by those who are in urgent need of employment than by persons who are professionally competent to render the service required. It is possible to anticipate, within reasonable limits, the annual turnover in this important branch of the service and to get ready for it by sending a proper quota of carefully selected persons, for at least as much as a summer term, to a school of education offering the right type of specific courses in preparation. Or if conditions are unfavorable to such a plan, one or more courses can be set up at the institution itself for the further and specific training of such recruits to the college staff.

In the case of any of the more important positions in the major subject-matter departments a large percentage of the vacancies can be definitely anticipated, sometimes a year or two years or even three years in advance. In such cases younger members of the department or persons outside of the institution should be encouraged to get ready by advanced study and specific training.

On visiting a teachers college recently, I was taken by the president into a class taught by a very unusual man who was just beginning his work in the institution. The president was obviously as proud of his appointment as I was delighted with what I saw of this man's work. On leaving the room I asked: "Where did you find this teacher?" "Find him, find him," said he, "why you just can't find that kind of teacher. You have to make them. It took me almost ten years to make this one. When one of my field supervisors first called my attention to him he was in the stage of crude beginnings. He was a bundle of possibilities, nothing more. But I became interested in him. I was permitted to counsel with him. He acted on my advice. He began planning. Later on he entered upon a course of definite training leading to normal school service in such a department as this. He actually spent six years getting ready for this particular position. In the course of that time he taught a total of four years in two of the best school systems in our state and attended three different university schools of education for a total of two years and five summer terms. He was successful in his teaching and in his university study, principally I think, because he had a very definite objective in mind. I took great care to give him the best advice and he took equal pains never to disappoint me. Yes, he was made for this position. He and I and a half dozen different institutions joined hands in making him for the position."

I am well aware that it isn't always possible to fill important vacancies that way, but to the extent that an executive can anticipate even in a general way the important needs that are likely to arise two or three or five years ahead, he has the opportunity to determine the kind of training to be acquired by future appointees. This, it would seem, is far more important in many respects than the amount of training, in spite of the fact that there are many teachers college executives who seem for the present to prefer high academic degrees even when coupled with low professional efficiency, to low academic degree accompanied by superb professional performance.

In his efforts to recruit a competent faculty the president of a teachers college should secure, on one hand, the active cooperation of the overhead staff of the public school systems in the service area of his school and far beyond its borders in locating suitable talent and, on the other hand, he must secure the active interest and cooperation of a limited number of the best graduate schools of education in providing for their advanced and specific training. He need not then depend exclusively upon either home talent or upon the imported variety. He will be able to secure recruits who, in most instances, are familiar with the school needs in the service area of the college and have also had sufficient university training in their

specified fields to be in no sense circumscribed in their outlook on the teacher-training problems of the state and nation.

And now a word concerning the conditions of service most favorable to continuous professional growth. A normal school or teachers college should not be a monastic retreat for those who have gotten tired of the toil and turmoil of the public school system and wish to withdraw from the scene of educational conflict. Teachers in these institutions must not be allowed to retreat from the world of practical school affairs and become top-heavy with untried theory. This educational philosophy must be kept sane and workable. To this end they should be engaged throughout the year in professional studies centering about the problems of one or other of the faculty committees in the school itself or out in some public school system. Each teacher should conduct at least one conference course each year with teachers in service. This will tend to bring him into close contact with the actual school problems of the field. It will help him to keep his feet anchored to terra firma. It will serve to give point and purpose to such visits as his time will permit him to make into public schools—and they should be many. In course of time he will, by such contacts, come to have an extraordinary range of experience and will be much in demand for group conferences on all sorts of problems of teaching and management associated with his department or field of service.

All this will help him to avoid the folly of trying to keep his theory and his practice in two separate air-tight compartments, as is the custom among many university professors (including not a few professors of education and psychology). He will have no Grand Canyon separating the work in his college classes from that of the demonstration and training departments. He will understand that the distinguishing characteristic of a good professional school for teachers is the fact that its students and *its faculty as well*, study their present and future professional problems in the laboratory setting in which they actually occur, namely, in the demonstration training and experimental schools connected with the college and out in the public schools of the district.

You will remember the distinction which the school boy, on one occasion, made between a professor and a teacher. "A professor," said he, "is one who professes, but a teacher is one who really teaches." We must select and appoint only such persons as have actually demonstrated that they are good teachers, and then we must set up a program for them which will not allow them to degenerate into mere "professors." We do not need men and women in our teachers colleges to invent perpetual motion machines that won't run. We need teachers in the subjectmatter departments, in education and in psychology who are both able and willing to go into the classrooms of the demonstration school and exemplify their theories in practice. There is no other way by which a sound educational philosophy can be rationalized or efficient practice made explicit to young people who are getting ready to teach.

There came together on the campus of George Peabody College for

Teachers in Nashville, this week, a group of notable educational leaders to do honor to that distinguished teacher of teachers, who at the ripe age of three score years and ten, and after the completion of 50 years of almost unequaled educational service, is still recognized on the campus of that college and elsewhere throughout the land, as one of the most superb teachers of children among the scores of illustrious men and women in the teachers colleges of America. Charles A. McMurray has found a life long incentive to advanced and continuous study and productive educational research, not in philosophizing in the quiet of his study about that mythical character known to psychologists as "the child," but by gaining an increasingly intimate first-hand contact in the classrooms of his laboratory schools with the boys and girls whom he has personally taught in the presence of those whom he has been training as teachers and supervisors of instruction. He has not been a "professor" of education. He has not been a lecturer on method. He has been an exemplar of the successful application of principles of teaching in actual classroom practice, and in doing so he has developed a type of dynamic scholarships which in its breadth and inclusiveness stands out in magnificent contrast to the traditional academic variety of scholarship which has been the pride of the subjectmatter professors in our teachers colleges.

There are two administrative policies affecting the selection and development of the instructional staff of the teachers college still widely prevalent, which are chiefly responsible for the failure of many of these institutions to become in fact, as in name, teacher colleges.

First let me say that so long as we fill our vacancies from among those who have been trained primarily or exclusively in academic colleges, where really good teaching is comparatively rare, or from graduate schools of research, which are not in the least concerned about good teaching, or even from university schools of education which do not maintain a system of laboratory schools for demonstration, training and experimentation in teaching and management, we need not hope for much substantial progress in the professionalization of the service of our teachers colleges.

And then let me add that even though we should fill our vacancies only from among those who have a good professional viewpoint and a master's technic in education, gained from years of successful professional experience, we must not expect them to hold their professional status or to go to higher levels of professional service unless we are willing and able:

1. To send them to the field weekly (or at least very frequently), for first hand contact with the public schools and their work.
2. To give them opportunity to participate in the formation of major institutional policies and programs of service.
3. To enlist their cooperation in making and progressively remaking the curricula.
4. To secure their active participation with their associates and their students in committee service.
5. To make provision for travel and advanced study while in service.

These are the substantial inducements we must offer, if we would enlist in teacher training work the services of those who are most promising, and if we would keep those who have entered upon this service alive and growing so long as they are engaged in it.

Time will not permit a development of my thought in connection with more than one of these five points, and for obvious reasons that must be the last.

One may find individual teachers colleges which have long maintained an *entente cordiale* with the public schools of their respective service areas.

One may find individual institutions in increasing numbers so democratic in their spirit and so well unified in their organization that all their major institutional policies and programs of service represent the collective wisdom of practically the entire staff of administrative and instructional officers.

One may find individual teachers colleges, not a few, in which the members of the institutional staff participate as fully and as freely in the actual construction and reconstruction of their institutional curricula as the members of a good university seminar in curricular study might be expected and permitted to do in the setting up of an ideal program of study for a hypothetical teachers college in the state of Osceola.

One may find here and there a considerable number of individual institutions with very well conceived and efficient committee organizations. Some of them have worked out the problem of joint student-family participation in the setting up of policies and programs and in their harmonious administration.

In all of these lines the teachers college executive who wishes to provide for his teachers a maximum of opportunity for continuous growth in service may find excellent models in many places for study and imitation. It is, however, a safe statement to make that nowhere has adequate provision been made for travel and advanced study off the campus while in service or on leave of absence.

On the theory, I suppose, that young people should be trained for teaching in an environment as far removed as possible from the world, the flesh and the devil, that is, from the wickedness in high places in our larger cities, many of our teacher training institutions have been located in isolated communities, often thoroughly provincial in character. Instructors in such institutions if not free to get away under some proper administrative arrangement during summer terms, or for one-quarter, at least, in each calendar year, for travel, for advanced study in larger centers or for teaching service in other institutions with all that such experiences and such contacts offer of stimulation and professional help, are in great danger of lapsing in a few years into a state of intellectual coma. The salary schedule and other administrative regulations covering their employment and service should, therefore, be such as to encourage all efforts on the part of individual teachers to multiply the number and variety of worthwhile professional contacts off the campus as well as on it.

There is probably no other type of educational workers to whom the grant of the sabbatical leave on full pay would be so easy to justify as to the instructor in a normal school or teachers college. Yet such provisions are comparatively rare.

There is probably no other type of instructor in all our colleges and professional schools to whom the grant of subventions or fellowships for advanced study equal in value to their regular salaries could be so easily justified on grounds of public welfare as to the promising young married men in our normal schools and teachers colleges, and yet such grants are provided, so far as I know, by only one foundation. These grants are limited in number and are available in institutions in one section of the country only.

The amount of money that is being expended at the present time in setting up faculties for the specific training of administrative officers and of professors and teachers for our normal schools and teachers colleges is almost negligible. Only three or four of our great universities have been able to make even a beginning on a program of distinctive professional service to the more than 10,000 administrative officers and members of instructional staffs in our public teacher-training institutions. The call for funds to carry on and to enlarge this service constitutes the most strategic opportunity that has yet been presented to educational philanthropy. The most urgent educational need of the country today is for a great *Normal Supérieur* or several of them (1) to conduct research on teacher-training problems; (2) to get up standards in the professional education of teachers; (3) to offer much practical and direct help to the several hundred public teacher-training institutions in the United States, and (4) to furnish inspiration and leadership in the movement to provide a competent, professionally trained teacher for every classroom in the nation. Such an institution might be the legitimate outgrowth of one or the other of our best university graduate schools of education. It should be staffed by a group of the ablest, the most versatile and broadly experienced men and women who have served the cause of public education in the ranks—as teachers, principals, supervisors, and administrators in public school systems and in publicly supported teacher-training colleges. They should be reinforced by a corps of research specialists of the first rank. Adequate funds should be provided (1) to maintain a junior teachers college, and possibly a senior teachers college, splendidly equipped for demonstration and experimental purposes, and (2) to provide full maintenance fellowships for graduate study for at least one staff member from each of the public teacher-training colleges of the United States, and (3) to bear the expenses of a highly organized and adequately staffed research bureau for the service of normal schools and teachers colleges. Such an institution, or better still, one or more in the east, one in the south, one in the upper Mississippi valley and one on the Pacific coast could set the pro-

fession of teaching forward in ten years by a longer span of progress than has been covered in the past century. May I repeat: *The opportunity to finance such a program of service constitutes the most strategic opportunity that has yet been presented to educational philanthropy.* And may I add that, in my judgment, no other call upon this body, the American Association of Teachers Colleges, is so imperative as the call for an adequate interpretation to the educational statesmen and philanthropists of our time of the need for funds to provide for this work and service, so essential to all further progress in the development of a great profession of teaching.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COOPERATION WITH THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION

JOHN A. H. KEITH, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
HARRISBURG, PENNSYLVANIA

Your committee of one has discussed various matters with the United States Commissioner of Education; generally, those that relate to the statistical side of gathering information regarding the normal schools and teachers colleges. I have also conferred personally and by letter with Doctor Phillips, the statistician of the Bureau of Education. It has been my pleasure to inclose with Doctor Phillips' request for statistical information, a personal letter urging all who receive the request to furnish information properly.

I think it is safe to say that, as a result of the continuation of this policy for the past three or four years, we are getting in the office of the Commissioner of Education more complete and more reliable statistical information than we have had in the decade immediately preceding the beginning of this cooperative effort.

The real report, which I do not have to make, is measured accurately by the response which the members of the American Association of Teachers Colleges have made to the request of the United States Bureau of Education for information of various kinds.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SUBVENTION FOR RESEARCH WORK IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

D. B. WALDO, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, KALAMAZOO, MICHIGAN

Your committee has endeavored to find a means to finance a study of normal schools and teachers colleges of the country in accordance with an outline which has been prepared by your committee and submitted to various individuals for criticism and suggestions, the main features of the proposed study being as follows:

1. The present preparation of the public school teachers of the several states.
2. The length of service of public school teachers in different types of schools in the several states.

3. The increase in the number of public schools per year, in the several states.
4. The present facilities (public and private) for the preparation of different types of teachers in the several states.
5. The relation of preparation to length of service.
6. The steps that should be taken in the several states to assure "a well-qualified and relatively permanent teacher for every public school position" therein.

We have not been able as yet to secure any assurance of sufficient funds to carry forward such a study. We have the pledged cooperation of the Research Division of the National Education Association and also that of the office of the United States Commissioner of Education. What we need is a grant of a sufficient amount of money to set up this study and to secure the use of such forms and reports in the several states as will hereafter supply us with current information relative to this problem.

Your committee has felt that the standardization of normal schools by any outside agency would at the present time be unwise, and we have therefore worked out a plan for standardization examinations and inspections which is submitted separately for your approval.

It is the thought of the committee that this committee, or a similar one, should be continued, with the hope that some way may be found to carry forward the study proposed.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON STANDARDS AND SURVEYS OF AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES

E. S. EVENDEN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY,
NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

Last year at the Washington meeting the American Association of Teachers Colleges adopted as tentative standards those reported by your committee on standards and surveys. At the time the committee made this report it realized that the proposed standards did not present ideals and that some of them were more or less arbitrarily chosen as representing the better existing practices and the standards which had been rather generally agreed upon as desirable by those responsible for directing the work of the teachers colleges. The committee realized that many of these standards would need to be revised, most of them upward and some downward, as we learn more about the work of preparing teachers and can substitute the results of carefully controlled investigations for the judgment of our leaders no matter how sincerely formed those judgments may be.

The committee also realized that even though many of these standards would need to be revised that their acceptance as present goals would help many of the schools to improve their present standards and also make possible some helpful and stimulating comparisons. They would also

furnish material for a more forceful presentation of teachers college programs to state legislatures.

The realization that many of the standards would need revision is the reason why the suggestion was made at the meeting last year that your committee on standards and surveys for several years to come should give its time and efforts to the further study of some of the more controversial of the standards. In this way it was hoped that this committee could furnish the Association with more accurate descriptions of present practices and with any experimental evidence it could secure bearing on these debated issues and thereby assist the presidents and faculties of our teachers colleges in making more accurate decisions whenever any of the tentative standards are to be revised. It is earnestly recommended that your Association or your committee on accrediting should refer questioned standards or parts of standards to the committee on standards and surveys and that this committee become an investigating and research clearing-house for the Association. The committee, or its members or others under its guidance, could conduct a number of comprehensive studies on these debated questions and present the results before the Association was asked to vote upon a revision.

For the present year the committee on standards and surveys chose, from among the standards, the four which seemed most in need of immediate study and also which are least satisfactory as at present stated, as the special fields to be investigated. The four topics were: (1) the academic and professional training of the faculty members of teachers colleges; (2) the training and service load of critic or supervising teachers in the practice schools; (3) the needed changes in the financial records for these schools, and (4) the desirable standards for the libraries.

Unfortunately, some unavoidable circumstances have prevented the completion of three of these. Shelton Phelps, of Peabody College for Teachers, was asked by the committee to plan an exhaustive study of the training of teachers college faculties, but due to some unavoidable delays outside of his control, he was not permitted to put his request for data before you in time to do the great amount of tabulation necessary before this date. It was thought better to postpone the study and present it to you in outline form at this meeting in order that you may have a better understanding of the study and its importance.

It is evident from the outline of the study as presented to you by Dr. Phelps that its completion will furnish this association with much very valuable data, without which you are unable to make any intelligent moves in the revision of Section V of the standards. The plan of making the study from actual transcripts of work taken and grades obtained by the members of teachers college faculties will make possible a number of studies of the relationship between training and successful teaching in

teachers colleges which are not now possible. Studies have been made concerning the total amounts of academic and professional preparation, but no extensive study has been made of the kind of preparation secured. This is the phase of the problem that Dr. Phelps' study will stress.

The second study to remain incompletd is the one on the teachers college library. Clyde Hill, of the school of education at Yale, undertook to have that study made but the poor health of the man who undertook it caused its abandonment. In the meantime, the committee on standards and surveys has been able to interest George W. Rosenlof in this important problem, and he is planning to make such a study. He can make it very much more valuable to this Association if you are willing to have your librarian cooperate with him. A brief outline of the study he proposes to make has been distributed to you, and if it is your wish to have this study continue under the direction of your committee on standards and surveys it will be pleased to receive any suggestions from you concerning the scope of the study.

A Proposed Study of the Teachers College Libraries

To Be Made By George W. Rosenlof
Teachers College, University of Nebraska, Lincoln

THE PROBLEM STATED.

It is the purpose of this study to

- a. Discover the present status of teachers college libraries as to the number and classification of books and periodicals.
- b. Propose upon the basis of these findings certain standards governing a teachers' college library and
- c. Suggest certain means whereby these standards might be attained.

SOURCES OF DATA.

1. A detailed data blank covering:
 - a. The number of books and periodicals and their classification.
 - b. Types of indexes and readers' guides and librarian's aids.
 - c. Records of accessions of books and periodicals.
 - d. Library personnel.
 - e. Policies regarding selection of books, range of such, selection and the manner of selection.
 - f. Policies regarding duplication of books.
 - g. Adequacy of support for purchase of books and periodicals.
 - h. Nature of training-school library and children's library.
 - i. Textbook exhibit rooms.
2. Check lists of certain periodicals and professional books.
3. Catalog study to determine student enrolments, curricula offerings and faculty personnel and the relation of these to the library facilities.
4. Existing studies of libraries bearing any relation to this proposed study.

5. Personal visits to selected typical teachers colleges to supplement the information detailed under items 1, 2, and 3.

PROCEDURE.

Data blanks will be sent to all colleges selected for this study calling for information as indicated above. An analysis, evaluation and statistical treatment of all facts will be made to get a picture of the whole situation.

This data will be treated objectively and subjectively in order to make certain proposals of standards to be accepted by teachers colleges. Means for attaining these standards will be further suggested.

Due to the splendid cooperation of the members of this Association we are able to present some of the results of one of the studies planned for this meeting. Noble Lee Garrison, of the state teachers college at Ypsilanti, had some of the significant findings of his study of the training and status of training school teachers mailed to you from the president's office and is prepared to present some of his other findings from this study at this time. In the light of Professor Garrison's results, as well as those obtained by L. B. McMullen in his study of the service load of training teachers, you are now in a much better position than ever before to study your standards governing the work of the training schools and revise them in a way to make this most important element in a teacher training institution more efficient.

Due to the inability of President G. W. Frasier, of Colorado State Teachers College of Greeley, Colorado, to attend this meeting, your committee is unable to report on the fourth of the proposed topics. It is, however, very fortunate in securing from Earle U. Rugg, head of the department of education of the Colorado State Teachers College, a report on the findings of the commonwealth fund study of social sciences in teachers colleges that bear upon the standards of admission and graduation requirements in those schools. Dr. Rugg's report, which appears on page 84 makes it very evident that there is an unnecessary, wasteful, and confusing lack of uniformity in both terminology and practice. It is earnestly hoped that after the adoption of the standards by the Association that a real effort will be made to make catalogs and other announcements conform to the standards adopted.

In this connection it is interesting to mention the results of a series of studies that are being made this year under the direction of Thomas Alexander and W. C. Bagley by the students in the major course in normal school education at Teachers College, Columbia University. These studies include an intensive study from 1926 catalogs of normal schools and teachers colleges of the courses offered in the various subjects and the contents of those courses as indicated by the catalog descriptions. The same confusing diversity is shown in all of these fields. One sample will indicate the need for more attention to this problem. In the report of the committee that made the study of psychology, as presented by Marian E. MacDonald, it was shown that in 155 state normal schools

and teachers colleges there were 897 courses in psychology with 182 different titles. In child study there were 93 courses with 18 different titles, and in abnormal psychology there were 25 courses with 11 different titles. This study showed also a very wide overlapping of topics between the different courses. Many topics, such as "Original Nature," "Individual Differences," "Transfer of Training," "Emotions," and "Imagination" occur in four or more of the principal fields of psychology.

It would seem from these studies and from other investigations of this problem, one of the recent and thorough studies of this problem was made by Dean Crabbe, of the state teachers college at Bowling Green, Kentucky, and appears in the *Peabody Contributions to Education*, that our teachers colleges are at present supporting a wasteful variety of courses. As we know more specifically the tasks to be done by a teacher in a certain position, there will be less reason for wide ranges of electives. It will be more accurately known what each course has to contribute to the successful completion of those tasks, and the length and contents of the course will be determined by the time it takes to make those contributions. At present, however, the great variety of titles is certain to produce one or all of the following undesirable results:

1. It will cause numerous complications in the administration of our teachers colleges in such matters as preparing programs for students, transferring students, accrediting institutions, arranging daily schedules, and providing for a maximum use of the classrooms. All of these are expensive in administrative time and money.

2. It will tend to promote the development of new courses with slightly changed titles and contents which make but slight contributions to a better adaptation of the school's offerings to the individual's needs. This duplication or multiplication of courses will result in competition for students with its inevitable uneven groupings and expensive small classes.

3. It will also tend to strengthen departmental groupings and thereby hinder if it does not prevent, the better coordination between subject-matter fields which is essential if all the courses are to be made professional in their treatment.

Is it not time to have a serious attempt, sponsored by this Association, to agree upon the titles for courses and the principal items to be included in each course for at least a minimum *core* of the courses needed for the professional preparation of teachers for the public schools? Such a core would at present leave a wide range of electives and would not need to provide too specifically for differentiation between groups of teachers, since in most cases the necessary differences would be provided for by the selection of different material under the same general topics. It is my opinion that if such a minimum group of subjects could be agreed upon by the Association and the courses in these fields reduced or combined to conform to them that the teachers colleges of this country would materially increase their efficiency and still find that there was more than enough freedom for all the institutional and departmental individuality need to adapt the work offered to the peculiar needs of any community or any particular group of students.

THE TREND TOWARD STANDARDIZATION IN TEACHERS COLLEGES

EARLE U. RUGG, HEAD OF THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, COLORADO
STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, GREELEY, COLORADO

The evidence that I shall report this morning is to be taken from the recent study of the professional preparation of teachers of social studies in teachers colleges and normal schools. Doubtless many of you will recall the preliminary report on this study made to you at the Cincinnati meeting in 1925 by N. H. Dearborn, at that time educational assistant of the commonwealth fund and in charge of the investigation by a committee¹ of this Foundation. Following Dr. Dearborn's appointment to the New York State Department of Education it was impossible for him to complete the report, and in August, 1926, I was asked to prepare the data gathered for publication.

In view of the unavoidable absence at this meeting of some of the speakers who were to report for the Committee on Standards and Surveys I was asked last night by Dr. Evenden, chairman of the committee, to report to you some of the facts in our study that relate to the proposed standards of this association. I shall confine my remarks to the evidence we have gathered concerning entrance, residence, graduation, and certification requirements and to a general interpretation of the status of the curriculum in teachers colleges. While this report is primarily concerned with the preparation of teachers of the social studies, nevertheless, the committee did attempt to ascertain the facts concerning the general requirements of training all teachers, irrespective of their choice of majors. Hence I wish you would think of the facts discovered concerning entrance, graduation, certification, and the like as data that will perhaps throw some light upon the present status of teacher-training in teachers colleges and normal schools.

I have been much interested in the discussions of this association concerning standards. The recent expansion and transformation of teacher-training institutions have raised many problems. A further complication is the fact that there are diverse functions apparent in the institutions represented in this association and consequently different points of view concerning the proper activities of teacher-training institutions. The hopeful sign, however, is that those responsible for the programs of teachers colleges and normal schools are becoming critical of present theory and practice and are endeavoring to set up standards or objectives toward which institutions should strive.

¹ The committee consists of: R. D. Calkins, Professor of Geography, Mt. Pleasant Normal School, Michigan; N. H. Dearborn, Chief of the Division of Teacher Training and Certification, New York State Department of Education; J. M. Gambrill, Professor of the Teaching of History, Teachers College, Columbia University; Ernest Horn, Professor of Education, State University of Iowa; Harold Rugg, Educational Psychologist, The Lincoln School of Teachers College, and R. M. Tryon, Professor of the Teaching of History, University of Chicago.

TABLE I—SHOWING THE REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO
TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN 710 CURRICULA OF
THE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS THROUGHOUT
THE COUNTRY

Requirements For Entrance

Total

The word accredited is used for any of the following:

Approved	
Accepted	
Commissioned	
Standard	
First Grade	
Recognized	
Standard First Class	
First Class	
Graduate of accredited high school.....	282
“ “ “ “ “ 16 units	19
“ “ high school	42
“ “ secondary school	6
Class A	
Graduate of accredited high school or equivalent	
“ “ “ “ “ 16 units	93
“ “ high school or equivalent.....	2
“ “ secondary	14
15 Units accredited high school.....	39
15 “ “ “ “ or equivalent	4
15 “ “ “ “ designated	7
15 “ “ “ “ (2 units Soc. Sc.).....	
15 “ “ “ “ (1 unit Soc. Sc.).....	2
15 “ secondary school	10
15 “ high school work or equivalent.....	3
15 “ high school, Age 16, good health and morals.....	3
16 Units accredited high school.....	18
16 “ “ “ “ or equivalent	
Graduate of accredited high school, Age 16.....	9
“ “ high school, Girls 15, Boys 16.....	5
“ “ “ “ , Good health	22
“ “ “ “ , Good health and morals	12
“ “ accredited high school, Play piano.....	
“ “ “ “ “ , Permission of Pres.....	1
“ “ “ “ “ , Good health, sing, play.....	2
“ “ “ “ “ , Good health and morals.....	
“ “ “ “ “ , Sing and play.....	
“ “ “ “ “ , Age 16	
“ “ “ “ “ , Resident of New Jersey.....	6
“ “ “ “ “ , 2 units Soc. Sci.....	11
“ “ “ “ “ , 16 yr., Good health.....	8
High School graduate, 16 yr., Good health.....	6
“ “ “ “ & First Grade certificate.....	1
“ “ “ “ or those with County Certificate.....	4
“ “ “ “ or equivalent, Age 16.....	2
“ “ “ “ and health certificate.....	12
“ “ “ “ Good health and morals.....	1
“ “ “ “ Age 16	
High school graduation, Play piano.....	1
“ “ “ “ and Good health.....	4
“ “ “ “ and 3 yrs. Teaching.....	1
Grad. of Accredited H. S. or Equiv., Age 16.....	5
“ “ “ “ “ “ Age 16, Health and Morals....	4
“ “ “ “ “ “ Good health.....	8
“ “ “ “ “ “ Age 18, Sing, Play.....	3

Tentative standards are necessary. But they should be based upon evidence of present practice and possible trends and developments. The evidence I shall report rests chiefly upon analyses of catalogs of approximately 180 teachers colleges and normal schools. While I am aware of the danger of interpretations based largely upon "paper" requirements yet I am convinced that certain tentative conclusions are justified. There is, of course, serious need for further study of the problems raised.

Evidence Concerning Entrance Requirements

One of the first general problems studied in our investigation was entrance requirements. In the past, particularly in many of our normal schools, entrance requirements did not necessarily imply the completion of the present fifteen units of secondary work in an accredited high school. Secondary and college work were so intermixed that it was difficult to distinguish the two. Today, if our data from catalog analyses are correct, teachers colleges and normal schools demand that students show evidence of having completed the work of a four-year high school.

TABLE I—SHOWING THE REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION TO TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS IN 710 CURRICULA OF THE TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS THROUGHOUT THE COUNTRY—Continued

Grad. of Accredited H. S. or Equiv., Good health and morals.....	7
Grad. Accredited Sec. Sch., 2 units Soc. Sci.....	4
“ Class A “ “ Good health and Morals.....	4
“ High School, First grade certificate.....	
Advanced diploma from Normal.....	1
Graduate Colleges and Normals.....	3
Graduate Colleges and Universities.....	3
Completion Elementary Rural course or equivalent.....	1
High school education.....	1
4 years Collegiate credit.....	1
Unknown	13
Total	710

While the completion of secondary work is implied in all the institutions under review the statements of entrance requirements (55 of them) vary apparently in two respects. In the first place, there are many phrases used to define secondary work such as *accredited*, *class A*, and the number of units equivalent to four years of high school work—fifteen or sixteen. In the second place additional qualifications are imposed such as good health, minimum age, morals, and musical ability.¹

¹ An unpublished study by F. X. Karrer, on file in the Department of Normal School Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, of 141 teachers colleges and normal schools shows that 39 require evidence of good moral character, 35 require a health certificate for entrance, 64 prescribe a minimum age requirement—range 13 to 18 years—and 40 require the candidate to sign a pledge to teach, or failing to do so to refund to the state the cost of his training.

The one vague point concerning entrance requirements, at least in my own interpretation, is the fact that in 117 frequencies of 710 curricula under review in the 180 teachers colleges and normal schools the phrase "or equivalent" is used. The real implications of this phrase are apparently not entirely clear. It may permit many exceptions to the requirement of standard secondary work. It seemingly permits conditional entrance, exemption on the basis of tests and the like. Yet the tentative standards of this association also sanction the use of the phrase. "Equivalence for entrance units of secondary school work shall be determined only by regularly scheduled written examinations, which shall be of such character as to satisfy the committee on admissions of the college that the applicant is fully prepared to do college work as hereinafter defined."¹

Apparently as far as catalog statements of entrance requirements are concerned and aside from an acceptance of "equivalent" work, teachers colleges and normal schools are insisting upon the prerequisite of satisfactory completion of secondary work. To me this is distinct evidence of standardization, at least as to the amount of secondary work, concerning one basic criterion of professional work—namely, that all professional work and training of teachers shall be collegiate in rank. As to any possible overlapping in the character of college work and secondary work one cannot state. In the light of the findings of Koos in his study of the junior college²—and perhaps to be found in much of the first two years of all college work including that of teacher-training institutions—it is perhaps doubtful that such work is entirely collegiate in character, even though rated as such in terms of amount of education prior to entrance to college. I merely wish to call attention to the need of qualitative studies as well as quantitative studies.

Evidence Concerning Residence and Graduation Requirements

The second type of data I wish to discuss, will, I believe, throw some light upon the amount of work needed by prospective teachers. Professional schools today generally demand at least four years or 120 semester hours of college work. But teacher-training institutions, as we shall point out subsequently, as yet have not the legal protection in certification to demand this minimum; in fact, for elementary teaching two years of college work is even today apparently an ideal. This association recognizes this condition in its own standards. After stating the standard for a teachers college to be the completion of 120 semester hours of credit, it recognizes the institutions with two-year and three-year curricula as normal schools or "junior teachers colleges." While no data were gathered on the relative proportion of students in four and less than four-year curricula, it is my conviction as a result of studying the related evidence of certification,

¹ Section B, II. Standards for Accrediting Teachers Colleges, American Association of Teachers Colleges.

² Koos, L. V. *The Junior College*. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5, 2 vols. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1924.

etc., that even today the majority of students in training for teaching activity are candidates for curricula of less than four years in length.¹

The arts college—an institution that apparently furnishes most secondary teachers today—does tend to obtain the minimum professional qualitative standard of 120 semester hours. This standard is largely attained because of the activities of accrediting associations composed of representatives of both the secondary schools and the colleges, and because the arts college does not offer any certificate or degree short of the completion of four years of work. Teachers colleges which only in recent years have undertaken to conform to maximum standards of certification and thereby to make their students eligible for appointment to secondary positions in accredited four-year high schools are apparently also demanding four years of college training.

There are, however, several obstacles yet to be overcome before adequate interpretation can be made of what constitutes residence standards. In the first place there is a variety of terms used for recording scholastic credits. Accounting for residence work is chaotic. Twenty-one different terms were found in use in the 180 institutions under review. With such terms as credits, college hours, periods, term hours, semester hours, credit hours, and the like in use, it is difficult to generalize concerning any standard amount of work required for any particular type of curriculum such as kindergarten-primary, intermediate, grammar grades, etc. Furthermore, there is considerable variety in the number of terms in an academic year, the titles and number of weeks. The majority of these institutions have either two or three terms. The weeks in a semester range from 15 to 21 and in a quarter from 10 to 14.

While it is perhaps too much to expect teachers colleges and normal schools to reach unanimous agreement upon the type of term to follow and the number of weeks in such a term, it is evident, nevertheless, that an investigation should be made of what constitutes proper accounting for residence work. Secondary institutions have been so standardized with attendant values to all officers of administration undertaking to satisfy themselves concerning the secondary credits of a student. In view of frequent transfers and the increasing number of students who continue their professional work even up to graduate levels some standardization in accounting for credits would make the proper interpretation of residence work more tangible to all who have occasion to examine the transcripts of the students—officers in other colleges to which a student may transfer, in state departments who issue certificates and to superintendents and school boards who employ teachers. The next phase of the general teacher-training problem with which our study dealt pertains to certificates issued upon the completion of various curricula.

¹In my own institution, Colorado State Teachers College, approximately three-fourths of the students are candidates for the two-year life certificate of Colorado.

TABLE II—SHOWING THE NUMBER AND NAMES OF CERTIFICATES, DIPLOMAS, LICENSES AND DEGREES OFFERED UPON THE COMPLETION OF DIFFERENT CURRICULA IN TERMS OF LENGTH AND KIND

<i>Certificates</i>		<i>Total</i>	
<i>Total</i>		3	Permanent Normal State
4 Advanced		8	" Elementary
1 Advanced Rural		1	" Normal School
1 Advanced Rural State		2	" High School
10 Certificate		2	Primary, Class B
1 Certificate to Teach		1	Probationary State
1 Certificate Valid for 4 yrs.		1	Professional Elementary
1 Certificate of qualifications as		1	Regents'
Kdg.-Prim. Teacher		1	Rural School
5 Certificate of Graduation		1	State
1 Class "A" Professional Elem.		2	" Normal
1 Class "B" Elem. Professional		1	" Five-year Elementary
1 College Elem.—valid for 2 yrs.		2	Special Teachers'
3 Elementary		10	Second Grade Professional
2 " College		1	" " Professional, 2 yrs.
1 " School Spec. Teachers'		3	Short Course Teachers'
1 " School B Teachers'		1	" " Equivalent
2 " First Class		1	" Normal Course
1 " Rural		1	Two-year State
1 " valid for 2 yrs.		1	Teachers' Life
3 " Teachers'		3	Temporary High School—First
1 Elementary valid for 4 yrs.		Class	
2 " Professional		1	Two-year Diploma Course
6 First Grade		1	" " "
2 " " State		1	" " Class A
3 " " County Elementary		1	" " Kindergarten
2 " " Normal School		2	Teachers', Class A
1 " " Rural		2	30 hr., valid for 2 yrs.
2 Four year Kindergarten			<i>Diplomas</i>
1 " " Elementary		22	Advanced
2 " " High School		1	" 3-year
2 General Elementary State		24	Diploma
1 " " Teachers'		2	" , one-year.
1 Graded School		6	" of graduation
1 Grammar Grade, Class B		3	" good for 1 yr. in Wisc.
1 High School Life		5	Elementary
2 High School Teachers'—valid for		2	Elementary School Teachers'
6 yrs.		2	Graduate Normal School
1 High School Teachers'		1	General Professional
2 High School Certificate — First		1	Junior College
Class—valid for 2 yrs.		1	Kindergarten-Primary Teachers'
2 Junior		21	Life
<i>Total</i>		3	Licentiates
2 Kindergarten			<i>Total</i>
2 Kindergarten-Primary Teachers'		22	Normal
1 Kindergarten-Primary Proficiency		32	Normal School
1 Kindergarten-Primary		4	Normal School Elementary
48 Life		2	Non-Professional
1 Life Elementary State		1	One-year
8 Limited, valid for 3 yrs.		1	State
5 Limited Normal School		2	Standard Normal
7 Normal School		1	Special
4 Normal Professional		4	Special, in Elem. Education
2 " —valid for 5 yrs.		10	Two-year
1 " School Elementary		1	Teachers'
3 One Year State		2	Teachers' College
4 Permanent			

TABLE II—SHOWING THE NUMBER AND NAMES OF CERTIFICATES, DIPLOMAS, LICENSES AND DEGREES OFFERED UPON THE COMPLETION OF DIFFERENT CURRICULA IN TERMS OF LENGTH AND KIND—Continued

<i>Total</i>	<i>Licenses</i>	<i>Total</i>	
1	First Grade	1	Degree and Permanent High School Certificate
1	First Class Elem. Teachers'	2	Diploma and Normal Professional Certificate
4	Intermediate or Grammar Grade	1	Elem. Diploma and Professional Certificate
3	Life	1	First Grade County Elem. Cert. and Co. H. S. Cert.
1	Primary Teachers'—First Grade	1	General Elem. Cert. and Degree
2	Rural School Teachers'	1	Institute Diploma and Normal Professional Cert.
11	Temporary License or Diploma	1	Kindergarten License and Kindergarten Certificate
	<i>Degrees</i>	3	Life Cert. and Special Proficiency Cert.
29	A. B.	1	Life Cert. and Special Junior High Cert.
12	A. B. in Education	1	Life Cert. and Proficiency Kindergarten Cert.
21	A. B. or B. S.	4	Normal School Diploma and First Grade Certificate
8	B. S.	2	Normal School Diploma and Third Grade Certificate
11	B. S. in Education	2	Normal School Diploma and Normal Professional Certificate
1	B. Pd.	2	One-year Diploma and First Grade Certificate
6	Bachelors' Degree	1	Pd. M. and Life Certificate
8	Ed. B.	1	Permanent Kindergarten Cert. and A. B.
1	M. Di.	2	State Cert. and Life Diploma
	<i>Combinations Given</i>	2	Sophomore Diploma and Permanent Elem. Certificate
3	A. B. in Ed. and First Class Professional Certificate	1	Special Diploma with State Teacher's Cert. "B"
1	A. B. in Ed. and Life Certificate	2	Teachers' Diploma and State Elementary Certificate
1	A. B. and 4-year Diploma	1	Three-year Diploma and Life Elementary Certificate
1	A. B. and Permanent H. S.	1	Teachers' Diploma and Special Certificate
1	A. B. or B. S. and First Grade High School License	1	60-hour Diploma and Life Cert.
1	Advanced 3-year Diploma and High School License	2	90-hour Diploma and Life Cert.
4	B. S. in Ed. and State Life High School Certificate	1	120-hour Diploma and Life Certificate and B. S. in Ed.
1	B. S. in Ed. and Life Professional Certificate	1	190-hour Diploma and Life Certificate
2	B. S. and Permanent H. S. Cert.	116	No statement of what is granted
2	B. S. and Prof. Collegiate Cert.		
2	B. S. in Ed. and Life Cert.	710	Total
3	Diploma and State Cert.		
3	Diploma and Life Cert.		
2	Diploma and Standard Cert.		
3	Diploma and Permanent Elem. Certificate		
3	Diploma and State Provisional Certificate		
1	Diploma and Intermediate Cert. Class "B"		
1	Diploma and State License		
1	Diploma and First Grade Elem. Certificate		
2	Diploma and Standard Cert.		
1	Diploma and Grade Certificate Class "B"		

Again may I call attention to the fact that the possession of a bachelor's degree from a standard college (implying the satisfactory completion of some definitely organized four-year curriculum) is recognized and tangible

evidence of the residence work of the holder of the degree. It is evidence of the amount and, in part at least, of the character of the collegiate training received.

When we turn to the evidence (Table II) of residence work set forth in some certificate testifying to the satisfactory completion of some particular curriculum in a teachers college or normal school, we find not one definite type of certificate but a tremendous variety of certificates. As Table II shows, there are over 160 kinds of certificates, diplomas, licenses, and degrees; at least different in name if not in character. With but thirteen exceptions and even those with relatively low frequencies, no particular kind of certificate, diploma, or license is found in more than ten of the 710 curricula under review in our investigation. While many imply equivalent work, yet the limits of imagination surely have been strained in this amazing variety of terminology.

General Curriculum Practices

Connected closely to the problem of residence is the character of the residence work. We have thus far emphasized the trends toward standardizing all professional work by insisting that it be collegiate in rank and that in amount it should represent four years of college work with a tangible recognized degree testifying to the satisfactory completion of a given curriculum.

The trend in professional schools is clearly to select the subjectmatter to be taught in terms of the material needed by the student in his chosen profession. In other words, the training of the student must be professional in character in addition to being collegiate in rank. In our investigation we tabulated all of the required subjectmatter prescribed in teachers colleges and normal schools.

TABLE III.—PERCENT OF SUBJECTMATTER THAT TEACHERS COLLEGES REQUIRE IN VARIOUS CURRICULA—KINDERGARTEN, PRIMARY, INTERMEDIATE, ETC.—AND IN LENGTH OF CURRICULA. (SUMMARY TABLE)

All subjects required	1 year graduates	2 year graduates	3 year graduates	4 year graduates	Average 1-4 year graduates
Education.....	35.21	31.46	32.79	23.88	30.88
English.....	17.40	13.73	9.72	10.10	12.73
Social Studies.....	10.95	11.88	11.88	13.43	12.03
Science.....	6.68	10.61	8.76	7.15	8.30
Fine Arts.....	6.25	8.10	9.32	2.33	6.50
Mathematics.....	5.90	3.06	2.38	2.80	3.53
Industrial Arts.....	1.33	1.20	1.56	1.21	1.32
Foreign Language.....	.53	.37	.60	.70	.54
Domestic Arts.....	.71	.70	.02	.33	.44
Electives.....	15.55	19.40	20.62	36.98	23.13

Table III shows several important practices concerning required materials. At present there is an assumption that the professional training of a teacher is to be obtained through courses in education and psychology and through so-called methods courses. The remainder of the required work of the student is apparently general cultural materials, organized with little reference to their value to a prospective teacher either as to content she will teach or as to background materials for her subsequent teaching activity. One notes a progressive decrease in the amount of strictly professional materials dealing with education and psychology as subjects from one-year to four-year curricula, though even for the four-year curriculum, education and psychology constitute nearly one-fourth of the total amount of work prescribed. Furthermore, it was found that in the work in the social studies (and in all likelihood in other subjects) the materials were predominantly non-professionalized. The courses listed as methods courses and presumably emphasizing the professional treatment of subject-matter constitute but 17.2 percent of the courses investigated. This slight emphasis to professional treatment of subjectmatter is confirmed by a personal study of the courses in 26 representative teachers colleges and normal schools. In this personal consultation with instructors in these 26 institutions it was discovered that the instructors claimed to professionalize their materials in but 22.46 percent of the courses in these institutions. This confirmation apparently means that aside from methods courses, there is as yet little trend toward making required materials in fields aside from education and psychology professional in character.

Table III does not set forth the detailed materials required; it but gives us proportionate emphasis to the types of subjectmatter required: English, social studies, science, and the like. We note that material classified as

TABLE IV.—SUMMARY OF THE NUMBER AND PERCENT OF DIFFERENT TITLES OF COURSES IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

A. As found in analysis of catalogs of 184 teachers colleges and normal schools			B. As found in 26 teachers colleges personally investigated		
	Total No.	Percent		Total No.	Percent
I. History.....	775	50.6	I. History.....	92	45.4
II. Geography.....	336	29.1	II. Geography.....	50	24.5
III. Sociology.....	118	7.7	III. Sociology.....	21	10.2
IV. Economics.....	108	7.06	IV. Economics.....	16	7.8
V. Social Science.....	27	1.8	V. Social Science.....	0	0.0
VI. Civics.....	165	10.9	VI. Civics.....	25	12.2
Grand total.....	1529		Grand total.....	204	

English and social comprise one-fourth of the total required materials and one-third of the non-professional materials, those materials not classified as education and psychology.

While this investigation deals in detail only with the social studies the conclusions concerning required social studies should be noted in order to set in relief certain features of present training in a typical content field.

It is apparently agreed that the character of the work offered prospective teachers should be standardized. What the criteria for determining the required materials should be are not as yet clear. But there is a decided trend in recent discussions of the problem to set up the activities of the teacher—the duties and difficulties of teaching and the actual materials she elects to teach—as the chief factor determining what the required courses she should take. The evidence¹ gathered in this investigation shows literally but slight agreement in the courses offered, not to mention those required. A high degree of specialization is evident, for in this investigation of the courses offered in the social studies 1529 different titles of courses were found in catalog analyses of 180 institutions, and 204 different titles were found in the 26 institutions personally studied. Table IV shows the percent of different titles² in the respective social studies. A comparison of different titles in percents of the respective social studies offered present parallel evidence on the variety of titles, for example, in the former study one notes that 5.06 percent of the different titles were those dealing with history content and in the latter study 45.4 percent dealt with history content.

Not only should the content of the curriculum in a teachers college be professionalized, that is, taught in the light of the needs of prospective teachers for this material in their subsequent teaching activity, but the courses offered must include above all and primarily the actual materials that prospective majors in any field will need. The materials can easily be determined by analysis of progressive public school practice. While it is a further obligation of teachers colleges to train prospective teachers to become critical of the public school curriculum so that they as teachers in service will be equipped to participate in adaptations of the curriculum to changing contemporary needs, yet the fundamental demand is to train teachers to teach in terms of what may be called progressive public school practice. It is my conviction that such practice is the chief criterion for determining the materials to be taught in a teachers college. The method of presenting these materials is fundamentally to professionalize them; that is, to teach this content involved as material collegiate in rank, to teach the objectives of such materials, methods of teaching them and the underlying

¹ Two types of evidence were gathered: (1) Analyses of requirements in the catalogs of approximately 180 teachers colleges and normal schools, and (2) personal intensive study of the practices in 26 representative teacher-training institutions.

² The actual lists of different titles embrace many pages and hence it is possible to but summarize the percents of different titles in the various social studies—history, geography, civics, economics, and sociology.

psychology of them, evaluation in terms of tests and that supplementary literature which will tend to equip the prospective teacher with "margins" and broad "backgrounds" beyond the actual materials embraced in the public school course of study. If the character of the courses in the social studies, analyzed in our investigation, is a sample of other content fields there is a decided demand for reorganization of professionalized subject-matter fields.

One further condition evident in Table III (percent of subjectmatter required in various curricula) that demands comment pertains to electives. One notes a rather high prescription in the one and two-year curricula—over 80 percent. But in contrast almost 40 percent of the work for the four-year curricula in the institutions under review is elective. Clearly something is wrong in a professional institution when almost two fifths of the work is left to student choice—to chance selection and whim of the student. The entire implication of prolonged professional work such as is found in medicine and law is that several years of training, collegiate in rank and professional in character, is essential to the proper education of a prospective lawyer or doctor. And the work is highly prescribed. One trend toward standardization is toward increased prescription in terms of differentiated courses. The obstacles found in blanket certification and variety of teaching activities for beginners in the field must be taken into account. Differentiation while desirable must not go to an extreme that fails to equip teachers for actual conditions of supply and demand in the field.

Confronted with the fact that much of the present residence, preservice training is elective and non-professionalized it is apparently clear that serious attention should be given to the matter of standardization of the curriculum. It is my conviction that concern for mere sequence of work, however important that may be, is at best decidedly insufficient to provide for standard curricula for various types of teaching activity. We have pointed out that there is literally no agreement—in fact virtual chaos—in residence courses offered in one important content field. In all likelihood there exists similar chaos in other content fields. Clearly there is need for studies which will tend to promote at least those desirable measures of uniformity in curricular prescription ascertained from analysis of public school practices to be essential in equipping teachers for specific types of teaching activity.

Certification Practices

Although not actually a part of our study of the general administrative practices of teachers colleges and normal schools there is one feature of teacher training—certification—that is closely related to the general practices of teachers colleges in training teachers. While certification is a state function, teacher-training institutions can in reality rise no higher in their attempt to standardize their training than the standards of certification set

by state law. It is apparently a consensus of judgment that any profession must be protected from unqualified and untrained persons. At present a considerable proportion of teachers have entered the ranks of teaching via other channels, particularly by "passing" teachers' examinations, than via the training offered in teacher-training institutions.¹

TABLE V.—CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS—MINIMUM AND HIGHEST GRADE—ELEMENTARY AND HIGH SCHOOL

Elementary Teachers

	Lowest grade ¹ high school training	Certificate professional training	Highest grade certificate college training (above H.S.)
Alabama.....			12 weeks
Arizona.....	4 yrs.	10 sem. hrs.	2 years
Arkansas.....		None	
Colorado.....		None ²	2 years
Illinois.....			2 years
Indiana.....	4 yrs.	30 sem. hrs.	2 years
Iowa.....		12 sem. hrs.	4 years
Kansas.....			2 years
Louisiana.....	4 yrs. or equivalent	5 sem. hrs.	2 years
Maryland.....		5 sem. hrs.	2 years
Michigan.....	4 yrs.	5 ³ sem. hrs.	2 years
Minnesota.....			2 years
Missouri.....	2 yrs.	0	2 years
New Jersey.....	4 yrs.	10 sem. hrs.	12 weeks
New Mexico.....			3 years
North Dakota.....		0	Normal train. in H. S.
North Carolina.....			4 years
Ohio.....	4 yrs.	30 ⁴ sem. hrs.	2 years
Oklahoma.....			2 years
Oregon.....	4 yrs.	20 sem. hrs.	2 years
Pennsylvania.....	4 yrs.	8 sem. hrs.	
Rhode Island.....			2 years
South Carolina.....		0	2 years
South Dakota.....		5 sem. hrs.	2 years
Texas.....		0	2 years
Utah.....	4 yrs.	30 sem. hrs.	2 years
Virginia.....	2 yrs.	0	1 year
Washington.....	4 yrs.	12 sem. hrs.	
West Virginia.....		0 ⁵	2 years
Wisconsin.....	2 yrs.	30 sem. hrs.	2 years

¹ 30 sem. hrs. after July, 1925.

² H. S. graduation and 12 sem. hrs. after Sept., 1925.

³ 30 sem. hrs. after Sept., 1925.

⁴ Since Jan. 1, 1924.

⁵ Two years beginning Sept. 1, 1927.

¹ As late as 1918 it was estimated that one sixth of the teaching staff in the United States had not attended school beyond the high school.

Table V shows certification requirements in about 30 states.¹ The important feature to note is the minimum requirements for certification. Of 24 states with data available concerning elementary teachers only, only ten (about 40 percent) apparently require as much academic school training as that represented by the completion of high school work. About 40 percent of the states under review also fail to require professional courses.

High School Teachers

	Minimum	Maximum coll. gr.	Prof. sem. hrs.	Educ. psych.	Psych.	Princ. educ.	Meth. teach.	Pract. teach.
Alabama.....	3 yrs.	Yes	18-30	x	x	x	x	x
Arizona.....	4 yrs.	Yes	18	x	x	x		
Arkansas.....	0 yrs.	Yes	18					
California.....	4½ yrs.							
Colorado.....	4 yrs.	Yes	20					x
Illinois.....	0 yrs.	Yes	12	x		x		
Indiana.....	3 yrs.	Yes	15	x		x		x
Iowa.....	0 yrs.	Yes	20	x		x	x	
Kansas.....	0 yrs.	Yes	18	x	x			
Louisiana.....	4 yrs.	Yes	0					
Maryland.....	4 yrs.	Yes	11 2-9				x	x
Michigan.....		Yes	11					
Minnesota.....		Yes	15				x	x
Missouri.....		Yes	25	(State	teachers	colleges also issue)		
New Jersey...	1 yr.	Yes	9 1-6	x			x	
New Mexico...	4 yrs.	Yes	12					
North Dakota..	0	Yes	16					
North Carolina	2 yrs.	Yes	18					
Ohio.....	2 yrs.	Yes	15	x	x	x	x	x
Oklahoma.....	2 yrs.	Yes	24		x			
Oregon.....	0	Yes	15					
Pennsylvania..								
Rhode Island..	4 yrs.	Yes	12					
South Carolina	0	Yes	12					
South Dakota..	0	Yes	15					
Texas.....	0	Yes	24				x	x
Utah.....	4 yrs.	Yes	16		x	x		x
Virginia.....	12 sem. hrs.	Yes	18					
Washington....								
West Virginia.	2 yrs.	Yes	20	x		x	x	x
Wisconsin.....	3 yrs.	Yes						

The minimum state certification requirements for high school teachers are equally deficient. Of the 29 states with data available the average amount of training above high school work is slightly less than two years.

¹ The evidence for this section on certification is based chiefly upon a recent unpublished study by E. I. F. Williams, on file in the Department of Normal School Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Requirements for maximum grade certificates implying fulfillment of highest legal requirements for teaching for elementary teachers show on an average slightly more than two years of college work (but not necessarily in a professional teacher-training course). Only four states permit less than two years of college work, but only three demand more than two¹ years of college work. All states require four years of college work for the highest form of state certificate, but Table V shows little agreement concerning even strictly professional courses (those in education and psychology) demanded of high school teachers.

It should be reiterated that the minimum requirements for certification are of great significance because under conditions of salary and tenure teaching activity for a preponderant proportion of our present corps of teachers is not a life career but of relatively short duration. Under these conditions most prospective teachers will not tend to fulfill more than minimum requirements.

Most teacher-training institutions are created and maintained by the state. If their work is worthy of support, their product—trained teachers—must be protected by proper legal requirements. Not only is protection needed by the institutions employing them but by the children of the land who have the right, with education a crucial contemporary asset, to the best teachers that can be produced. Teacher-training institutions should assume responsibility not only for internal standards that will tend to insure properly trained teachers but also should equally assume leadership in a campaign to insure that only adequately trained teachers be certified to local communities.

Conclusions

1. The data under review apparently show that teachers colleges and normal schools now with the exception of the "loophole" of "equivalent work" uniformly imply that students applying for entrance into these teacher-training institutions must show evidence of having completed satisfactorily the work of a four-year high school. But there is yet a variety of terminology for expressing entrance standards for graduation from high school. Furthermore various additional qualifications are demanded.

2. The evidence concerning residence work is less specific and hence it is difficult to generalize concerning it. The terms and weeks in the terms vary considerably and no standard comparable to the secondary unit is apparent in accounting for residence work. The quantitative requirement of 120 semester hours—now a standard for a degree in the arts college—is apparently met in teachers colleges and normal schools by but a small number of the students because certificates, even for life, are issued for two and three year curricula. While no detailed study was made, it is probable that residence work is further complicated by practices yet prevalent in accepting extension work in the form of correspondence and field courses in partial fulfillment of residence work.

¹It should be noted again that this maximum requirement—two years—for elementary teachers of college training is but half of the minimum amount of college training demanded of other professions.

3. Evidence of satisfactory completion of a given curriculum is decidedly vague. Over 160 different forms of certificates, licenses, diplomas, and degrees are issued by the teachers colleges and normal schools under review. There is little tangible evidence from these certificates comparable to the bachelor's degree from an arts college, of what training a student has had. While the variety may be due in part to lack of uniformity in terminology and in kinds of certificates, diplomas, and licenses issued by the state, yet it is apparent that some measure of uniformity is desirable in the matter of the certificate of record of a prospective teacher.

4. The evidence concerning curriculum standards is equally unsatisfactory. The standard of this association is principally concerned with proper sequence of the teachers college curriculum. Yet the data of the study under review show a tremendous variety in the courses offered even in one field, and little evidence of requiring subjectmatter either in terms of the materials taught in public schools or of professionalizing adequately these materials. In a professional school this treatment of subjectmatter must be clearly different from the treatment of subjectmatter in arts colleges. In the latter the chief outcomes are to be found in the personal satisfactions and cultural education of the student himself; in the former besides enriching the personal equipment of the student there is the tremendous responsibility of insuring that the student when he engages in teaching children knows what and how to teach of the materials he elects to major in as a student. Clearly there is need for detailed investigations of the proper organization of the teachers college curriculum.

5. Certification, while not a direct function of teacher-training institutions, is inextricably bound up with the activities of teachers colleges and normal schools. If such institutions are to standardize their activities, clearly their products must be protected by adequate certification requirements. It is my conviction that the crux of the problem of proper teacher training is to be found in adequate certification laws. Hence teachers colleges and normal schools as state teacher-training institutions must assume leadership in setting up not only internal standards but also must educate the state to prescribe the adequate external standards of certification.

Standards or goals are crucial to progress in any movement. Psychology tells us that theoretically there is no limit to improvement of any mental or physical function. There is vast room for improvement in teacher training. Fact finding is the prerequisite to ascertaining deficiencies. Certain deficiencies and standards or objectives have been pointed out in this discussion. We are thus made conscious of the deficiencies and the standards; where we are and where we should attempt to go. Other fact-finding surveys are being undertaken. Detailed knowledge of what is needed and the spirit of real professional zeal for making teaching comparable to other professions should tend to make us realize adequate standards for teacher training. The problems of public education in contemporary life are such that only properly qualified and trained teachers should be

entrusted with the task of teaching children to do better the things they are going to do anyway, and might do if given consciously directed training in the great educative agency today—the school. The public are disposed to support liberally prolonged, free, tax-supported education because they believe it pays. It is our obligation to show the people that we are attempting to produce the best trained teachers that objective study of the problem enables us to produce. If we do our part it is my conviction that we shall get all the legal, financial, and moral support necessary to accomplish our objectives.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION

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A regular meeting of the Executive Committee of the American Council on Education was held on January 8, 1927, at 10 A. M., in the College Parlor of Barnard College, New York City.

1. Reports were presented as follows:

The bank balances as of December 31, 1926, were, for the Council's general account, \$6,702; for the International fund, \$10,430.

New members have been added since the last meeting as follows:

Constituent—The American Management Association.

Institutional—Lehigh University, Lewis Institute and the University of Washington (Seattle).

The following firms have been invited to become industrial members:

Bausch and Lomb Optical Company, Eastman Kodak Company, Gleason Gear Works, Dennison Manufacturing Company, Henry L. Doherty and Company.

The cooperative experiment with psychological tests for college freshmen shows the following development: 47,000 copies of the 1924 test were purchased by 121 institutions; in 1925, 197 institutions purchased 72,000 copies of the test; up to December 31, 1926, 161 institutions have purchased over 60,000 copies of the test. The first year a subsidy of \$4000 from the Commonwealth Fund was necessary to finance the enterprise. During the second year the additional subsidy required was only \$1000. The experiment is self-supporting this year.

The handbook of American Universities is nearly ready for the printer. All 403 institutions on the Council's accredited list have been invited to send in the required data. All but 7 have either sent it in or promised to do so. Two hundred and forty of these reports have been edited and turned in to the printer and it is expected that all will be in the hands of the printer by February 1, and that the volume will be ready for distribution before the close of the academic year in June.

The 7 fellowships granted by the Committee on Foreign Travel and Study have been awarded and the students are at work abroad. This committee has agreed that the preliminary experiments have shown the plan to be practical and desiring to continue this work has agreed to the Council's suggestion that hereafter it be administered by the Institute of International Education, in accordance with the basic agreement between the Institute and the Council.

2. Budgets for the year 1927 were presented from the Canadian and the United States Committees on the Modern Foreign Language Study. After discussion,

It was voted that the budgets of the Committees on the Modern Foreign Language Study be approved and the director instructed to make payments in accordance therewith.

It was reported that the work of these committees is nearing completion. The first two volumes of the report of the United States Committee have already gone to press. Arrangements have been made whereby every institutional member of the Council will receive a complete set of these reports as issued.

3. The question whether the executive committee desires to suggest further studies to follow the foreign language study was raised and it was the sense of the committee that similar studies, either in English or science, would be most valuable.

4. A letter from the United States Commissioner of Education was presented inviting the Council to participate in the Pan-Pacific Conference on Education, Rehabilitation, Reclamation, and Recreation, called by the President of the United States in conformity with a joint resolution of Congress, to be held at Honolulu, Hawaii, during the week of April 11-16, 1927. After discussion,

It was voted that the invitation of the United States Commissioner of Education to be represented at the Pan-Pacific Conference in Hawaii during the week of April 11-16, 1927, be accepted and that the director be instructed to make suitable arrangements for the proper representation of the Council at the Conference.

5. A letter from John M. Clapp was presented together with a document explaining the project of organizing a Bureau of Language Research under the auspices of the Council of Teachers of English for the purpose of promoting research in the teaching of English and the improvement of English instruction. The letter invited the American Council on Education to appoint a representative on the Board of Directors of the proposed bureau, which would remain under the general supervision of the Council of Teachers of English. It was proposed to secure a grant of \$20,000 to operate this bureau as a clearing-house for research and experiments in the teaching of English. After discussion and the study of the documents presented,

It was voted that the Council express to the Council of Teachers of English its appreciation of the invitation but that, because of the intricate organization of the American Council on Education, the executive committee considers it wise to adhere to its established policy of not establishing formal relations of this sort with other organizations.

6. The director reported that he is proceeding slowly with regard to inviting industrial organizations to become members of the Council in order to insure that there shall be as little duplication of effort and confusion of organization as possible.

It was voted that it is the sense of the executive committee that the proposed type of cooperation with the United States Chamber of Commerce should be encouraged and the director is authorized to continue the development of the project along the lines outlined.

7. It was reported that the National Education Association has reorganized its Legislative Commission and is inviting active cooperation of the state teachers association in educating public opinion to the meaning and importance of the bill to create a Department of Education in the federal government. Few people seem to realize that the present pending bill, the Curtis-Reed, is very different from the earlier bills in that it provides only for an adequate federal office for gathering information and disseminating it, and not for federal subsidies to public education. There is no chance for congressional action on the bill at this short session, and the colleges are certainly interested in the development of an adequate fact-finding federal office in view of the rapidly developing scientific experimentation and the consequent need of more comprehensive data than local organizations can secure. Without record vote, it was the sense of the meeting that the Council should keep in close touch with this development and inform the colleges of the progress and development of plans to create a more adequate federal education office.

8. The Committee on Personnel Methods reported that President L. B. Hopkins has completed his study of personnel procedure in 14 universities and this has been printed as the supplement to the *Educational Record* for October, 1926. Already this report is attracting wide attention. The committee also reported that it has invited each of the 14 institutions that cooperated in the Hopkins study to contribute a written report on that phase of personnel work in which each is particularly expert. These monographs will appear in the *Educational Record* as they are produced.

The committee has agreed that the most useful continuation of the enterprise consists in supplying colleges with record cards, forms for securing vocational information, achievement test blanks, and other such instruments with which to work locally on the personnel problem. The committee has, therefore, formulated a plan for the development of such tools by expert committees, following the technic involved in handling the psychological examination for college freshmen, and is seeking funds for initiation and development of the work until it becomes self-supporting.

9. A telegram from the secretary of the Association of American University Professors was presented in which that association urged the Council to cooperate with other organizations in combating the attack on freedom of teaching manifested in the introduction of bills in state legislatures prohibiting teaching evolution in public schools. It was the sense of the meeting that the Council should cooperate in any effort that seemed wise and constructive, and

It was voted that the director be instructed to confer with the Association of American University Professors, the National Research Council, Science Service, the National Education Association, and others interested, and report at the next meeting.

10. For the information of the committee there was presented a tentative plan for reorganizing the administration of international educational relations, prepared by a subcommittee of the Committee on the American University Union, and involving transfer of greater responsibility in this matter to the Institute of International Education. This report will receive the attention of the Union Committee at the February meeting and will come to the executive committee for action in due course.

11. *It was voted* that the next regular meeting of the Executive Committee be held on March 12, the place to be determined by the Chairman and the Director.

The meeting adjourned to March 12.

THE TEACHING "PROFESSION," LEADERSHIP AND RESPONSIBILITY

GEORGE F. ARPS, DEAN OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO

Dr. Ernst Jackh, erudite German scholar, publicist, and diplomat, in reviewing European political, industrial, and educational problems to a small group, successfully interpreted every interrogation in terms of most surprising optimism. No problem however acute, no distress however great escaped his sublimating process. The sublimity of it all challenged our admiration. One doubting Thomas ventured to disturb the general serenity by the suggestion that European traditions and deep-seated racial animosities do not seem to support a rainbow of such perfect clearness. Instantly Dr. Jackh replied that no synthetic social program is possible, no constructive work of proportion in any field is likely unless the imagination operates in an atmosphere of hope and optimism. Define hope as confident expectation tintured with determination, not vacuous pietism, and optimism as well founded; in fact, not blind, and the universal validity of the Jackhsian principle of service is easily admitted. On no other principle could Germany so readily rehabilitate herself in the eyes of an antagonistic world.

In the foregoing, I perceive, rightly or wrongly, many factors applicable to the nation-wide condition of public education. Notwithstanding the prevailing reverence and enthusiasm for universal education, and the apparent, if not economically real, progress of the past several decades, there is unmistakable evidence of blind optimism and pietistic hope in our lay intelligensia. These qualities are likewise discernible, by and large, in our educational leadership both in so-called higher and lower education. So blind and so optimistic is the sublime indifference of certain lay and professional minds as to suggest on their part a belief, conscious or unconscious, in a special providence. This indifference cannot be a matter of studied intention since it is evident that our present form of social structure and organization is, for the most part, directly dependent upon universal education.

The pedestaled, self-made individual, so-called, is presented as evidence of the ineffectualness of organized systematic education. Such cases act as a sedative to popular support and lend credence to the theory of Divine intervention. The greatest narcotizing influence, on the other hand, consists in the utter ineffectualness of certain adults who as promising children have been afforded the advantages of popular education. Here providential assistance is singularly lacking, while pietistic hope and blind optimism are futile yet bloom perennially in the bosoms of our educational leaders. In these circumstances, supported by an indefinite number of similar circumstances, the "teaching profession" must continue to carry quotation marks.

What are some of these additional circumstances? In 1926 there came to my attention a printed circular carrying the official approval of the highest certificating officer of the state, announcing a Chautauqua form of teacher-training program to be held in a grove some miles distant from the college campus. The proposal was in the nature of extension service, the chief attraction being the environment surrounding the pursuit of professional courses in education. The prospective novitiate, ever mindful of American thoroughness, views the announcement as an opportunity to pursue knowledge, not as the late E. Benjamin Andrews would say, "with unremitting assiduity," but through languid absorption by painless paths sheltered with noble oaks, gently swaying pines and the murmuring hemlocks. Ye gods and pietistic educators: That such a perpetration, such a travesty, such a farce, is still possible! The Commissioner sat upon the proposal, thus ruining what promised to be a candied morsel of teacher-training experimentation.

Recently there came to my attention a very valuable statistical study of the training requirements for entrance to the teaching profession in the various states of the union. One state holds the children—a part of them—in such esteem and worth as to license 4000 teachers without high-school

training. Eighth-grade training presumably is required. The Good Book has something to say about the blind leading the blind and the consequences thereof. I leave to others endowed with greater gastronomic possibilities the task of assimilating this condition under the rubric of hope and optimism.

The county normal school up our way, with its faculty of one, is still dispensing professional wisdom to the educational neophyte. The quantity and quality of professional knowledge resident in one B. A. or B. S., or possible, A. M., is tangible evidence that pansophian erudition, while no longer regarded as possible in the accepted professions or even in a major subject in one of the accepted professions, is healthily flourishing in the profession of teaching. Here psychology, general and educational, history of education, school administration, and principles of education emanate from a single fountain of wisdom. Optimism, yes; hope, yes; but let them not be incorrigibly assinine. Even the Jackhsian radiant principle of interpretation would find difficulty in absorbing such dismal matters.

These low standards of preparation cannot be rationalized although defence reactions are always and everywhere in evidence.

But what shall we say of the two-year standard of preparation for the elementary school teacher? In Ohio all state-supported teacher colleges except one maintain a two-year teacher-training curriculum for the elementary schools. What shall we say? What ought we to say? What will we say? Abolition at the earliest feasible date is the answer to the "ought" question. The "will" question I cannot answer. The "shall" question lies in the lap of the rank and file of the profession. Abolition could be attained by the united action of thirty, more or less, educational leaders of the state, assuming the head of the school system of the state is one of the thirty.

Not until the school master sets his house in order may we expect the much desired social recognition and improvement in economic status. It is probably true that teaching, by and large, has received professional, social and economic recognition as rapidly as the teachers have made themselves worthy. This places the responsibility squarely up to the leaders of education. The public has, as a rule, never completely failed to support an enlightened educational program; it has faltered and occasionally hesitated and then only by reason of the absence of competent leadership. I repeat, the responsibility lies with us and fundamentally nowhere else.

It is related that Augeas, King of Elis, possessed a stable of 3000 oxen and that for a period of 30 years the stable had not been cleaned. Moral: Pedagogue make thyself worthy in thine own and in thy neighbor's eyes. The Holy Grail is at thy door.

Someone has facetiously divided American history into three passing stages: First, the passing of the Indians, second, the passing of the buffalo, and third, the passing of the buck. So long as educational leadership

remains in the third stage so long will the teacher remain outside the pale of social recognition and in the position of suppliant to the public almoner. A profession as well as an individual, in the long run, establishes its own place in the social order. The cartooned school marm is a reflection of the profession's thought about itself.

What applies to the profession of teaching at the present hour applied not more than three decades ago to the profession of medicine. Fortunately, it can be conclusively shown that the Hercules which cleansed the Augean stables of medicine was none other than medical leadership found within the profession itself.

Within my memory and within the memory of most of my listeners the various states of the Union, by negligent legislation or by an attitude of tolerant indifference, suffered to exist in the practice of medicine an intolerable condition which has no parallel in any other profession except that of teaching. The annals of this sordid history are a record of human misery, credulity, and superstition at the hands of quacks, charlatans, impostors, and mountebanks.

Since their inflictions were individual and their sins not infrequently interred with the deceased, these medicinal leeches thrived in the nefarious practices. Mass protest thus remained inarticulate. From this condition the people were delivered not through the collective wisdom of the people but through the intelligent support of a modern Moses by means of private beneficence properly conditioned. Today the degree, doctor of medicine, has acquired a significance in our foremost centers of medical training equivalent to the highest academic degree attainable—the doctorate of philosophy. The profession of medicine is, therefore, prepared to serve humanity with properly trained physicians, not by reason of an insistent public but by reason, for the greater part, of insistent, courageous leadership found within the profession itself. The public is not expected to initiate standards of excellence in any profession, for it is imponderable, often inarticulate, complacent and not infrequently remains indifferent to excellence even in the cultivation of its own children. Indeed, the favored child of democracy is mediocrity.

In speaking of recent advances and reforms in medicine, Dr. Henry S. Williams¹ makes the following significant statements:

The reform has been effected entirely from within the medical profession. New standards have been imposed that have resulted in the closing of more than half the medical schools that were in existence in 1900. Then there were 160 such schools; in 1926 there were but 79. The number of medical graduates decreased from 5214 in 1900 to 3962 in 1926. But more than 60 percent of the newest contingent of graduates were holders of baccalaureate degrees, and no one is now eligible to matriculate in a medical school of standing without having at least two years of preliminary college training.

The medical course explicitly covers four years; extended to the fifth year by an internship, which is everywhere usual, and which in twelve colleges is pre-

¹ *World's Work*, Volume 53, p. 418—1927.

requisite to graduation, and in twelve states prerequisite to registration for practice of medicine.

The profession of teaching, if it may in any real sense be so designated, at its present level of development, is strongly suggestive of the lowest period of inferiority in the history of medical education. Only in respect to motive, integrity of intention and unselfish devotion have the devotees of the art of instruction maintained ascendancy over all other professions save, perhaps, that of the clergy. Good intentions, however, may reside in congenitally dull brains. When little or no professional training is given this native mental slowness the youth is confronted with dullness in its pristine state of ignorance. The social consequences of committing the youth to such tutelage are probably more fatal, socially, than medical charlatanism. In the latter case we have burial of errors; in the former case perpetuation of errors to unborn generations yet to come. If these tragedies in the form of neural scars and abrasions were as visible through the skull as is apparent the scar of a razor slash, it is easily conceivable that the lay intelligensia would move with incredible swiftness in raising the standard of the teaching profession above all other professions, excepting none. It is further conceivable that some of us would forthwith be without our present means of livelihood and that the best brains of the nation would be conscripted for service in the nation's first and foremost business.

The teaching profession finds in its ranks the equivalent of the earlier medical undesirables in the form of the grossly incompetent, the temporary sojourner—as transients and casuals and the political incumbent. This regrettable condition is to a curable extent the responsibility of the profession itself. Proposed standards of preparation for entrants to the profession, with or without the retroactive clause, are studiously avoided save by a negligible minority whose courage probably rests in the security of easy fulfilment. The lack of leadership exhibited by school administrators and those engaged in the training of teachers and found in pronouncements of educational programs is not readily penetrated. It is scarcely admissible that the democratization of the profession has tetanized administrative initiative or otherwise contributed to the general inertia. Whatever may be the reason for the existing unenviable, unattractive, poo-poo status of the profession the remedy as well as the cause are to be found in the profession itself and nowhere else.

In view of the above, the following suggestions are submitted to the end that we may make the profession of teaching worthy of the things we are asking rather than continue conditions which have already received public recognition equivalent, perhaps, to their worth.

First: That educational leadership follow the illustrious example of medicine and turn its attention inward rather than outward. Not until medical leadership set its house in order did the public accord that measure of respect, economic and social, which the profession demanded and which

it now receives. Until the profession of teaching passes through a similar period of serious introspection, construction and reconstruction, it hasn't a sound leg to stand on and should accept its lot with fortitude since the remedy lies within the profession itself. Until the remedy is applied teaching will remain, as it should, lowest in the scale of professions. Moreover, the profession should discontinue the army game and accept the inhospitable fact that society has failed to credit, socially and economically, an educational program in excess of its true, intrinsic worth. This has been the case in the past and there is no reason to believe that it will be otherwise in the future.

Second: Resolve the divergencies of indefinite variety existing among the heads of teacher-training agencies into a unitary standard of teacher-training. In such a standard number should be subordinated to quality, as was the case in medicine. If a shortage results as a consequence of such emphasis, the responsibility is clearly that of the public—those who possess the children and those who do not but who must share in the structure of society. The derivation of such a standard will run afoul of inter-institutional rivalries and perhaps the rank and file who needlessly fear insecurity. The proper solvent for the former is mutual understanding which has never failed save in the presence of ignorance. Such understanding is not a produce of one conference, but many, over an extended period of time. Moreover, nothing would so assuredly underwrite institutional growth as a standard of professional training comparable to medicine. Nothing would contribute, over a series of years, so effectively in raising the level of instructional competency in the institutions themselves.

All this will involve a much larger investment in education on the part of the public. Too frequently educational leaders have needlessly doubted public support by confusing a loudly protesting minority with a silent but conclusive majority. Fathers and mothers believe in their children and by and large may be depended upon to support opportunities for them. I insist, however, that educational leadership should concern itself with its rightful function, namely the educational program, while the public's responsibility is the interpretation and support of such a program. The division of responsibility is exceedingly definite and clear. History shows that the lack of a program and not the lack of public support has been the great retarding factor in professionalizing education. This means the lack of vision, imagination, and courage to face an audible minority composed either of those who educate their children at private expense and who are without social vision or those who readily increase their chewing gum or tobacco bill but who stumble and murmur over a similar increase in their education bill. I repeat, it is the concern of the majority to defend educational advancement, and I repeat that this is not possible in the absence of a program to defend.

Third: No profession can be so designated that harbors within its ranks transients and casuals in such numbers as to cause an annual turnover of 20

or 25 percent of its membership. The infiltration of undesirables is possible because of the size of the meshes through which applicants for teaching now pass and because of the lack of discrimination on the part of the employing public. Decrease the size of the meshes and a much finer quality of applicants will pass through the entrance sieve. The degree of turnover in a profession is a fair measure of the status of that profession. The state superintendent of public instruction, the heads of teacher-training agencies and the top public school superintendents constitute the key to the situation in any state.

Fourth: One of the most disquieting and at the same time emotionalistic questions relates to the over feminization of the profession. The most ardent feminist would, I think, admit that 16 and 84 percent men and women respectively in the profession is entirely out of harmony with the best interest of boys and girls. I hold this to be a self-evident psychological truth. What is not self-evident or even remotely evident is the remedy. Educational immortality awaits the mind, man or woman, who possesses the wisdom to point the way. That the solution lies within the profession itself is clear. That cooperation between the teachers of both sexes is imperative is equally clear. Antagonism here places the youngster between the upper and lower millstone and inadvertently places the cross of our differences upon him. Any movement operating on any other principle than equal remuneration for equal training and instructional skill should be opposed with vigor and decision by women. As a matter of cold candor and dispassionate consideration, the suggested solution should properly emanate from the best feminine thought in the profession, since any initiation arising in other quarters would be regarded with disfavor if not suspicion. Unfortunately, there is some ground for suspicion. A suggested salary differential in favor of the men and in disregard of the principle of equal recognition, social and economic for equal competency lends distinctive color to well authenticated suspicion. A differential salary scale on such a principle runs counter not only to the first rudiments of elemental justice but is shattered completely when viewed in the open daylight of feminine self-respect.

This is a problem for the teaching profession to solve and is referred to here in support of my earlier stated contention that educational leadership should for the ensuing decade turn its attention inward rather than outward as did the profession of medicine. There is a very definite correlation between professional recognition, social and economic, and public recognition. Any attempt to coerce the public will meet with complete failure as the profession ought long since to have learned. So far as education is concerned, Lincoln was wrong—you can't fool the people at any time.

Fifth: In Ohio we still have the county normal school and the two-year short course curriculum for the training of elementary school teach-

ers. Less than thirty educational leaders in the commonwealth could effect the remedy. No attempt so far as I am aware has been made to enact legislation covering a period of ten or more years, the cardinal features of which would be the gradual elimination, without retroactive clauses, of inexcusably brief periods of training. Four years of standard collegiate training should constitute the irreducible period of training for entrance to any schoolroom in America. Moreover, no teacher should be permitted by law to teach the subjects for which he or she has not been specifically prepared. Statistical studies bearing on this deplorable aspect of the profession are periodically appearing but to no effect. The educational leaders have tolerated this situation with naive complacency constitutes one of the most serious indictments against them. The medical profession faced similar issues courageously and successfully.

In summary it may be said, (a) that the teaching game is not a profession, (b) that its present unenviable position, socially and economically, is almost entirely due to the character of the leadership found within the profession itself, (c) that the public is as a rule without a progressive educational program to consider and support because no such program is forthcoming from the teachers themselves, (d) that the support of the teaching profession by the public is proportional to the intrinsic merits of the prevailing standards of preparation, (e) that the profession at present has no case against the public, (f) that not until the teachers themselves change their linen, wash their hands and in all fundamental ways improve their professional adornment, as the physicians have done, is it ethically, professionally, economically or socially wise or just to expect proper recognition, and (g) finally, that we should cease in our attempt to sell educational goods of low standard for a price far in excess of their known value. In other words let us refrain from belaboring the public and for a period of ten years turn attention inward, or until such a time when each member of the teaching profession may point with pride and confidence to a standard of training that is unassailable. Until then let us bear our lot with uncomplaining fortitude and with equal fortitude make ourselves worthy of ourselves and therefore worthy of the highest social and economic recognition.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ACCREDITING AND CLASSIFICATION

H. W. ROCKWELL, PRINCIPAL NORMAL SCHOOL, BUFFALO, N. Y., CHAIRMAN

After the adoption of "Standards for Accrediting Teachers Colleges" at Washington, D. C. on February 20, 1926, a committee was elected for the purpose of administering these standards. This committee was known as the Committee on Accrediting and Classification and five members were elected for terms of 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 years respectively, the member being elected for five years serving as chairman for one year.

The adopted standards under XVC specify that "Each teachers college

accredited under these standards shall file annually with the Committee on Accrediting and Classification, a report on a blank provided for that purpose by the committee." In accordance with this specific direction, it was voted at a meeting of the above named committee held in Washington directly following the meeting of the association, that a questionnaire should be prepared based directly on the standards adopted. Accordingly, in November, 1926, such questionnaire was sent to approximately 150 members of the association with the request that they be returned to the chairman of the committee not later than January 1, 1927, and the information contained therein be submitted as of December 1, 1926. A second request was sent to most of the delinquent institutions late in January with the hope that by February first the forms received would approximate a unanimous response. Up to February 5th, 113 were received and examined and since that date 15 have been received too late for consideration by the committee.

The standards under XVD also stipulate as follows: "These standards shall go into effect on September 1, 1927. Not later than the date of the annual meeting of the association in 1928, the Committee on Accrediting and Classification shall prepare an accredited and classified list of teachers colleges on the basis of information contained in the reports submitted to the committee by the colleges." It is evident, therefore, that not until a year hence can the Committee on Accrediting and Classification prepare an official accredited and classified list of teachers colleges based on these standards. It was considered advisable, however, to send out this questionnaire a year in advance of the compilation of such list in order to secure in a tentative way some indication of the adaptability of these standards and of the effectiveness of the organization which has been set up for enforcing them. These questionnaires have been studied very carefully, a process which has required hours of work because approximately 5000 items of information have been scanned, but the tentative classification which has resulted therefrom will not be announced until February, 1928.

In only a few instances was opposition to the questionnaire made because of lack of clarity. The questionnaire was based directly on the standards and those who expressed criticism of the former were as a rule a little vague regarding the provisions of the latter. There was the widest variation shown in the personal interest and pride displayed by the officials filling out the questionnaire. About 45 separate and distinct questions were asked, a few more or less depending on the type of the institution. The majority of the executives displayed the most painstaking and meticulous care in answering every question accurately and frequently in considerable detail. On the other hand, many executives neglected from one to forty questions. One executive representing one of our largest institutions answered several questions and referred us to his printed report for additional information not even deigning to refer the matter to some subordinate who might have possessed adequate knowledge of the situation to give us the information desired. To recapitulate briefly.

Section I—The definition of a teachers college bringing out the distinction between a teachers college and a junior teachers college was answered in every instance.

Section II—Referring to requirements for admission revealed a very high standard of admission requirements usually approved by adequate standardizing agencies with a rather remarkably small admission of students on condition. Under this section our standards specifically forbade the acceptance of previous experience in teaching for entrance or for credit toward graduation. In not more than three states is this practice permitted and only in such instances is previous experience accepted toward graduation in lieu of a portion of the requirement in practice teaching.

Standards for graduation in semester hours, term hours, and quarter hours were in practically every instance adequate.

Under the size of faculty, the ratio of students to faculty in college departments showed the widest range, varying from one faculty member to thirty students, up to one faculty member for six students.

The number of student teachers assigned during the year to each teacher in the training school is apparently a rock on which many institutions might expect to meet disaster if these standards were rigidly enforced. The number assigned at one time is frequently so large as to prevent anything like adequate practice teaching opportunities. Twelve institutions designate as many as 15 student teachers to a critic at one time and several run this figure up to 25. In a certain section of the country, the philosophy of education which has determined this procedure seems to place a very low valuation on practice teaching requirements, although the committee believes that the training school is the laboratory of the institution and without it even the traditional name normal school, forerunner of the teachers college, loses its fundamental and historical significance.

Under Section V, the preparation of the faculty shows the widest variation. In 89 institutions training school teachers are selected on the basis of a bachelor's degree. Twenty-one institutions accept less than a bachelor's degree as a faculty qualification for the training school. In 79 institutions members of the faculty who give instruction in the college department are selected on the basis of a minimum requirement of a master's degree. In 31 institutions they do not maintain the A. M. as a minimum faculty requirement for the college department.

It is interesting to note that the following results appear in scanning the question as to how many members of a college faculty possess training of a distinctly professional quality representing at least three years of study beyond the bachelor's degree in any recognized graduate school. In other words, Ph. D. degrees are represented on various faculties as follows:

In 19 institutions no Ph. D. degrees

In 43 institutions from 1 to 5 Ph. D. degrees

In 26 institutions from 5 to 10 Ph. D. degrees

In 22 institutions 10 or more Ph. D. degrees

Only three questionnaires failed to give information under this section.

Under the section referring to teaching load of faculty, it is interesting to note that practically all institutions submitting a questionnaire show remarkable unanimity in their judgment that sixteen clock hours constitute a proper teaching load for their faculty members in general subjects. In shop and laboratory and in physical education, there is considerable variation although the majority of institutions are still well within the requirement. While the Committee on Standards stipulated a maximum of twelve clock hours per week in English composition, the majority of the institutions submitting questionnaires show a maximum in excess of this.

Under Section VII every institution with one or two exceptions affirms the maintenance of a training school or of affiliated urban or rural schools for student teaching purposes which seem to meet this essential requirement for the training of teachers.

In five institutions the number of children enroled in the training school is below the standard of thirty children for every eighteen college students who do ninety hours of practice teaching during the school year.

While the committee recommended that at least $2/5$ of the teaching in the training school be done by the regular teacher or by other faculty members with about $3/5$ done by student teachers, about $1/3$ of the institutions failed to meet this recommendation. It should be noted, however, that this proposal is only a recommendation and not a required standard.

In general, curricula seem to be so organized that senior college courses are not open to freshmen, and in almost every instance one half of the work in the junior and senior years consists of advanced courses open only to juniors and seniors.

It is fortunate that the recommendation concerning libraries was a recommendation only and not a requirement. You will recall that the committee on standards expresses the opinion that the library of a teachers college should contain at least 15,000 volumes and that institutions having less than 500 students should make an annual appropriation for new reference books and periodicals amounting to at least \$2500. In institutions numbering between 500 and 1000 students, five dollars per student should be expended on the library and in institutions registering over 1000 students, four dollars per student should be so spent. In only 32 instances was this recommendation met, which fact brings one to the inevitable conclusion that this recommendation is excessive and it should be modified after the committee on standards has further considered current practice and determined by proper survey methods what should constitute adequate library equipment.

Questions referring to adequate laboratory and shop equipment were usually answered favorably, but these questions have very little value because it is well nigh impossible for any central committee to specify just what should constitute adequate equipment, and it is accordingly easy for any executive to be over optimistic regarding the adequacy of his own equipment.

Only one of the many executives answering these questionnaires was willing to admit that the construction and sanitary condition of his buildings were faulty and unsatisfactory.

None of the institutions failed to meet the requirement of a minimum essential of 200 registered students, although in this respect the questionnaire was faulty in that it did not specify that this registration referred to registration of the regular session and was not inclusive of the summer session.

In only twelve cases did the proportion of students of college grade registered in the third and fourth years fall below the recommended 15 percent, although nine were silent on this point.

Financial expenditures of teachers colleges show the widest variation.

- 4 institutions spent less than \$50,000
 - 16 institutions spent between \$50,000 and \$100,000.
 - 39 institutions spent between \$100,000 and \$200,000
 - 26 institutions spent between \$200,000 and \$300,000
 - 13 institutions spent between \$300,000 and \$500,000
 - 6 institutions spent between \$500,000 and \$1,000,000
 - 1 institution spent over \$1,000,000
- The median is not far from \$150,000

You will recall that the standards stipulate that a college may fail to meet three requirements and still be classed as an "A" institution; that a college may fail to meet five requirements and still be classed as a "B" institution; that a college failing to conform to the standards having to do with preparation of faculty, teaching load, training school and student teachers, and organization of the curriculum will be designated as a class "C" college. I have examined 113 questionnaires making a rough tentative marking and have discovered that 92 institutions have sent in reports indicating a standing of "A" and only 14 institutions can be designated as "B" under these requirements with none rated as "C" colleges. Seven were so incomplete as to defy rating. Fifteen more questionnaires have been received since the report was closed.

Your committee is in agreement with the essential features of the standards which were bequeathed to it by the committee on standards a year ago, but the quantitative plan for marking these standards and rating institutions is faulty in the extreme as judged by the very unfavorable distribution of marks to which I have just referred. We feel sure that it is not the intention of this organization to compile and enforce standards in such a manner as to give to 81.4 percent of our institutions the highest possible rating. If any member of our faculties displayed such a poor distribution of ratings in marking his students, most of us would be glad to dispense with his services. Your committee feels, therefore, that before an accredited and classified list of teachers colleges is presented on the basis of reports submitted, an entirely new plan of rating should be formulated.

If the standards as adopted a year ago are to remain in force, they should stand at some specific future date as requirements and not as recommendations. To allow the inclusion of too many recommendations will dilute and emasculate the whole body of standards and the plan of enforcing standards falls to the ground and forfeits respect.

We are not so sure that it is wise to proceed with immediate standardization. Why hasten to standardize and crystallize institutions which are bidding for popular support of a new movement which has come to its present realization only within the last decade. In this general movement of transforming normal schools into teachers colleges, can we be absolutely sure that our present practices can be reduced to fixed standards? Have we had sufficient time to demonstrate the efficiency and feasibility of these standards? May we not be accused of unseemly haste, of premature determination of values—in short, of an unscientific attitude in working out desirable educational practices?

Until we have had time for experimentation and testing, how are we to determine whether our four-year product demands or justifies these standards. Studies undertaken by the Commonwealth Fund recently show such a wide variation of practice in developing teacher-training curricula that it seems necessary, to say the least, to give this matter further study before we reach ill-formed conclusions. Some curricula are excessively professionalized and others are unduly liberalized. Some require 30 or 40 hours of practice teaching and others require five hundred. Some institutions accept high school graduates with successful teaching experience as faculty members and others insist on an appreciable number of instructors with Ph.D. degrees. May we not properly raise the question as to whether it is quite time to standardize?

We believe that if further studies of the aims, curricula, faculty preparation and general equipment of teachers colleges were undertaken by some agency outside of this organization, we could attain data on which we might safely proceed within a few years to formulate and enforce standards in such manner as to fully command the respect of the public.

The standards already set up relate chiefly to matters of formal organization and to equipment. These are but the sheltering framework of the really vital features of a teachers college. The curriculum and spirit are the heart of the whole matter and on these essentials the formulated standards are all but silent. We do not yet have sufficient data to clearly define our aims or sufficient knowledge of curricula to know what we most need in curricular procedure to accomplish our aims.

In 1908 the medical schools of this country represented the widest range of quality and efficiency. The Carnegie Foundation interested itself in this problem to the extent of conducting a very comprehensive investigation under the leadership of Dr. Flexner and published its findings. As a result of this study, the American Medical Association was placed in a position where it could properly classify the medical schools of the country and adequately enforce the standards which the study recommended.

More recently the American Library Association has enlisted the cooperation of the Carnegie Foundation and its last report indicates that it will emerge from its present effort better qualified to command the respect of the public because of its more adequate enforcement of professional service in libraries.

Your committee believes that the Carnegie Foundation might be induced to interest itself in our problem. The chairman of this committee went to New York recently for the specific purpose of discussing the matter in informal conversation with one of the representatives of the Carnegie Foundation. At least an interest in the problem was evidenced and we believe that if this organization vested its representative with authority to enlist the support of the Carnegie Corporation, it might possibly meet with success.

Your committee further recommends that since the work of the standardizing committee whether with or without the cooperation of some other body, is so exacting and so detailed, it should have some paid assistance provided the treasury will admit of such an arrangement. If our funds do not permit such expenditure, then we believe that the question of raising the membership dues of this organization should be considered. Such a comparative study cannot be undertaken with any reasonable hope for its success without adequate funds. If the next chairman of this committee were a teachers college executive with a research bureau or a group of graduate students who could render assistance, at his disposal the work would be greatly facilitated without undue additional expense. Unless some such agency as the Carnegie Foundation sees fit to assist financially in this undertaking, funds must also be provided for financing the work of inspection wherever needed.

In conclusion may I add that the committee has during the entire year been in correspondence with the chairman of the committee for the study of teachers colleges of the American Association of University Women. There is at present an evident disposition in this organization to accept graduates of four-year teachers colleges for membership. The board of directors of the American Association of University Women has asked the committee for the study of teachers colleges to continue its comparative study of the minimum requirements set up by the American Association of Teachers Colleges and to recommend what modifications, if any, might be made in the requirements of the American Association of University Women, if such institutions are given recognition.

JUDICIOUS CONTROL OF TEACHER-TRAINING BY STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

J. M. MCCONNELL, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION FOR MINNESOTA

Since I represent on this program those whose work is to administer public education, it is to be understood that my presentations are, in all instances, from the point of view of the administrator. Hence, I am not

concerned with the professional questions of teacher training, except insofar as they present administrative considerations.

Obviously, the first question involved in the discussion of this subject is what control of teacher training the state department possesses and how it is now exercised.

In order to secure an answer to this twofold question, and in keeping with the accepted practice in this era of research, I inflicted on my fellow commissioners and superintendents a questionnaire, including ten questions. They were gracious in their responses, even beyond my expectations, and I had replies from all but six state departments.

Since the laws and developed practices of the different states vary greatly even when accepting the same general principles, it becomes necessary to interpret liberally in analyzing the answers.

The first question asked was whether the state department is in charge of, and therefore directs and controls, all or part of the teacher training institutions, such as the college of education, state normal schools, training departments in high schools, etc.

To this question, nineteen departments said *yes*; but of these three limited their answers. Seventeen said *no*; and of these two limited their answers. Five answered that they controlled indirectly.

The second question was what the legal or working relationship between the state department and such governing authority is, if the direct control indicated in No. 1 does not exist and these training institutions are directed by a separate board.

To this question, five departments answered *none*, and thirteen indicated that they exercised some control indirectly through membership on the governing board.

The third question was whether the diploma issued becomes automatically, without action by the state department, a legal certificate to teach, or whether a certificate is issued by the department on the basis of such diploma, whatever the relationship as suggested in either No. 1 or No. 2.

Sixteen answered that the diploma constitutes a certificate, although two of them indicated limitations. Twenty-five stated that the diploma does not constitute a certificate.

The fourth question was to what extent and in what manner the state department controls the renewal of certificates issued in No. 3.

Thirty-two departments have full or partial control, two have none, and six indicated statutory provisions which were not fully described.

The fifth question was whether the state department has authority and establishes training requirements for teachers in service as a condition for certificate renewal.

To this, thirty replied in the affirmative; four said *no*; and six indicated statutory provisions which were not described.

The sixth question was whether the department has authority to indicate the courses or subjects in which teachers shall be trained for the different kinds of work for which they are certified.

Twenty-nine said *yes*; two, *partly*; three, *no*; and three stated that they exercise such control indirectly.

The seventh question asked whether the state department has authority to indicate the class of school in which a certain type of certificate shall be valid, e. g., in elementary, secondary, or supervisory positions.

Thirty reported that they have such power; two, partly; four, that they do not; and three, that the matter is statutory.

The eighth question asked whether the department has power to fix experience requirements for certain teachers in different types of positions as superintendents or principals in different types of schools.

The replies indicated that sixteen departments exercise such power; that two do so in part; and that seventeen do not; while one indicated statutory provisions.

The ninth question asked the relation of state departments to teacher training in private institutions and the certification of their graduates.

The replies indicated that thirty-eight departments certify the graduates of these schools on some accrediting basis and that two do not.

The tenth and last question asked the state department's policy relative to the certification of teachers trained in institutions, public or private, of other states.

Forty replies indicated that corresponding credit is given on such credentials and a certificate issued, and but one answer was *no*.

Several significant conclusions are to be drawn from these findings:

1. The state department in something more than a third of the states is in charge of the teacher training institutions and therefore directs the training of teachers and standardizes their qualifications. Also, as many more exercise a measure of control through membership on governing boards.

2. In perhaps two-thirds of the states a diploma from a state normal school becomes automatically a certificate to teach. In the others, probably an increasing number, certification is a function of the state department.

3. In two-thirds of the states the renewal of certificates is a function of the state department. Also, in about the same number the department establishes training requirements for teachers in service.

4. About two-thirds of the state departments to some extent at least specify the courses in which teachers shall be trained for the kinds of work for which they are certified. Also, about the same proportion fix the class of school in which given types of certificates shall be valid. Likewise, in more than a third of the states the state department exacts experience requirements for certain classes of positions.

5. In all but two states the certification of teachers trained in private schools is vested in the state department.

6. In all but one state reporting, the work done in training institutions of other states is accepted by state departments as a basis for certification.

7. The present status has been reached through a long process of development.

The public schools in most states were local in their inception. It came about, therefore, that local authority preceded state authority and teaching standards, as well as the administration of the schools, was largely in the hands of county and district officials. In one state at least, if my information is correct, there is yet no state standardization of teachers, except in

certain limited classes of schools. In many states there is still a large measure of local certification, though the trend is strongly toward state standardization. The means to this end vary widely, including various forms of state subsidy as well as direct legal provision.

State departments of education with anything like their present functions came much later in most states than did the normal schools. Usually some kind of inter-relationship of administration was established, but in the main, the diploma of the normal school became a state certificate with no direct control by the state department. While in some states this relation continues unchanged, yet in many it is evident that forces are at work to bring about a new and more consistent plan.

Predominant among these is the growing recognition of the state's function in school support and administration. Making due regard for desirable local autonomy, we are now developing state systems of public education directed by well organized and highly efficient state departments of education. This situation has come about not so much on the initiative of the departments themselves as through the demands that are made on them for service.

State departments commonly fix standards for school buildings and equipment, library and textbooks. They furnish courses of study, the use of which may or may not be mandatory. In some measure at least they set standards for admission and graduation and likewise, as one of their most important duties, they set standards for teachers in the several classes of schools and in the several subjects.

In general, within legal limitations, it is the function of the department of education to administer the public school system of the state. When training institutions are cooperative in their attitude and train teachers in harmony with the program that has been established, direct control may not be material. Yet it is apparent that the trend is and should be toward state department administration of teacher training as well as the other features of the state's educational affairs.

With the assumption, therefore, that the department's policy will govern the course of teacher training, whatever the methods, we are to consider what constitutes judicious control.

No process of teacher training can produce good teachers unless admission standards are well established and well maintained. Our public schools, including our public high schools and universities, are to educate all the people. Therefore, every citizen has an equal claim to the opportunities they offer for his own advantage. But teacher-training institutions are maintained for a specific purpose, that of training teachers for the public schools. Therefore, only those whose personal and scholastic qualities give promise of adequate return to the state in service as teachers ought to be admitted. To this end, admission requirements should be so discriminating as to reject inferior or indifferent students, though they may appear to be technically qualified through high school graduation.

Schools are classified and their courses in general established by the state department or by law. If the work done is to be purposeful, teacher training must be relatively specific in order to meet the demands which the schools present. It is poor economy for the state and not fair to the teachers to train many more than are needed or to train along such general lines as not to qualify for the actual work to be done. The elementary field, for example, is well defined as to subjectmatter and extent, and only those who have been trained specifically for the work which it contains should be licensed to teach in it.

The high school field calls for subject specialization and cannot be well served otherwise. State departments, if they are permitted to do so under their laws, should grant certificates limited to the teaching of certain subjects for which teachers are especially trained. It is obvious, however, that the lines should not be drawn so closely as to embarrass the small schools whose teachers must cover a wider range of subjects than the larger.

The renewal of certificates is clearly a function of the state department, however they may have been issued. The older and still common practice of renewal by the training institution is unsound in principle and confusing in practice. The state department is in the best position to know whether the teacher has taught successfully and, therefore, on what terms and to what extent her license to teach should be extended.

Apparently the world has always moved and doubtless it will continue to do so. We must, therefore, in our training of teachers anticipate change rather than stability. It is doubtful whether the training process should ever be stamped as complete in any instance. The common practice of issuing a life certificate after a probationary period of say two years, however comforting it may be to the individual, is, I think, unsound. What progressive teachers do voluntarily to keep themselves abreast of the times, others should be compelled to do. At least, a certificate should become inactive when the holder ceases to teach for a period of years and should be revived only when evidence of further study is presented.

The training of teachers for the public schools is clearly a function of the state. If private institutions seek to engage in the work of teacher training, their courses, at least their professional courses, should be approved by the state department. It is needless to say that courses should not be accepted which do not make ample provision for professional training and the general content of which does not give the teacher a suitable basis for the work he is to teach.

However amiable may be the conception of universal standards for teachers in the several states, we are still far from its realization. The questions involved are practical, rather than theoretical. It is manifestly impossible that the laws of all of our forty-eight states should be uniform in their control of education, nor for that matter is it desirable that they should be. Generally, I think, the policy of state departments is fair and liberal in the matter of admitting teachers from other states. It is not

conceivable that any state would wish to isolate itself educationally from its neighbors. There are, however, the best of reasons why a state department should exact as high standards and the same type of training from teachers who come from outside as it sets up or accepts from its own training institutions. In fact, if it fails to do so, it is derelict in its duty to its own schools.

Standards throughout the country are more uniform in teacher-training institutions than in state departments. Hence, diplomas from recognized training institutions, when supported by a memorandum showing the courses taken generally furnish a better basis of evaluation than a certificate issued by a state department.

It seems probable, therefore, that uniformity of teacher-training standards in the different states is more likely to come through the harmonizing of courses in training institutions than through any attempt at uniformity of laws or agreement among state departments.

Finally, we have to emphasize the important and determining factor of enforcement. One cannot avoid the conclusion that there exists in this field as in others much laxity of enforcement which leads often to wide discrepancy between the provisions which appear on paper and the conditions which actually exist. It is not too much to say that the real measure of a state department's efficiency is its habit of consistent enforcement of the regulations which it sets up or which are assigned to it by law. This is the final test of administration which, in the long run, will determine the judicious control of teacher training and all other matters relating thereto.

Membership List—1927

- Alabama**—Florence, State Normal School; Livingston, State Normal School; Troy, State Normal School.
- Arizona**—Flagstaff, Northern Arizona Normal School; Tempe, Tempe State Teachers College.
- Arkansas**—Conway, Arkansas State Teachers College.
- California**—Arcata, Humboldt State Teachers College; San Diego, State Teachers College; San Francisco, State Teachers College; San José, State Teachers College; Santa Barbara, State Teachers College.
- Colorado**—Greeley, Colorado State Teachers College; Gunnison, Western State College of Colorado.
- Connecticut**—New Britain, State Normal School; New Haven, State Normal School; Willimantic, State Normal School.
- Georgia**—Athens, State Normal School; Milledgeville, Georgia State College for Women; Valdosta, Georgia State Woman's College.
- Hawaii**—Honolulu, Territorial Normal and Training School.
- Idaho**—Lewiston, State Normal School.
- Illinois**—Carbondale, Southern Illinois State Normal University; Charleston, Eastern Illinois State Teachers College; Chicago, College of Education, University of Chicago; De Kalb, Northern Illinois State Teachers College; Macomb, Western Illinois State Teachers College; Normal, Illinois State Normal University.
- Indiana**—Muncie, The Ball Teachers College; Terre Haute, Indiana State Normal School.
- Iowa**—Cedar Falls, State Teachers College.
- Kansas**—Emporia, Kansas State Teachers College; Hays, Kansas State Teachers College; Pittsburg, Kansas State Teachers College.
- Kentucky**—Bowling Green, West Kentucky State Teachers College and Normal School; Louisville, Louisville Normal School; Morehead, Kentucky State Normal School; Murray, State Normal School; Richmond, East Kentucky State Normal School and Teachers College.
- Louisiana**—Natchitoches, Louisiana State Normal College.
- Maine**—Farmington, State Normal School; Gorham, State Normal School.
- Maryland**—Frostburg, State Normal School; Towson, Maryland State Normal School.
- Massachusetts**—Boston, Teachers College of the City of Boston; Bridgewater, State Normal School; Framingham, State Normal School; Salem, State Normal School.
- Michigan**—Kalamazoo, Western State Normal School; Marquette, Northern State Normal School; Mt. Pleasant, Central Michigan Normal School; Ypsilanti, Michigan State Normal College.

- Minnesota**—Bemidji, Bemidji Teachers College; Duluth, State Teachers College; Mankato, State Teachers College; Moorhead, State Teachers College; St. Cloud, State Teachers College; Winona, State Teachers College.
- Mississippi**—Hattiesburg, State Teachers College.
- Missouri**—Cape Girardeau, Southeast Missouri State Teachers College; Kansas City, Teachers College, Kansas City; Kirksville, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College; Maryville, Northwest Missouri State Teachers College; St. Louis, Harris Teachers College; Springfield, Southwest Missouri State Teachers College; Warrensburg, Central Missouri State Teachers College.
- Nebraska**—Chadron, Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College; Kearney, Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College; Peru, Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College; Wayne, Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College.
- New Hampshire**—Keene, State Normal School; Plymouth, State Normal School.
- New Jersey**—Trenton, State Normal School.
- New Mexico**—East Las Vegas, New Mexico Normal University; Silver City, New Mexico State Teachers College.
- New York**—Albany, State College for Teachers; Brockport, State Normal School; Buffalo, State Normal School; New Paltz, State Normal School; New York City, Teachers College of Columbia University; Oswego, State Normal and Training School.
- North Carolina**—Boone, Appalachian State Normal School; Greenville, East Carolina Teachers College.
- North Dakota**—Dickinson, State Normal School; Ellendale, State Normal and Industrial School; Mayville, State Normal School; Valley City, State Teachers College; Minot, State Teachers College.
- Ohio**—Akron, University of Akron Teachers College; Athens, College of Education, Ohio University; Bowling Green, State Normal College; Cincinnati, College of Education, University of Cincinnati; Cleveland, Junior Teachers College of Cleveland, School of Education; Senior Teachers College of Cleveland, School of Education; Kent, State Normal College; Oxford, Teachers College of Miami University.
- Oklahoma**—Ada, East Central State Teachers College; Alva, Northwestern State Teachers College; Durant, Southeastern State Teachers College; Edmond, Central State Teachers College; Tahlequah, Northeastern State Teachers College; Weatherford, Southwestern State Teachers College.
- Oregon**—Monmouth, Oregon Normal School.
- Pennsylvania**—Bloomsburg, Bloomsburg State Normal School; Clarion, Clarion State Normal School; E. Stroudsburg, East Stroudsburg State Normal School; Kutztown, Keystone State Normal School; Indiana, State Normal School; Slippery Rock, Slippery Rock State Normal School.
- Rhode Island**—Providence, Rhode Island College of Education.
- South Carolina**—Rock Hill, Winthrop College.
- South Dakota**—Aberdeen, Northern Normal and Industrial School; Madison, Eastern State Normal School; Spearfish, Spearfish Normal School; Springfield, Southern State Normal School.
- Tennessee**—Johnson City, East Tennessee State Teachers College; Nashville, George Peabody College for Teachers.
- Texas**—Alpine, Sul Ross State Teachers College; Canyon, West Texas State Teachers College; Commerce, East Texas State Teachers College; Denton, North Texas State Teachers College; El Paso, Junior College, City of El Paso; Huntsville, Sam Houston State Teachers College; Nacogdoches, Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College; San Marcos, Southwest Texas State Teachers College.
- Utah**—Salt Lake City, School of Education in University of Utah.
- Virginia**—East Radford, State Teachers College; Farmville, State Teachers College; Fredericksburg, State Teachers College; Harrisonburg, State Teachers College.
- Washington**—Bellingham, Washington State Normal School; Cheney, Washington State Normal School; Ellensburg, Washington State Normal School.
- West Virginia**—Athens, Concord State Normal School; Fairmont, State Normal School; Huntington, Marshall College; Shepherdstown, Shepherd College State Normal School; West Liberty, West Liberty State Normal School.
- Wisconsin**—Eau Claire, State Normal School; La Crosse, State Normal School; Menomonie, Stout Institute; Oshkosh, State Normal School; River Falls, State Normal School; Stevens Point, State Normal School; Whitewater, State Normal School.

The Department of Visual Instruction

THE DEPARTMENT OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION was organized at the Oakland-San Francisco meeting in July, 1923. See *Proceedings*, 1923:85-A.

The officers of this Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, Anna V. Dorris, Instructor, State Teachers College, San Francisco, Calif.; *Vice-president*, Charles Roach, Director, Visual Instruction, 1240 S. Main, Los Angeles, Calif.; *Secretary-treasurer*, Dudley Grant Hays, Director of Visual Instruction, 460 S. State, Chicago, Ill.; *Executive Committee*, Carrie Brown, Director of Visual Instruction, Public Schools, Portland, Ore.; Ernest L. Crandall, Director of Lectures and Visual Instruction, Public Schools, 500 Fifth Ave., New York City. This Department meets once each year, in June. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1923:85-A

1924:963-985

1925:864-871

1926:947-963

GREETINGS

ERNEST L. CRANDALL, DIRECTOR OF LECTURES AND VISUAL INSTRUCTION,
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, NEW YORK CITY

IT HAS been the thought of the program committee that this year we should turn our attention exclusively to the motion picture, and that we should consider it in its dual capacity as a teaching tool in the hands of the instructor and as a powerful and inescapable factor in the life of the child. As a teaching tool, or an agency of instruction, the motion picture has been widely discussed and has also been the object of considerable experimentation. That experimentation has taken two forms. In various school systems trained educators have made continuous and systematic use of the motion picture in the actual process of instruction, and have coupled that use with careful observation, having in mind the conscious aim of appraising the place of the film in the teaching process. In that sense we have been experimenting intensively in New York throughout the past seven years. But there have also been carefully conducted experiments, on a scientific basis.

The essential point about all these experiments is that every one of them has shown conclusively that the motion picture is an effective instrument for teaching purposes, that observation is trained, imagination stimulated, expression enriched, and even retention improved by its use. Strange to say, however, there still remain those who question the right of the film to a place in our scheme of instruction. I am not among those who regard the motion picture as the "end all" and "be all" in visual instruction, but I have no patience with those whose devotion to the slide and the still picture generally blinds them to the possibilities of the film. To me there is neither appropriateness nor common sense in comparing the two. They are utterly unlike in their psychological approach, and each has a separate and a definite function to perform in the teaching process. To omit the film altogether from our teaching, however, is like leaving the verbs out of our language. We can still talk if we do this, but those who listen will certainly obtain a truncated impression of our ideas. It is the same with the film. We can teach without it, but the children will certainly miss it. They will miss it because, as hereinbefore intimated, it has become a powerful and inescapable factor in their daily life. There is no use denying the facts—the film is with us as an intimate of our every day existence from the cradle to the grave. Our children are going to learn through the film whether we wish it or not; therefore, we may as well take hold of the situation and put the motion picture to the best possible use by utilizing it in our formal instruction.

As a factor in the life of the youth of our country, the motion picture has by no means been adequately considered or appraised, at least among educators. It is gratifying to note that at least a beginning has been made

in this direction. Here and there universities are beginning to recognize the film as a suitable object of study. One of the most subtle and one of the most effective modes of expression that mankind has evolved, it certainly deserves to take its place beside the drama and the plastic arts as a worthy object of study.

I think it is not too much to say that no single phenomenon in modern life has acquired so potent or so wide-spread a sphere of influence as the motion picture. There are, aside from the application of electricity, only two or three instrumentalities which have proven man's supreme aids in his conquest of nature. Foremost among these are the microscope and the camera. Extending the range of the latter to photographing and depicting on a gigantic scale and with actual motion, everything in nature, big and little, including the infinitesimal and invisible features of microscopic life, we have an agency that comes as near to magic as it is humanly possible for one to conceive. Nothing in human history has so contributed to the expanding of the horizon of the average man as the motion picture. It opens to him the secrets of the frozen fastnesses of the north; it paints for him the tropical jungles of the equator; it transports him to the islands of the seas where he wanders amid strange places and peoples, bringing back an intimate knowledge not only of the manners and customs of the people themselves, but of flora and fauna, of beast and bird and reptile, and of their habitat.

It admits him to the sanctum sanctorum of the scientist, and permits him to peer over the latter's shoulder and revel in the wonders under his microscope. For him it follows the lancet of the surgeon, preserving a record of difficult operations as a guide for future generations. It counts the corpuscles of the blood and surprises and transfixes the crystal as it rises like Venus from its bath in the chemical solution. It gathers for him the news of history in the making from the four corners of the earth and retraces for him epochs and eras in the evolution of the race; and in pageantry and mimicry it relives with him all the great episodes of song and story.

Ignore it in our teaching? We might as well ignore nature itself, forget history, spurn literature, and condemn art, for it partakes of the elements of all of these.

The business of the educative process is to guide the education of each child. It should be such as to make available to each child the largest measure of achievement which is possible to him. It should operate so fundamentally and so definitely, in light of child nature, as to make the education of each child certain, thorough, and fundamental. The results achieved should be arrived at with the greatest possible economy on the part of the school and the child.

There are three large aspects to the educative process. In the first place, the child must be properly environed from the standpoint of educa-

tion, in order that the stimuli and inspirations which are brought to bear upon him may be calculated to start the process from which we may expect an individual who is efficient socially. In the second place, upon the basis of the raw material brought in through stimuli and inspirations, the child must go to work with the object of understanding, interpreting, and mastering for himself and his growth the values inherent in this stimuli. In the third place, expression should follow in order that interpretation and mastery may be deepened by the act of expression and also that the child's accomplishment may be revealed both to himself and to his teacher.

The first contribution of visual aids to the educative process is in the rich, interesting, varied stimuli which may be brought through the various visual aids. In fact, all visual aids are applied, technically speaking, as stimuli, even though their need of them and the help they afford may not be realized until the step of mastery or expression is in process of being taken. When the discovery comes that additional data or information is needed to insure thorough mastery or satisfactory expression, then the visual materials that may bring the needed help are employed as stimuli to enrich and enlarge the body of data as a basis for more adequate interpretation or expression.

Each visual aid is, therefore, of use in each step of the educative process. Each is also of value in the development and teaching of practically any subject. Some aids, of course, are of larger use totally in certain subjects than in others.

CLASSROOM FILMS

THOMAS E. FINEGAN, EDUCATION DIRECTOR, EASTMAN KODAK COMPANY
ROCHESTER, N. Y.

A few weeks ago the president of this meeting requested me to speak this afternoon on the subject of "Classroom Films." The term "Classroom Films" has a special and definite meaning. This type of film should represent exactly what its name implies, that is, film for use in a classroom. A classroom is a room set apart for the instruction of groups or classes of students. A classroom film for use in a public school should therefore be a film which is specifically, definitely, and scientifically related to and coordinated with the instruction given by a teacher to her class in the classroom.

The first important question to settle in dealing with this problem of motion pictures as a feature of visual instruction is the place which this type of film is to occupy in the visual education program. A correct conclusion may be reached on this question by determining what the real function of a classroom film is.

There has been much loose talk in recent years about the results which it is possible to achieve through the use of motion pictures. It has been freely stated that the film might be substituted for textbooks, and to a

large extent for the teacher. This is not the purpose of the film, and no one should be deceived about the real purpose for which the film is adapted to the extent of having an idea of this kind in mind. The film cannot be substituted for the text; neither can it be substituted for the teacher.

The film should not be substituted for the still picture where the still picture will serve the classroom as well as the motion picture. The terminology of this agency should determine very largely the type of picture which should be represented. A motion picture suggests the idea of motion, something in action. This is exactly what classroom films should represent. The motion picture should not be used in classroom work for those subjects which may be better presented through the still pictures such as lantern slides, stereoscopes, photographs, and other pictures—the use of which has already become general in the schools and are serving a distinct field of visual education.

Those having in mind the best interests of visual education will do much harm to this branch of education service if they attempt to substitute the motion picture for those subjects considered in the classroom which may be represented to greater advantage by still pictures. If this policy is not adopted in any program which is inaugurated, the accomplishments which may be achieved through visual education will be seriously handicapped and delayed. I wish to repeat, therefore, that the motion picture should not be regarded in any sense as a substitute for the visual aids which have found their place in the schools; nor should there be any thought of the substitution of such pictures for the textbooks or for the teacher.

The real purpose of the motion picture in the classroom is to give concisely, but comprehensively, a clear idea of those subjects related to the activities of life which are considered in the regular daily work of the schools and which can be best represented through pictures in action.

The interests of visual education in this country have received important service from many large industrial organizations. Such corporations as the United States Steel Company, the General Electric Company, the International Harvester Company, the Ford Motor Company, many of the great railroad corporations, and a number of other leading industrial organizations of the country have prepared films representing their special interests. These pictures have been used in school work. Some of the departments and bureaus of the federal government, such as the Department of the Interior, the Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Mines, and the Bureau of Health Service have made films which have not only provided material for visual education for the schools of the country when it was not otherwise obtainable, but which have stimulated a growing and vital interest in the subject.

These films, however, were not made specifically for the schools. They were made to give the country at large information about the respective interests which they portrayed. While they were not made for classroom work, they have been used to advantage in many of the schools of the country because of the bearing which they have had upon some phases

of life which are treated in modern school curriculums. These films have not only been useful to the schools, but they have pointed the way to the larger service that might be rendered education in the country if films were prepared expressly upon sound pedagogical principles for classroom use. They probably could not be improved for the purposes for which they were made, but a byproduct of this kind for use in the schools is not providing the scientific material for visual service to which the schools are entitled.

If the purpose of the film is to clarify and to clinch the fundamental of a subject which is presented to a group of children in the classroom, the film used for such purpose should be made by those who have not only a broad knowledge of the subject presented, but who know its relation to the school curriculum, who possess a knowledge of the intellectual capacity of the children, and who have a knowledge of correct methods of procedure in the classroom. Films for classroom use, therefore, should be made by teachers of liberal education and an experience of real achievement in the schools.

Some day scenarios for films will be obtained as manuscripts for textbooks are now generally obtained by publishers. It is as important that films used for classroom work should be prepared by those who have as broad and scientific knowledge of their field, and the methods and practices of the classroom in presenting such work, as the person who prepares the material for a textbook. The best scientific knowledge of classroom work which we possess today should be applied to our methods of visualization and to the preparation of visual material.

There are practical and economic questions which must be considered if a sound and adequate program of classroom films is to be developed. Most important of all is the necessity of providing classrooms with films which are made from safety stock or slow burning material. The introduction of films in classroom services means that large numbers of these will ultimately be used and will be stored in school buildings. Provision for storing will be made, of course, by building fireproof vaults. Even then, many films used in the schools will be on desks, in projecting machines, etc., in rooms where there are children. Every precaution should be taken to safeguard the children from possible fire hazards and to protect the school property. The 16 mm. films are all made from the safety stock, and insofar as possible the films used in the schools should offer the protection afforded by those made on acetate or slow burning stock.

Another important question is that of cost. If films are to be used generally in the school they must be produced at a much lower cost than now prevails. I do not mean that "cheap" films should be made. High standards of technic must be maintained, and at the same time films produced which may be made available to schools at prices which the school authorities may feel justified in paying. A 16 mm. film of 400 feet is the equivalent of 1000 feet of standard film. In the cost of material, therefore, we get a reduction of approximately 80 percent at the very outset.

Pictures may be taken on the standard size and reduced to the 16 mm. The reduction process gives sharper lines, and therefore a better picture.

The 16 mm. film will produce a picture 5 x 6 feet which is ample for classroom work. The wide use of this size film furnishes ample proof in support of this statement. I think there is no dispute on this point. If the film is for classroom work, the 16 mm. will serve the purpose of the class equally as well, and even better in many particulars, than the standard film. From the standpoint, therefore, of service, from the vitally important viewpoint of safety to the children, and from the standpoint of economy, the 16 mm. film should be used in making classroom films.

We are all accustomed to saying that visual education renders a vital service in classroom work. We may all feel that this is true. We are not, however, justified in making the large expenditure for this service in the schools which is required unless we have conclusive proof of its value. Are films an effective agency in classroom work? Can a teacher achieve better results by the use of the film than she can without it? Do the increased results in the classroom justify the expenditures required for the use of films? Are the accomplishments in education increased by the use of the films? Do the children get clearer ideas, more lasting impressions, and a larger vision of the subject under consideration by the use of the film than without it? Here again are not only practical questions, but here are vital, scientific, and professional questions to be determined. The evidence should be convincing. The results obtained should prove so conclusively the effectiveness and advantages of the films that the public generally will appreciate such service, and school authorities will feel justified in supplying it. It is the obligation of those who have faith in the film, who are believers in its usefulness, and who are convinced of its efficiency, to demonstrate beyond question that the film is capable of and may render this very important service.

You all know that I represent the Eastman Kodak Company. Furthermore, you appreciate, I take it, that the invitation to me to speak at this time was extended because I am associated with an enterprise in classroom films now being conducted by that company. I have no hesitation under these conditions to speak briefly of it.

The Eastman Kodak Company is making fifty films, thirty in geography, fifteen in general science, and five in health. The geography films will be limited to the United States and to the fifth and sixth grades of school work. The general science and health films will be limited to the junior high school division. The scenarios upon which these films are based are being prepared by practical teachers, teachers of university training and of large experience in school work in their respective fields. These teachers have worked in groups. For instance, three of such teachers in geography have prepared geography scenarios. They first met with our staff to discuss in general the subjects on which films were to be made. General principles to be followed were agreed upon. The members of this group then prepared their first draft of a scenario. A conference followed in which the work was criticized and conclusions were reached as to how it could be improved. A new draft was prepared and another conference

followed. This procedure was continued until an agreement was reached on the final form and substance of each scenario. Many of them passed through nine different revisions before they were in acceptable form.

The scenarios are then subjected to a critical examination by two of the leading experts of the country. We have selected for this critical service Frank N. Freeman, of the School of Education, The University of Chicago, and Ben D. Wood, of Columbia University. These experts examine these scenarios from a psychological and scientific standpoint. If they find defects, a discussion follows with our staff and an agreement is reached on the modifications which are to be made.

A teacher's guide will be prepared for each film. This guide will contain a statement of the area or material covered in the teaching unit to which the film is related. It will contain general suggestions to the teacher of the relation of the film to the subject and of the general and specific use that is to be made of the film. The film, of course, will be used at the time when the subject to which it relates occurs in the curriculum and is regularly reached in the classroom work. There is to be no interference with the regular order of the school work.

Tests will be made, under recognized professional procedure, by leading experts in the country, whose work and experience have given them the confidence of the teaching profession, to determine whether or not such films are an effective agency in classroom work and will justify expenditures to make them available to the schools. These experiments, which will cover the entire year, will be conducted in the following twelve cities:

New York City; Newton, Mass.; Winston-Salem, N. C.; Rochester, N. Y.; Chicago, Ill.; Denver, Colo.; Atlanta, Ga.; Lincoln, Nebr.; Oakland, Calif.; San Diego, Calif.; Kansas City, Mo.; Detroit, Mich.

A room in each of four buildings has been set apart in each of these cities. The experiments will be carried on, therefore, in forty-eight different classes.

Each of these rooms will be equipped with a projection machine, shades, screens, etc., and the films will be supplied as rapidly as they are completed after September first next. The entire expense in conducting this enterprise, including the compensation to experts making the tests and other services, as well as the equipment of the rooms and the cost of producing the films, will be borne by the Eastman Kodak Company. The company announced at the outset that it would neither sell nor rent these films during the experimental period.

If, at the close of the experiments, professional teachers announce that the results are satisfactory, that the film is an efficient agency in classroom work and the cost is such that school boards may feel justified in supplying their schools with this type of equipment, the Eastman Kodak Company will proceed with the development of a film library adequate to the needs of the educational institutions of the country from the kindergarten through the public school system and on through the colleges and universities.

THE PEDAGOGICAL POSSIBILITIES OF MASS INSTRUCTION WITH MOTION PICTURES

ANNA V. DORRIS, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

Since there may be a few in the audience who are just becoming interested in this new problem in education, I should like, first, to emphasize the fact that visual instruction, as interpreted in the educational field today, involves many types of visual experiences, such as taking pupils on excursions to gain first-hand information, the use of flat pictures, exhibits, maps, globes, graphic and pictorial charts, the stereograph with its third dimension, the stereoptican slide, the film slide, and lastly, the motion picture with its appealing quality of motion which so captivates us all.

Although the motion picture is the main theme for discussion in these meetings, I should like to have you bear in mind that each visual aid mentioned renders a specific service in the teaching process. In developing certain problems in teaching the various subjects of the curriculum, often several types of visual materials may be used very effectively before satisfactory understanding can be brought about. I will endeavor to illustrate this broader use of visual materials as I proceed in this discussion.

Since the motion picture possesses that realistic quality of motion, it is the nearest approach to first-hand information, and is therefore capable of bringing a greater degree of satisfaction than any other visual aid.

The development of the motion picture is one of the greatest achievements of modern times. It surpasses all other pictures in educational possibilities. Its great value is largely due to its power to communicate definite information to all types of peoples alike, literate or illiterate. It matters not what the nationality or language may be, the pictured illustration of motherhood, of scenic beauties, of processes and activities convey the same meaning to all minds the world over.

But the motion picture as an educational factor is still in its infancy. It was first presented to the world less than 30 years ago, and yet it has become the most powerful influence in society today. It is utilized by the commercial and industrial world as the most effective means of advertising, it has monopolized the theater, it has invaded the church, the school, and the home. Educators and the "intelligent public" have begun to study this modern invention in a new light and are recognizing its great educational possibilities for both old and young. They not only see it as the most effective universal educator the race has ever known, but they also recognize that due to its complexity and newness it must be studied most carefully and extensively in order to determine how best to use it as a means of conveying knowledge to young children.

There are two definite reasons why educators should give serious consideration to the motion picture as an important factor in public school education. *First*: Motion pictures have already found a prominent place in many educational institutions, and their influence is growing daily with

unprecedented rapidity. They are with us permanently, and every thinking educator acknowledges their tremendous latent possibilities for both classroom and for larger group or mass instruction. Thousands of dollars are being expended every year by hundreds of schools all over the country for motion picture equipment. Are these public school funds being spent wisely? In a few cases, yes; in many cases, it is doubtful.

Second: The misuse and abuse of the motion picture in many public schools seems not only serious but dangerous to educational growth. This constant misuse must be attributed largely to a lack of knowledge of fundamental principles governing modern pedagogy and overenthusiasm regarding the possibilities of this new and novel device.

The prevailing custom in many systems of circuiting among schools motion pictures which have been chosen by some individual or group because they were deemed of educational value from an adult standpoint seems not only contrary to good pedagogy but an actual waste of time and money.

It is not unique, but rather seems to be a common custom in various parts of the country, to find a time allotment for visual instruction set apart as if it were a separate subject on the daily program. Usually the lessons are given in the auditorium. And here I have found great masses of children from all grades, or several grades at least, actually being entertained, in a sense, by one, two, or more motion pictures which are supposed to contain valuable information, from an adult point of view, that children ought to know. Occasionally I have found that reels have been substituted for the ones booked on account of some difficulty at the distributing center, and as a result often inappropriate and quite embarrassing experiences are unintentionally exposed on the screen.

However, this involves a difficult problem, and for the most part films are carefully previewed and contain excellent educational information and would be of tremendous value if they only could be used at the psychological time in the teaching process to help solve problems and meet real needs of definite groups of boys and girls. But I cannot see the wisdom of requiring or even permitting boys who are wholeheartedly interested in the problem of transportation through the Panama Canal and the operation of those great locks, for instance, dropping that interest to pass with many others to the auditorium to be exposed to a wonderful picture of the "Monarch Butterfly" or "Picking Cotton in the Southern States." These boys are not interested in butterflies or the cotton industry, and probably never have been, so naturally genuine interest is lacking and we are encouraging habits of divided attention and reducing visual instruction to the level of entertainment, especially where there is not follow-up work afterwards in the classroom.

True, the pictured experience might have been so gripping and fascinating that it may have stimulated a new unforeseen interest among some or many. The time may not have been wasted exactly, but was it spent to the

best advantage? How much more vital and helpful to those particular boys if their specific needs and interests could have been met at this time and they could have had the experience of seeing a few colored slides or a good motion picture of the Panama Canal in their own room or even in the auditorium if necessary, but where they could be alone with their problem and teacher, where that intimate informal contact could not be interfered with by the presence of others with such varied interests. In such a natural situation readiness is there, interest is keen, questions are asked, important points emphasized, and every puzzling problem may be solved and even new problems may be discovered that will necessitate more study and research on the part of each individual, and it may even necessitate viewing the same slides or film again before complete satisfaction is gained.

The great danger from an unwise or too extensive use of visual aids is that the experiences essential to real growth and power shall not be provided for in the teaching situation. We cannot expose children, or even adults, to pictures, be they ever so appealing and captivating, and delude ourselves into thinking that such exposures and superficial contacts will provide fundamental and lasting results.

Psychologically, we know this is contrary to all laws of learning. While stimulating educative situations is the first concern in the educative process, the second concern is effortful response involving prolonged attention. Genuine interest guarantees attention and opens the way for educative opportunities and possibilities. But whether the educative environment with its rich stimuli and impressions produces any fundamental educative effects depends on the intensity of the appeal and concentration of attention, which must be deep enough and prolonged enough to call forth reflective thought and reasoning. Through this sustained interest, which demands effortful thinking on the part of each individual, there may be kindled a burning desire to know more and a longing to do and achieve until perfect satisfaction is accomplished.

With suitable encouragement and guidance this results in meaningful activity and effortful work, accompanied with a certain degree of struggle and trying such as may be necessary to achieve the goal. This brings us to the third step in the learning process. In order that fundamental learning may finally take place and deep and lasting impressions be made, individuals must be allowed to express themselves and constantly make use of knowledge gained. In other words, when knowledge actually functions in daily living, life is truly enriched and growth and power are acquired.

One of the great dangers which confronts this movement of visual instruction in the public schools is this confusion of entertainment with careful learning. It is regrettable that too frequently attempts are made to use such appealing visual devices as a substitute for, rather than as supplementary to, the oral and written method of gaining knowledge.

Such a powerful educational means as the motion picture must find its legitimate place in our educational system.

When such modern devices are common and necessary in the home and business world, and have actually become a part of life itself, the school as a social institution cannot content itself with using obsolete methods and antiquated equipment and expect to gain any degree of efficiency in training boys and girls to meet problems of current life.

Educators in general are primarily interested in the motion picture as an aid to classroom teaching, but there is a legitimate place in the public school for mass instruction with the motion picture.

Due to the size and definiteness of the screen picture, it matters not whether it is being viewed by 20 or 200 individuals. Whether any actual learning takes place depends entirely upon the preparation and attitudes of mind of the individuals themselves.

There are many subjects that are of general interest to children of different ages. Certain lessons in natural science, health, safety first, current events, and the like can be taught to large groups as well as to a few individuals, providing the lessons are well planned and the procedure is such that actual learning is provided for. Some schools have been carrying on most effective work along this line.

There are many instructive programs that can be planned, not only for the elementary schools but for the junior high and senior high schools as well. Film lessons on current events, natural science, or a study of the great benefactors of our nation, such as Washington, Lincoln, Roosevelt, Edison, and others, are worthwhile. There are excellent motion pictures on the market today concerning such subjects and these are being used by many schools. Such film lessons insure a far deeper impression on the minds of children than any story from the printed page can possibly make. The film brings the students into the very presence of the great benefactors themselves so that they both see and feel deeply as the life story is picturized on the screen.

In conclusion, may I emphasize again that the possibilities for mass instruction with the motion picture are great indeed, providing: that the subjectmatter is well chosen and adapted to the mental level of the pupils; that the pupils have a background for understanding and appreciating the content of the film; and that ample opportunity is given for discussing and using the knowledge gained after the film has been shown.

So today we must look upon the motion picture as one of the outstanding inventions of modern times, and it must be reckoned with as one of the greatest educative forces of contemporary life. It is ours to use as we will, but it is new, complex, and as yet far from ideal for ordinary classroom use, but it is the duty of every educator to study it and exert every effort to help perfect the film to meet the public school needs. Perfection takes time, energy, and money. Producers and manufacturers need encouragement rather than criticism, thus it is a cooperative piece of work.

MOTION PICTURES IN THEIR RELATION TO THE SCHOOL CHILD

COLONEL JASON S. JOY, DIRECTOR, PUBLIC RELATIONS IN HOLLYWOOD,
MOTION PICTURE PRODUCERS AND DISTRIBUTORS OF AMERICA, INC.

The motion picture today is catering to the American family. That doesn't mean that every picture is to be made entirely suitable for the 12-year-old child, but it does mean that the motion picture industry is determined that the prevalent type of book and play about which you perhaps know too much already does not become the prevalent type of photoplay.

It was this determination—a determination to establish and maintain the highest possible moral and artistic standards of motion pictures—and to put the motion picture to as many uses for the public good as possible that the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors came into being five years ago, with Will Hays as its president.

The industry has been concerned for some time now in finding out exactly what the effect of pictures is—on behavior, as an educator, and as a force for good.

Fortunately, the department of psychology of Columbia University was similarly minded and, on its own initiative, is now carrying on an extensive study, the first tentative findings of which may be presented to you. Men of much training are engaged in the study, and their findings are immensely interesting.

One of the questions asked was: How many children go to the movies and how often do they go? Quoting from the tentative report, signed by R. S. Woodworth for the Columbia group:

A public school in one of the poorer sections of New York City was selected for investigation. The teachers in this school were asked informally how frequently their children attended the movies, and the reply was often to the effect that "they all go every day." Then the children, about 1750 in all, were asked how many times each had attended in the preceding two weeks. The results were astounding to the teachers of these children, for the average attendance per child was only 1.15 times per week.

In August, 1926, we made what seemed a fairly adequate sampling of motion picture audiences in New York City. Twelve theaters were selected of varied locations: two in the main theater districts of Manhattan; five in more local theater districts, in Harlem, on Lexington Avenue near 42nd Street, two in Brooklyn, and one in Newark; four in residential districts of Manhattan and the Bronx; and one in a suburban village (Mamaroneck). The total attendance at each of these theaters was counted on three full days by one or two enumerators, who were allowed to sit near the entrance with slips for checking all who entered. Each person who entered the theater was checked according to sex, and as belonging (by inspection) in one of the following age groups: under 4 years, 4-7, 8-12, 13-16, above 20. The enumerators were selected and trained for accurate work, and their totals for each day, checked against the box office, indicated a high degree of accuracy. The counts were made at each theater on Monday, Wednesday, and Saturday of one week. The total attendance checked was over

150,000 persons. In each of the theaters the majority, and usually the great majority, of persons in attendance were judged to be over 20 years of age, and the next largest age group was from 17 to 20. A brief indication of the results can be gleaned from the following proportions obtained for children under 17:

In the Manhattan theater district	the proportion was	3.4 percent
In the more local theater districts	" " "	7.4 percent
In residential urban districts	" " "	8.0 percent
In the suburban village	" " "	31.8 percent

The general run of urban picture houses is probably well represented by the nine remaining theaters, with a total attendance for the three days of 97,000, of which total about 8 percent were under 17 years of age.

As an approach, though not a very close one at first, to the problem of the influence of motion pictures upon children's behavior, we have sought to ascertain what and how much of the material presented is perceived, understood, and remembered by children of different ages, as well as by adults. Quite possible, for example, a sex situation which would make quite an impression upon an adult would pass over the child's head.

All that we can certainly learn from our results at the present moment is that children under 12 years of age certainly fail to get a large share of the events of a picture which appear essential to the story from the adult point of view. With still younger children, this fact often comes out very amusingly when inquiries are made as to what a child liked in a given picture. Often the absorbing part of the story is missed altogether.

Apropos of this study is a similar study made at the Horace Mann High School and reported by Mary Allen Abbott, instructor in photoplay composition, Columbia University Home Study. The questionnaire was presented to the boys and girls of Horace Mann High School a week after Christmas recess, a period of more or less movie going. The answers showed that 11 percent of the boys and 13 percent of the girls did not go to the movies at all during the Christmas holidays. The other children went on an average of 3 times during that period.

A number of pictures were listed and the students were asked to select the ones they like best. I shall read you the first ten selections made by the boys: *Beau Geste*, *The Big Parade*, *Old Ironsides*, *Ben Hur*, *The Better 'Ole*, *The Winning of Barbara Worth*, *Variety*, *The Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse*, *The Scarlet Letter*, *The Sea Beast*. The first ten liked by the girls were: *The Big Parade*, *Ben Hur*, *Beau Geste*, *Old Ironsides*, *The Vanishing American*, *The Scarlet Letter*, *The Better 'Ole*, *The Winning of Barbara Worth*, *Stella Dallas*, *Brown of Harvard*.

The comments, according to Miss Abbott, showed that the boys and girls all look for action, plot, and suspense in a screen showing. Most of the reasons which both boys and girls gave for disliking *Grass* were that it "lacked plot"; there was in each case a comment "too educational"; and one girl gave this curious objection to *Nanook*—"lack of stars."

The girls of Horace Mann High School have, or at least express, a greater sensitiveness to ethical questions; they like to have their sympathies appealed to and their good taste not offended. They also prefer the heroine of romance to the comedian. The boys show more knowledge of

the problems of filming; they are more inclined than the girls to consider each film on its merits as a production.

The similarities are as striking as the differences. The general standing is high for story, acting, and setting for both the boys and girls. Both are sensitive to pictorial effects. Both are impatient of over-exaggeration whether in the detail of the story or in the expressing of emotions. In fact, their standards for judging a film seem to be much like those of cultivated adults with one striking exception—the comments on *Grass* and *Nanook* as well as the comments on the films liked show a consistent like for plot with action.

Among the boys particularly are some very good screen critics. Whatever may be said against the habit of movie going, these Horace Mann High School pupils seem to have used the movies as a school of dramatic critics, and to have formulated for themselves standards and an interesting body of opinion.

Going further to draw from a psychological study of pictures written by Dr. Carl Lashley and Dr. John B. Watson for the United States Interdepartmental Social Hygiene Board in which a reaction to the specific picture, *Fit to Win*, was noted, this interesting observation is made in the summary:

No lasting effects upon behavior were found. The retention tests show that the main facts were remembered very well for periods up to five months, but there is no indication that behavior is modified significantly. Interest dies out rapidly and the picture seems to be forgotten as quickly as the average motion picture devised solely for amusement.

Young people, according to James E. West, Chief Scout Executive for the Boy Scouts of America, wants thrills and action. These are perfectly normal cravings and should be and must be satisfied. The right sort of motion pictures provide the right sort of thrills and the right sort of action.

You have seen children at motion picture theatres laughing and skipping and squealing and exchanging what they consider repartee. You have seen them sitting on the edge of their seats watching the actual motion on the screen. Those children are getting facts and information which they are storing up. Geography becomes a panorama and history a series of thrilling stories. Science is a veritable wonderland.

Boys especially want to know how "things" are made, what makes a watch go. They are natural tinkerers. The moving picture camera explains many things to him and his interest is sustained while his information is increased.

More and more pictures are being used to teach athletics. The slow motion films allow for every detail of action in a game of tennis or a football match or in running, jumping, or diving. Interest in natural sciences is likewise stimulated and under the camera's eye chemical reactions, bird life, animals in their natural habitats, rock formations, all phenomena of nature are revealed to the budding mind of the child.

Even more important is the effect of motion pictures on assimilation of current history. Hardly a news event of importance in the world today takes place without having a news reel camera focussed upon it. The inauguration of the presidents, the war, the signing of peace, the flight of Lindbergh, all of these things are captured and held for the child to see and share in. Through them the child lives in a dozen worlds at once.

Mrs. Clara Tree Major, director of the Children's Saturday Morning Theatre, spoke recently of what the motion picture can mean to smaller children. She spoke of the part pictures play in giving children a knowledge of other children, the part they play in giving children a knowledge of birds and plants, and then the part the pictures play in giving children fairyland.

Any workers with children know how important it is to keep them enthusiastic. Children must go from one enthusiasm to another. They become hero worshippers. And the screen gives them heroes to worship. Not long ago, a group of school boys were asked to name the greatest ten men in history. Two of the ten named were popular motion picture actors, and one of them stood above Napoleon, long an idol of boyhood. The heroes on the screen, let it be remembered, always defend the weak, defeat the villains and triumph in the end through the exercise of manly virtues.

The motion picture in turning to the "classics" for its story material, has told so entertainingly the stories involved that hundreds and thousands of people have been sent to their books to find out if such a story is really written there. To the surprise and surely to the joy of these aroused minds, the classics have been revealed in entirely new lights. For the first time people have begun to look on them as real books and to realize that just because the dust of a few centuries has gathered on the covers there is no reason why the contents shouldn't be fresh and palatable. Once convinced that the term "classic" is complimentary and not an opprobrium, the reader is admitted to a new realm of reading through which he may browse with infinite relish for the rest of his days.

The habitual reading of fine books has come heretofore from the intellectual, if not from the social or financial, aristocracy; but within the past decade the habit of reading has reached through the upper strata and has become a universal necessity where formerly it was a luxury.

This growing intimacy between the motion picture and the book has met with general although not universal approval. There have been those who feared that many people would "take their reading out in looking," but those same people no doubt feared that the phonograph would mean the abolition of orchestras and that the free library would spell the doom of booksellers.

The New Jersey Library Association tells graphically the story of the increase in reading due to films. Productions for the screen, it was said,

suggest new lines of thought, stimulate interest in new nations, and bring into prominence and favor many of the classics. Hence a desire for reading is increased.

More books were borrowed for study last year in New Jersey, according to the report, than ever before, the number lent showing an increase of 34,000 over that of the preceding year. And the demand was for a higher standard of book than formerly, too, and the greatest demand was for historical novels. "Many of the old standard works have been brought back into favor and prominence," the report read.

Books on the shelves of libraries make it possible for men to attain a certain amount of knowledge and information by hard work and application. But the moving picture presented as an amusement, will in a few years make it impossible for any average man or woman to remain ignorant.

In recent months, there has been a decided tendency on the part of educational institutions to "take up the movies." Columbia University, Harvard, several of the western universities, and many high schools have developed plans whereby instruction in motion picture technology, motion picture business methods, and motion picture appreciation has become a regular feature of the curriculums.

Columbia University, for instance, has under consideration now a plan whereby a school of motion picture technology would be established at which instruction would be given in chemistry, architecture, photography, journalism, and kindred subjects pertinent to motion picture production and distribution. Both Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia, and Mr. Hays have appointed committees to consider the matter further.

Harvard has already established motion pictures as a part of the curriculum in the graduate school of business administration. In the last few months a series of lectures on the various departments of the industry were delivered by representative men of the industry, beginning with Mr. Hays. Three reasons assigned by the Harvard business school for such a course are that there is a growing need and opportunity for trained business men in the motion picture industry; that influence of films in this country and elsewhere is too great to be overlooked; and that the motion picture industry serves as an illustration of an industry which has grown so rapidly that all stages of its commercial development may be clearly traced.

Going still farther, and in an even more important direction we feel, Harvard University has established a library and archive of films in the Department of Fine Arts. Reading from the announcement made by the Harvard authorities two months ago:

In the belief that the achievements in motion pictures deserve recognition as part of the cultural development of the country and must be considered in any serious historical and technical study of the art, the Department of Fine Arts of Harvard University, in association with the Fogg Museum and the University library, plans to establish immediately a library and archive of films.

With the cooperation of Will H. Hays, President of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Inc., and of the producers themselves this collection will be formed to serve the double purpose of recording the evolution of the moving picture from its beginning to the present day, and of selecting annually those films which are deemed worthy of preservation as works of art.

It is hoped that it will be possible to use as criterion of choice the harmonious synthesis of pictorial, narrative, dramatic, and histrionic qualities. The collection will undoubtedly be augmented eventually by the addition of cinematographic literature. The purpose is not to cover the field contemplated by the archive in Washington for preservation of historical and current event films.

In order to constitute and operate this archive a committee of the Harvard Faculty, acting as a jury of award, after gathering from all available sources representative films of highest quality of the past, will select in January of each year the films of the preceding twelve months which, in its judgment, should be included in a library of this character. The announcement of its selections will be made public on March 1st of each year. The enterprise contemplates also an annual or semi-annual formal presentation before members of the university and their guests of the chosen films.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Seattle Meeting

The two sessions of the department were held at the Garfield High School in accordance with the following schedule:

GENERAL SUBJECT FOR DISCUSSION

The Motion Picture in the Life of the Child

First Session—Wednesday, July 6th, 2 P. M.

GREETINGS TO THE DELEGATES

Ernest L. Crandall, President.

THE MOTION PICTURE AS A FACTOR IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH

Prof. Arthur R. Lovejoy, of the University of Washington.

CLASSROOM FILMS

Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, formerly Supt. of Public Instruction of the State of Pennsylvania.

FILM—THIRTY YEARS IN MOTION PICTURES

Depicting the development of the motion picture in all its phases, shown for the first time on the Pacific Coast, through the courtesy of Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America.

Second Session—Thursday, July 7th, 2 P. M.

PEDAGOGICAL POSSIBILITIES OF MASS INSTRUCTION WITH MOTION PICTURES

Anna V. Dorris, State Teachers College, San Francisco, California.

GAINS IN EDUCATIVE PROCESS FROM USING VISUAL AIDS

H. B. Wilson, Supt. of Schools, Berkeley, California.

THE PRODUCER AND THE PUBLIC

Col. Jason S. Joy, Director of Public Relations, of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Hollywood, California.

Reports of Committees—Election of Officers

FILMS—THE VISION

Prize film in colors based on Sir John Millais' famous picture.

CLIMATE

New Fox-hour study and other educational reels.

Under Reports of Committees, the following matters were disposed of. The committee on the listing of educational films, A. G. Balcom, Newark, Chairman, reported that it would shortly have ready for publication an authoritative list of material, all generally available throughout the country, and all thoroughly tested by classroom application. The executive committee was authorized to seek publication of this material in the *Journal of the National Education Association*, and, failing that, to adopt such means of publication as it deemed expedient. The Committee on Foreign Relations, Olive M. Jones, New York City, Chairman, reported that a group meeting on visual instruction has been arranged for the Toronto meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations and was authorized to work for organized and systematic contacts with work and progress in this field in other countries. The report of the committee of the revision of the constitution, held over from last session in accordance with the constitution, was tabled.

The following officers were elected for the ensuing year: *President*, Mrs. Anna V. Dorris, State Teachers College, San Francisco, Calif.; *Vicepresident*, Charles Roach, Director of Visual Instruction, Los Angeles, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Dudley Grant Hayes, Director of Visual Instruction, Chicago, Ill.; *Member of Executive Committee*, Miss Carrie Brown, Director of Visual Instruction, Portland, Oregon; Ernest L. Crandall, Director of Visual Instruction, New York City.

The Department of Vocational Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION was organized as the industrial section at Minneapolis, Minn., 1875. See *Proceedings* 1875:100. The name was changed in 1890 to the Department of Industrial and Manual Training. See *Proceedings* 1890:758. In 1899 the name was changed to the Department of Manual Training. See *Proceedings* 1899:556. In 1914 the name was changed to the Department of Vocational Training and Practical Arts. See *Proceedings* 1914:565. This Department cooperates with the National Vocational Guidance Association and with the National Society for Vocational Education.

The officers of this Department for the year 1927-28 are: *President*, R. O. Small, Director of Vocational Education, State Board of Vocational Education, Boston, Mass.; *Vicepresident*, O. D. Adams, State Supervisor of Trade and Industrial Education, Salem, Oreg.; *Secretary*, J. E. Painter, Director of Manual Arts Education, Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minn. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are to be found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings*, as follows:

1914:565-625	1917:431-473	1920:269	1923:1025-1043	1925:872-913
1915:815-847	1918:249-271	1921:851-858	1924:987-1015	1926:963-996
1916:461-517	1919:271-281	1922:1465-1483		

*A VOCATIONAL AND PRACTICAL ARTS EDUCATION
PROGRAM FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE
CITY VOCATIONAL DIRECTOR*

O. H. DAY, DIRECTOR OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND PRACTICAL ARTS,
PUBLIC SCHOOLS, KANSAS CITY, MO.

IN formulating any program of vocational and practical arts education it is first necessary that the outstanding characteristics of the city be studied. It is always a mistake for our city to merely copy the program of another, because there are no two where existing conditions are alike.

Our school district has a population of 483,000, scattered over a rather wide area. From a commercial and industrial viewpoint, Kansas City would be classed as a center of distribution. It is true that we have a number of rather large industries, either in our city or across the state line in Kansas City, Kansas, drawing largely on our citizens for their workers. Among these industries you will find large packing plants, the second largest stockyards in the world, soap factories, steel tank factories, sash and door factories, elevators, flour mills, and a number of large printing establishments. However, Kansas City is largely noted for her wholesale and jobbing business. Our city is commonly referred to as "The Gateway to the West," because a number of the transcontinental and western railroads pass through our station, and form a system of distribution to the west and southwest territory.

From the above very brief description it is easily evident that our population spreads itself over a great many occupations, and that no one industry is dominant as in some cities, where steel or some such product is the controlling factor. Kansas City is growing at a very rapid rate, hence the building industries are very prominent, and in view of the fact that it is a very large center of distribution, the commercial and clerical pursuits occupy a prominent position.

Our school system begins its activities in the kindergartens, which are operated as a unit of the public schools, and proceeds through the grade, high, and trade schools, offering in addition two years of junior college work and three years of teachers' college work. The work of the elementary schools is completed in seven years, and it might be said that our schools are organized on the six, two, three-year plan. In other words, we have six years of elementary work, two years of junior high school work (composed of the last year of the elementary school and the first year of the high school), and three years of senior high school work. Not all of our children are passing through our junior high schools, because of inability to house them, hence we have some seven-year elementary schools from which children graduate and pass on to four-year high schools, while in other cases six years are spent in the elementary schools, two years in a junior high school, and three years in a senior high school.

The Department of Vocational Education and Practical Arts is a unit composed of all practical activities for both boys and girls. This department is in charge of a director working under the direct supervision of the superintendent of schools. In this department we have all of the shop work in all schools, the drafting, the trade work, part-time work, evening work, and home economics. The big objective of the department is to develop a correlated, coordinated program of practical education so that each child may find something of interest and worth in the instruction offered. We have supervisors in charge of the various branches of this work, but they are constantly reminded that their phase of the work is a part of the large city-wide program, and that all activities must fit smoothly into it.

In the time allotted for this discussion it will be impossible to go into any considerable detail about all our activities, hence, with your permission, I shall limit myself to a discussion that will omit most of the work for women and girls.

Our work in the day school for men and boys is divided into four major divisions, namely: elementary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, trade schools. The practical arts work in the elementary grades covers four principal subjects. It opens in the sixth grade and covers the elements of mechanical drawing, woodwork, aviation (or miniature aircraft construction) and nature study. The drawing is given during the first ten weeks of each year, and is limited largely to simple freehand sketching and lettering to teach the boys the elements of orthographic projection and plan reading. The instruction in woodwork is of quite the usual type in which fundamental woodworking tool processes are taught by means of rather simple projects. The work in aviation is new with us here, and was introduced with two principal objectives, the first of which was to assist in developing an air consciousness among our coming citizens, because we believe that aircraft and its use for commercial and industrial purposes is only in its infancy. In the second place we wish to stimulate interest in the manual arts and to rid it to a certain extent of the charge of being stiff and rigid. We are attaining both objectives in quite a satisfactory manner. We employed an instructor and are sending him about the city as a sort of itinerant teacher. He goes into a school and stays there just long enough to carry the classes through the fundamentals of miniature aircraft construction and flying. After he leaves, the work is carried on by the regular manual arts instructor. In this connection we are planning a city-wide tournament to be held in the spring which will further stimulate interest.

Our nature study activity hinges about a program of school gardens and school and home beautification. We have a central school garden composed of approximately thirty acres on which we raise shrubbery, flowers, vegetables, and small fruit. This garden becomes the supply laboratory for our city schools, then wherever possible each individual school operates a school garden for instructional purposes. The products of these various gardens are used in our school cafeterias or sold on the open market.

We believe that our entire program of practical arts in the elementary schools must appeal to quite a large extent to the play instinct in our boys and girls. We further believe that these courses must be made flexible and attractive, if they are to function as they should.

Our junior high school industrial arts program for boys is organized on the multiple experience shop plan, with vocational and educational guidance as its major objective. It is our desire that the students in the junior high school shall study occupations and workers. We want them to become acquainted not only with the work, but with the workers themselves. We try to make use of the fact that children of junior high school age are by very nature experimentally minded. They wish to try out a great many things. They crave experience; they fret under restraint, and they are constantly shifting from one interest to another. To meet these and many other conditions that exist in the minds of the average junior high school child, we have organized our industrial arts program around four major groups of activities, namely: the graphic arts, the building trades, the metal trades, and the cabinet trades. Industrial arts is a required subject in the seventh grade in the junior high schools, and each child is rotated in ten-week periods through the four major divisions. In each of these major divisions he comes in contact with four or five type trades or occupations, for example: in the metal trades shop we show him something of the machine trades, the forging and heat treating trades, sheet metal work, auto mechanics, and electricity. And so it is in each of the four groups. In these shops skill and finished product are incidental objectives. We try to interest the boy in learning about the trade or occupation itself, together with those occupations that branch out of it, and we also encourage him to study the work to ascertain its requirements and rewards. We wish this information to be broad in its scope. In other words, we trust that this work will start the boy to making a study of the world's activities in which he must later find a place. We do not emphasize nor minimize any occupation or group of occupations. We want him to feel that all work is worthwhile and dignified just insofar as he takes worth and dignity to it; and we further try to bring to him a conception of the worth of definite training for each occupation.

In order to carry out our major objective of studying materials and their application to industry and industrial life, we have four major types of activity in our senior high schools. Our drafting courses are proceeding very much as in the past, except that we are coordinating the instruction in drafting from the elementary schools through the junior and senior high schools, and are eliminating so far as possible duplication of effort. We also believe that in many cases the drafting instruction in the high schools has been of college grade and not sufficient attention has been given to thorough instruction in those principles and practices which should normally enter a high school drafting course.

Our instruction in woodwork is being reorganized so that we now have general woodworking shops and courses. It is the purpose of these courses

to study woods, their geography, characteristics, and methods of manufacture, and their application in industry. Hence, we do not unduly emphasize any one phase of woodwork such as cabinet construction, but we rather draw attention to the various uses to which wood is put. We do some cabinet work, some pattern work, and some carpentry, or any other activity which will assist in showing the boy the real worth and place of wood and its allied materials in industry. Wherever possible we use group projects and do our work on a fairly large scale.

Our third type of activity in the senior high school is the general metal shop, the major objectives and methods of work being largely the same as for the woodworking shop, except that we use the automobile to a large extent as the teaching medium because it involves in its construction practically every common industrial metal. We do not teach automobile repair and maintenance except as a part of the instruction in metal work.

The other principal type of shop in our high schools is devoted to printing, and is equipped, as most school print shops are, with job presses, a cylinder press, type stands, composing tables, and the like. In these shops we print our school papers and do other types of printing, not with the idea of training printers, for we know that few of our students will ever become printers, but with the purpose of teaching them to become intelligent purchasers of printing and to appreciate that printing is an art and a very important factor in preserving and communicating the ideas of men and women.

We are looking forward to still another type of shop which we shall call a power shop. It is our intention that this shop shall be for power what the metal shop is for metal. In it we will show how power is generated, transmitted, stored, and used.

This brief description of our senior high school shops will give you an idea of what we are doing and what we are hoping to do in the future. We recognize several types of students in the senior high schools who must be served. There is the boy who is preparing for college, the boy who is preparing to go out as a junior technician without college training. There is the boy on the fence who needs further vocational and educational guidance, and last, but by no means least, there is a boy who is merely attending high school because father and mother tell him to, and there is nothing else for him to do; he must be interested and instructed and not allowed to drift.

We believe that the only satisfactory way to train boys and girls to work is to have them work on real jobs with a standard of proficiency, both in quality and quantity, comparable to that which they will meet when they enter the craft. Following out this thought our trade schools believe that the statement made in the Smith-Hughes Law which says "the instruction shall be on a useful and productive basis" is sound, and we are carrying it into practical application. In these schools the students do not make products or projects for themselves which they may take home, but they do

work on a productive basis for the board of education. We build our own buildings with the students, make our own furniture, repair our own electrical machinery, and a wide variety of other work, so that in each trade the students are working on products, the worth of which they know and which they may see put into actual use.

Thus, we do large quantities of work, and while it is true that we do effect some considerable saving of money for the school district, yet this is not the objective. We know that following this plan when our boys and girls apply for entrance into the world of work that they have training which they can sell. They are accustomed to having their work measured as it will be measured by their employers, hence their transition from school life to work life is not a shock, but is a very gradual process for them. While they are on productive work our students receive pay, so that we have a right to demand high-grade work and to hold them to the other standards ordinarily required. Our payroll last summer at this one school alone was running approximately \$2500 per week. During the winter time the boys are paid only for overtime work, or in other words, the time spent on production outside of the regular school hours.

I am sure you will appreciate that this is a very meager description of our method of instruction in the trade schools. Students applying for entrance into them must be elementary school graduates or better. We have a great many students coming into our trade schools from the high schools, and we are encouraging the high-school graduates to enter the trade school for post-graduate work in concentrated trade instruction. We have two good classes composed of such high-school graduates.

We are constantly working to link this instruction in the trade schools to industry. Our students are being accepted by the employers, in fact, we are unable to fill the requests for help that come to us. We are now offering instruction in about twenty trades, and hope to add to this number as time goes on.

In addition to the allday instruction in the trade schools, we are developing part-time instruction in several lines. Last fall our compulsory part-time continuation school was absorbed in our trade schools, so that our part-time students might have the benefit of a broader scope of educational opportunity.

We have another part-time activity which is rather unique and very much worthwhile, and that is a maids' training school, the objective of which is to offer trade extension training to maids in service. This school possesses every essential characteristic of a successful vocational school. In the first place the applicants for entrance into the school are very carefully examined. They must furnish references as to their moral standing and must present evidence of willingness to abide by the rules and regulations of the school. They are then taken into the school and given instruction in a very practical way. In the meanwhile the instructor is watching for opportunities for placement, and this part of the work has developed to

such extent that many of the best homes in Kansas City requiring the services of maids will not accept a girl unless she comes from our maids' training school upon the recommendation of the teacher in charge. When the girl is thus placed the activity of the school does not cease, but she is supervised in her employment and is drawn back into the school weekly for further instruction. She is made to know that the success of her work and her instruction are very closely allied. This school is serving about 175 maids per year, and this year we have opened another branch of this service in connection with our evening schools.

Our evening school work is organized along the lines as suggested in the Smith-Hughes Law, and is for the benefit of people working at various trades and occupations. Our classes are conducted by thoroughly competent tradesmen, a number of whom are not on our regular day staff. Many of the classes meet in places outside of the school building, in fact, we promote this practice for a number of reasons which are obvious.

Another activity which I shall merely mention in passing is the vocational program in connection with our parental homes. These are institutions in which wards of the juvenile court are housed and trained. They are located in the country and are complete institutions within themselves. In these schools each child is taught to work. The children do practically all of the work of the home and the farms, such as care of the stock, the care of the garden and farm tracts, construction, repair, and maintenance of the buildings, etc. Just at this time we have under construction at one of these homes a large building to be used as a laundry, cannery, and storehouse. The building is of reinforced concrete to the first floor, and frame and stucco above. All of the work is being done by the boys. This is only typical of the kinds of projects undertaken.

A VOCATIONAL AND PRACTICAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAM FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

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Almost any city school superintendent is faced with the following facts about school conditions in his city.

Many boys and girls are dropping out of school as soon as the law permits or earlier. (a) They may need to go to work, or (b) they may prefer to go to work, or (c) they may prefer to avoid both school and employment, or (d) though willing to go to school they or the curriculum are misfits with each other. This misfitting may be due to physical causes, such as physical defects or overage and a growth that makes association with younger children disagreeable, or to mental causes such as a retarded or one sided development of their minds, or to moral causes such as an unsocial disposition or a nature in some way antagonistic to school routine or organization. Also, (e) there are pupils whose school career is handicapped or ruined by forces outside of themselves, as parents who refuse co-

operation with the school or so hamper their child's school growth that he quits in discouragement.

As a consequence of these facts facing a superintendent he sees his school system rendering incomplete service to his city. Assume that he views his school system as a community agency established to cooperate with the home in the rearing of children in order that the coming generation may be an improvement on the present one both by conserving all that is worthy in human progress so far, and adding whatever good can be added. Then he will see that the regular course from kindergarten through high school and college is by no means all that is needed by the children of this city, even though he adds a variety of irregular school activities, such as extra-curricular diversions, new subjects in the course of study, deans of girls, vocational counsellors, etc. Still he is faced with a serious wastage of human life from the public schools. By the hundreds and thousands his boys and girls in their 'teens fall away from his school system. In desperation he gets money spent for new equipment, he cajoles by citing money figures on the value of a high school education, he encourages athletics and social diversions, all with the view of making school attendance more attractive and the period of attendance longer for each boy and girl. Still they drop out of school. He has failed to bridge the gap between going to school and earning a living.

Fundamentally the trouble is with the point of view. School is preparation for life and by itself being life it is of course a better preparation. We do not attack this life-preparation view as the main thing for the majority of pupils or for all pupils for a majority of their school years. We uphold the theory and the ideal involved in regarding regular school work as aiming at a fuller life, at culture, at civic improvement, at character, at morals and manners, at development of talents and latent capacities, etc. But back in the minds of most boys and girls and deep in their hearts is the specific problem "How shall I earn a living?" To many it takes the more definite form, "Can I get a job when I quit school?" Getting ready to live a life is a big thing, a most important thing, but the majority of us must also earn a living. Somewhere about the age of 14 or 16 or 18 comes the parting of the ways. The academic school follows one route, the vocational school the other.

The college graduate sitting on a park bench may have ranged through every field of human knowledge and may be capable of enjoying life at its fullest, but if he has treated this business of earning a living as an incidental matter, a sort of nuisance of a mercenary nature, he is liable to sit there without a coin in his pocket with which to buy a sandwich. The illiterate mechanic or truck driver sitting beside him may envy him his education and may be willing to trade places with him, but he has a calling and, though uneducated, he knows how to get his meals and his next pair of shoes because he put earning a living as the essential matter and an education as incidental. Both are wrong and it is very probable that the errors of both are connected with our educational system. We possibly over-

educated the first man without anchoring him to a training that would provide a livelihood. We simply shed the second man from our schools and provided him no training for a livelihood when it became evident that he was not "taking" an education as we call it.

Now is there not a more comprehensive policy that will avoid such mistakes and wastage from our public schools? Can't we take a larger grasp of this problem and consider it as much our duty to guide and help toward providing intelligent well-trained wage earners at a trade as to guide and help toward white collar jobs and providing human society with the highly educated, who are often only parasites, and whose attitude toward earning a living is too frequently only the finding a way to "pull down" as much salary as possible?

Why is it right to train lawyers, and doctors, and engineers, etc., at public expense and not train electricians, printers, mechanics, and other wage earners at public expense? Our former policy of devoting public funds to training for the professions rather than for the trades is certainly not now due to a need for more members of professions. We may need better doctors, lawyers, etc., but we need just as badly better plumbers and better farmers and better craftsmen and better industrial workers. And when quantity is considered there is more evidence of overcrowding the professions than the trades. Fundamentally, it is hard to see the justice of using public funds to favor one line of livelihood over the other. Furthermore, such favoritism tends to imply falsely a greater respectability in one calling than in another. After listening to the talk of higher educators about education for leadership and for living a life, etc., one must reflect that it is of equal importance that carpenters and firemen be both proficient in their trades and competent as citizens and members of society. Leadership and big lives have a habit anyway of preferring hands that have known a callous and eyes that have looked steadily at material things, at tools and machinery, at brick and steel, at wheat and cattle, at things as well as ideas.

The fault I find with many educators in this, that while they recognize the need of meeting the requirements of pupils who tend to drop out of school and take up a vocation, they avoid facing the complete facts or the full situation. They throw a sop to the boy anxious to get to earning his living by installing, as a sort of appendage to the work of a regular school, some insipid so-called industrial courses. Such special school work is sometimes regarded as a nuisance, and academic teachers tilt their noses at it and whisper to a boy, "Oh, you don't want to take that course." Sometimes such work is regarded as "show-off stuff" for visitors, and pretty products made by the hands of pupils are displayed.

For that matter we have trade schools in this country which really hold themselves apart and aloof from the trades of their city. They have their machinery and blueprints and their trade teachers, but there is a gap still between the boy and the job. They say, "Oh, yes, we prepare the boys

and turn them out and let the various trades 'draw' them into the actual work if they really want to follow the trade. We don't deal with employers and unions, we turn out the boys here and proceed with the next batch. Their employment will take care of itself, and we can't be concerned with what becomes of them." All this sort of thing is the sham and the dry rot of vocational education.

Now, it will be admitted that all vocations cannot be trained for in vocational schools. Numerous human callings or occupations, perhaps the majority of them at present, are of such nature that it is not practicable for group instruction or the best trade school methods to prepare adequately for them. Personality is the main basis for qualifying for some callings, plain muscular endowment is the main factor in qualifying for other lines of work. After allowing for certain limitations in the practicability of trade school training, there is still a large field for vocational education especially in industrial lines, but also in agricultural lines and in homemaking lines.

We might lay down the proposition that public schools should undertake to meet the need of the rising generation for vocational education where (a) there is a sufficient commercial or practical demand for skilled or trained workers, and when (b) the nature of the work trained for is such that group instruction and training is practicable or economically effective, and when (c) the nature of the vocation is such that a substantial course of training is necessary for proficiency.

Finally, in order to be honest with ourselves in facing facts we should not emasculate trade education by failing to "follow through," as the phrase goes in golf. The problem cannot be handled in a dilettante way. Academic education may be dehumanized to a certain extent and still succeed, but vocational education must retain the human factors always. To those pondering on the problem of successful public trade school operation, I would, as a school superintendent, use the rough saying of the western cow man, "Let the hair go with the hide," and my meaning is clear from the following injunctions about the proper attitude to vocational education:

1. The trade employment situation or needs in a city must be surveyed and must be intimately known to the director of your trade school. And don't give training in a trade unless it is well represented in your city or its vicinity, and unless it is a substantial, worthy vocation.

2. When you admit a boy or girl to a class for training for trade investigate enough to believe (a) that he has a good prospect manually and physically to become a creditable craftsman at that trade, (b) that he has the mental capacity to give him a prospect of success at that trade, and (c) that he has the moral equipment and general habits and environment that point to success in that trade. Don't take an evident, cake-eating, jazz hound who might be a success as a saxophone player and try to put him through the grind of becoming a mechanic in some line. Of course all judgment in such matters is fallible, but take as few chances as possible.

3. After undertaking to teach a boy a trade assume the responsibility of placing him in employment in that trade, then at the right time place him in the right job to begin with and follow him up, and if he gets fired take him back in school and try him again. However, you want a record of having very, very few of your products be dismissed from employment for incompetency.

4. Use as much as possible the part time plan of getting boys into employment, that is, for example, the plan of alternate weeks in school shops and in employers' shops.

5. Rate a teacher by his success in placing his pupils in proper employment and seeing that they make good there, by the number he places as well as by the quality of his product, by his keeping intimately in touch with employers of his trade labor, and by his good name among men who follow his trade, his fellow craftsmen.

6. Use as teachers only those who are well seasoned themselves in following their trade in regular conditions of trade employment.

7. When a trade calls for overalls let the teacher wear them in his instruction work with boys. If, when he is employed to teach a trade, he regards himself as a "teacher" rather than as the same craftsman he was before, and proceeds to have the boys make toys, and refuses contact with trade workers in the city, and shuns "production" jobs that connect his boys with actual trade conditions, and does not keep up his union card, and otherwise becomes scholastic, theoretical, etc., fire him and do it as quickly as possible.

8. Don't bother about report cards to parents and the school routine that is characteristic of academic school work, but let the director and the teacher get report cards from employers on the boys they have placed. The teachers in a real trade school are at the receiving end of the report cards, not at the giving end.

9. Don't get mixed up with the local academic school work, by being enticed into "counting credits" for your trade school boys as part of a high school education. Don't accept from academic state departments of education and academic high school principals "credits" for trade school work. Avoid such blandishments as you would the songs of a siren. If your boys occasionally want to transfer back to some stage of the graded school system and give up their trade training, wish them well if they insist on the transfer, but leave their academic ranking to the school to which they go and don't get tangled in a rating of your work with academic work. The boy in regular school work is on one road, the trade school boy is on another. You are teaching him English as helpful in his trade and in a general practical education, so don't try to lay your trade school English alongside the study of Ivanhoe and Silas Marner and the college entrance classics. They are all right in their place, your English is all right in your place. It is the same way with arithmetic, civics, etc., in the trade school. Keep related work what it should be for your purpose, don't try to imitate the academic curriculum.

10. Remember that your boys and girls are with you to prepare to earn a living at a chosen trade. Don't tolerate idlers, liars, and thieves. See that each pupil looks constantly toward obtaining and holding as good a place in his trade as he can and that he expects to grow in that trade. Encourage boys who leave you to return to the evening trade school where they will be with others who are improving their education while working during the day. The carpentry boy and the machinist may continue the study of drafting, of estimating, accounting, etc., as well as such courses as Spanish, commercial law, etc. Only in these ways will you gain the esteem of employers and the respect and cooperation of trade workers.

Finally have the faith in your work that you are producing the salt of the earth from the boys in your charge. Be assured that the boys from your print shop, your machine shop, your electrical shop, your auto mechanics, your carpentry shop, etc., are among the earth's producers and

can hold up their heads among all the rah, rah college boys, the fraternity chaps, and the bachelor's degree parasites that form a serious percentage of the thousands now being ground out from our so-called institutions of higher learning. And remember that trade schools are not experiments or ventures attached to academic school systems, they are substantial, enduring independent, separately organized parts of public school work. By this policy will the trades rank with professions. Thus will America have good citizens. Thus will our country have leaders from its trade schools.

A VOCATIONAL AND PRACTICAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAM FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF A DEPUTY STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

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The development of a program of public education, in part or as a whole, must be predicated, not upon enthusiastic interests in educational processes and methods, but rather must it be based upon economic, social, and educational needs of the great majority of youth scattered throughout the entire confines of a commonwealth. It is easily possible to successfully promote and sporadically establish almost any type of educational activity. An educational enterprise can hardly lay just claim to any measure of success, however, unless it meets a real need and its benefits are available to the majority of the group it ought to serve.

Granting for the moment the soundness and effectiveness of vocational and practical arts education, such a program can hardly be called successful until it is available for the great majority of our youth rather than for the relatively few, widely scattered groups now fortunate enough to enjoy its advantages. Practically every state in America has made substantial progress in the development of an agricultural education program, the advantages of which are available to the farm youth of the respective states. The great state of Texas, in which this meeting is held, has made a distinct contribution in this field. There is grave danger that those in positions of administrative responsibility, following the lines of least resistance, will, perhaps unconsciously, become satisfied with a partial rather than a complete program. With most of our rural communities as yet without the benefits of agricultural education facilities, our duty and responsibility is clear in spite of administrative, financial, and other difficulties in the way.

The situation is substantially the same with respect to practical arts, industrial education, and home economics education. We dare not be satisfied with a few outstanding examples here and there. If vocational education under public auspices is justifiable, then we must proceed with directness and dispatch to make it available wherever it is needed and not limit it to those few centers where local conditions make it relatively easy to establish.

I appreciate fully the many fundamental and organic difficulties with which we are confronted, as well as the fact that many of these difficulties are inherent in the general plan of public education and not by any means peculiar to the field of practical arts or vocational education. This, however, in no sense relieves us of our responsibility in the matter. It merely adds to and complicates our difficulties and should serve as an added challenge to our initiative and perseverance.

To be more specific, practically all of our splendid practical arts opportunities are limited to the more populous communities. Even in the larger cities you will find certain sections of the city enjoying practical arts education advantages and other sections of the same city devoid of such opportunities. The real problem of public education in America from the standpoint of administrative difficulty is the small or medium sized community. Here ideals generally are relatively higher than in the average city. The desire for modern educational opportunities is present but the financial and other administrative difficulties seem almost insurmountable. And there are a thousand of these communities to one large industrial center. As yet we have done almost nothing for these communities in the way of practical arts and vocational education. It should be remembered that taken collectively the youth in these communities represents a substantial portion of our total youth population and the group therefore is entitled to more consideration, financially and otherwise, than we have yet given to this phase of our problem.

I am a believer in local participation in school affairs. However, when mere participation in control or decentralization of authority shuts the door of educational opportunity it is time to give serious consideration to a more practical and modern method of conducting our educational affairs. This situation, I am convinced, is fundamental in the development of practical arts and vocational education. While it is true that very satisfactory results are being achieved through the medium of the general shop or multiple activity shop in the smaller communities, little or nothing has been worked out in the way of vocational training.

This situation makes it necessary for us to face the problem of county, section, or state control and direction of industrial education. Transportation of commuters for considerable distances due to many forms of improved transportation is also a factor. We have long since come to the realization that the public schools of a community are not training the future citizens of their own community alone, but are training the citizens of a large and complex civilization. Modes of living, methods of earning a living, and the ready means of transportation have increased the field of future usefulness and service of the men and women of tomorrow. This means that the educational efforts of a town dare not be limited alone to preparation for or improvement in the occupational opportunities prevailing within the town. This situation has not been adequately met in our program of industrial education in most communities. In those sections of the country where many industrial centers are relatively near each other,

serious thought should be given to the administration of industrial education cooperatively by the various districts or some educational machinery should be devised, perhaps under state control, to meet the situation. We have found it profitable and efficient in big business to combine and consolidate various smaller interests. We will find it economically sound to follow the same general practice in working out some of our educational problems. This is particularly true of industrial education.

Education in and for a democracy does not involve educating everyone in the same way, at the same time, under the same conditions, for the same life activity. It has taken us some time to arrive at this conclusion as we are suffering from the limitations of attempted mass-education. We shall eventually find it impossible to Fordize educational machinery and methods.

A college education has proved to be a blessing for many. But the many thousands who drop out of high school and college and even a large number of those who complete their college courses would have been more safely and more adequately oriented to life and prepared for its opportunities had they received definite and specific training expenditures and personal sacrifices involved.

There is no merit in just being in high school or college. Our whole scheme of secondary and collegiate education is sadly in need of clear definition of aims and objectives. Unless a boy knows why he is in high school and is working with some definite aim in mind, his future would be better protected by his working at some suitable occupation. Educational objectives of the high school and college will become more clearly defined and the educational practices thereof modified to meet specific occupational adjustments or these now popular public institutions will fall under their own weight.

We are spending millions of dollars for the erection of public high schools. In spite of this fact more than half of the youth of this country between the ages of fourteen and eighteen have no contacts with high school. The vast majority in high school fall out sideways instead of emerging at the top. We cannot expect to spend the necessary more millions from our public treasury in order to reach the majority of our youth now unserved. The solution lies in a modification of the prevailing methods. We must make it possible for large numbers of our youth to attend high school on a part-time basis, at least half time being made available for occupational opportunities. The time spent in school should be devoted to whatever interests will serve the individual best. The mere following of a rigid curriculum is deadening to the spirit and ambition. But let the youth spend his energies on those activities which interest him and meet his need and the spirit is quickened, ideals illumined, and the youth stabilized at a critical period.

Trade education must be so organized and so conducted as to merit the respect of the trade it serves. It must be on a sound economic basis. But

the interests of the worker rather than the need of the trade dominate our vocational education aims and methods. Let education for democracy be an effort to assist the individual, to help him make his vocational adjustment and to give him occupational training where and when needed. A chance to study and work, to earn and learn is the opportunity that thousands have wished for, not knowing it. The responsibility for the development of the opportunities and possibilities of part-time education lies squarely on the shoulders of those charged with the practical arts and vocational education phases of our public school program.

A new emphasis is needed in public education. Each and every secondary school activity should give our youth an added and clearer glimpse into life's activities and opportunities. Prejudice against work must be broken down. Our youth must be made to realize that work is the open door to success; that work is an opportunity offering adventure, achievement, satisfaction, and returns limited only by the individual's keen vision, energy, and perseverance. The high school lad and the university student would both find themselves more quickly and more effectively prepared for occupational efficiency and more definitely on the road to successful living if each was privileged to enjoy individual development through a combination process of work and study rather than to find it necessary to pursue the prevailing method of all study and isolation from work opportunities.

In an earlier part of this paper I have stated that the aims and objectives of the high school must be more carefully thought out. The same is true of practical arts instruction. An inspection of the high schools of almost any state will show a great variation in equipment, methods, and time allotment of practical arts instruction. In some high schools the equipment is so elaborate that one wonders if the cost of the same can be justified in terms of use and results.

The same variation prevails in the amount of time allotted to this instruction. The one period a week almost indicates a toleration rather than a desire for it or belief in it on the part of those administratively responsible. In the schools of extensive equipment a generous portion of time usually is devoted to practical arts until one becomes suspicious that an attempt is being made to incorporate into the college preparatory curriculum some of the attractive features of vocational education. Perhaps this accounts in some measure for the slowness with which vocational education is being developed in some places. Our chief comment on this situation is to the effect that we can not afford to devitalize and vitiate real vocational education merely to furnish holding power to a college preparatory course. Clear cut objectives and methods in accordance with the same is the solution.

Our junior high school program teems with objectives involving try out courses, guidance, and occupational choices. This is a distinct forward step in educational practice. The inference is carried that the junior high school period will determine occupational choice. We shall continue

to find in practice however that vocational adjustment will be an important problem and purpose throughout the senior high school. This process of occupational adjustment must be practical and actual rather than theoretical and philosophical. Much of this is nebulous as yet as far as actual results for the majority are recorded. It is an important function of the junior and senior high schools, however, and practical arts and vocational education are the opportunities through which it is made practically effective.

THE PART A VOCATIONAL AND PRACTICAL ARTS EDUCATION SHOULD PLAY IN INDUSTRY

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Let us consider a typical industrial city with a population of over one-quarter of a million people. From the statistics compiled by the Chamber of Commerce of that city, 21½ percent of the population are classified as professional men; 17 percent are engaged in the manufacturing industries, while the industries themselves pay 55 percent of the taxes. Let us interpret these figures.

The curriculum of the present day schools provides the foundation of education for the child on the basis of his completion of the high school course. From here, 96 percent of those students enter the business world, while 4 percent pass on to college. Again, the elimination reduces that 4 percent to 2 percent upon completion of the prescribed course. The educational facilities are based upon the culture for the 4 percent who pay little in taxes, while the 96 percent, or the wage earners—the producers, accept what is offered by industry because the latter pays the bulk of the taxes.

What are the existing conditions in industry?—The wage earner, by economic conditions, is beyond that period in life to devote his time to vocational work, nor does the average worker have the mental requirements for much concentrated work. He is, however, anxious to receive more compensation, but has nothing to return for it in the way of higher quality of workmanship or increased volume of production. •

What of the children of these wage earners?—Theirs is the problem that challenges the vocational educators of the country, for the success, prosperity, and economic existence of the nation is based upon productive capacity. To train them and to educate them to become self-thinkers so as to be flexible in adapting themselves for several trades rather than a mere mechanical human being for one operation, that should be the aim of our vocational education in industry.

How can we best bring this all about?—It has been reported that there are about twelve million workers in the manufacturing industries, who produce just about one-third of their full work capacity in their present stage of education. A common desire of parents is to have their children enjoy an easier life than they themselves experience. Educating them for

white collar jobs has seemed the way to fulfill that desire. So schools, business colleges, and the so-called higher educational institutions have been turning out an ever-increasing army of young people possessed with the idea that an education carries with it an exemption from physical toil. This is a false basis.

As stated before there are twelve million workers in the manufacturing industries today and not more than one-third of them are returning full value in production. This comparison challenges the attention of educators to prepare men for industrial pursuits so that the latent power of two-thirds of the wage earners' capacity can be developed.

What is the result of trained workers?—It is true that the employer will reap some of the advantage in larger output at lower cost but so, too, anything which improves the employees' skill and productiveness also gives the employee higher wages, steadier employment, and greater opportunities. The public (of which both worker and employer are a part) will be the gainer through an increase in national efficiency and a better relationship between capital and labor. Anything which improves the quality of labor will have a direct effect upon the citizenship of the country.

The vocational teacher of today has a wonder field in which to work and I wonder sometimes if he is doing all he should to fit the boys he trains for industry.—Is he truly preparing the boys in his classes for what they will find when they do get out in industry? Is he preparing them to become self-thinkers so as to be flexible in adapting themselves for several trades rather than a mere mechanical human being for one operation.

When a business man wishes to build a mansion, or buy a machine for his factory, when he wishes to purchase automobiles or advertising, he is deeply concerned in drawing up carefully the specifications; the descriptions of what he is going to get for his money. If his specifications are carefully drawn, he can feel sure that not only does he know what he wants, but that he is in a fair way of getting what he desires. If his specifications are badly drawn, he is not sure that he will find himself in possession of what he has in mind.

We all desire that the students we graduate shall be successful in the trade or profession they enter. It then behooves us to acquaint ourselves with all the things our students should know in that particular trade or profession, satisfy ourselves that he knows the rudiments at least, for it is the foundation which holds the building and our specifications must show a substantial foundation. Concrete makes a good foundation for a building, if properly mixed, but it has to be well mixed—and so does the foundation on which we must build the future of our boys and girls.

Many of you here today are interested more perhaps in general education than you are in vocational education as such or as I like to term it preparing men for industry, but that, as a matter of fact is what we are all doing because the United States is the greatest industrial country in

the world today and the foundation on which this country stands is industry. What do I mean by industry? Modern industry exemplifies the creative genius of man. He has built machinery and invented devices by which he controls the lightning and utilizes the thunder. In many parts of our country the sky is black with smoke of factories and the nights lurid with flame. The skyline in some of our large cities at night reminds us of Dante's "Inferno." I like to sing the praise of things accomplished, the praise of industry. For ages past, we have sung the glory of war and idealized the colossal murderers of history. Why should the children in our schools be taught to memorize the dates of bloody wars and the lives of great warriors? Is it not mistaken patriotism and a caricature of history? The fame and progress of our nation is not built upon its success on the battlefield, but upon its inventive and creative genius, the life and spirit of its people.

Should there not be in every school an industrial roll of honor? The world owes more to the Dutchman Coster who invented printing press than to Napoleon, the emperor; to Sir Humphrey Davy who invented the safety lamp than to the Duke of Marlboro; more to Bell, Fulton, Edison, Steinmetz, and Marconi than to the commanders of the world's wars. When Sir James Simpson discovered the use of chloroform as an anesthetic, he did more for humanity than Wellington at the Battle of Waterloo.

If the United States of America is to grow in strength, wealth, and spirit; if it is to maintain its position as the leading nation of the world, if it is to continue to exist at all as a national entity, then industry, the foundation stone on which it was erected, on which it has grown and prospered, on which it stands today, and on which it must stand for all time to come, must expand, must prosper, and must demand and merit the respect and admiration of the whole civilized world. And by industry, I do not mean organizations of capital or manufacturing plants or farms. I mean the exercise of those faculties, both mental and physical, with which mankind has been endowed, for the existence, the comfort, and the improvement of the human race.

A VOCATIONAL AND PRACTICAL ARTS EDUCATION PROGRAM FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF A DEAN OF A STATE SUPPORTED COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

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For many years America has accepted as a part of its educational philosophy the equalization of educational opportunity. Those in charge of the administration of public education have not been able to work out a program that will bring about this ideal. Gradually, however, we are more nearly approaching it. But the equalization of educational opportunity means more to some of us than it does to others. It means, first

of all, that every child has a right to be well-born, to be reared in a good home, to have a chance to acquire a rich spiritual background, to attend a school that has as long a term, as competent a teacher, as good equipment, as modern a building, as sanitary conditions, and as adequate playgrounds as any other child.

It means more than that. It means that every child shall have an equal chance to a choice of occupations regardless of birth, wealth, environment, or occupation of parentage. It means that the child of the poorest farmer, or the child of the most poorly paid industrial worker shall have the same chance to choose his occupation as the child of the prosperous business or professional man. It means that the child shall not only have a right to choice of occupations but that the curriculum shall be constructed to be of the largest possible assistance in helping him to discover what he can do best and in preparing him for his chosen vocation or profession.

But, you say, this is impossible; that it would bankrupt America to provide an educational program that would make this possible. Granted. But in a democracy we are constantly striving to approximate unattainable ideals. And, while we cannot reach this ideal, if we hold it before us, surely we shall come much nearer to it than if we never attempted to reach it.

Some of our better city school systems are so working out their public school programs that every child has a chance to study a small number of occupations at first hand; every child has an opportunity for a certain amount of exploration into some of life's callings; and every child has a chance to prepare, more or less, for one of the vocations of life. But the best that has yet been provided is totally inadequate. If a young man or a young woman lives in a city of less than 25,000 and is interested in certain of life's occupations he must enter them poorly prepared or must be financially able to pay for the training in a larger city where there are enough people interested to justify the cost of instruction.

This is particularly true in the field of commercial education. Private enterprise saw an opportunity here and America today is dotted with more than one thousand private commercial schools that came into existence only because public education failed to provide for American youth the education necessary to success in their chosen field endeavor.

It looks as if child labor legislation will, ultimately, make sixteen years the minimum age for obtaining a work permit. In many states it is sixteen now unless the pupil has completed the eighth grade. This is generally accepted today as desirable legislation. There is another point of view quite worth consideration here. We are all agreed that it is always desirable to keep children in school just as long as they can profit from it. But the curriculum of the average school ceases to interest certain children long before they are sixteen. Overage and retarded children in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades are frequently less well off in a type of academic work too difficult for them and wholly uninteresting to

them than they would be at work at a job adapted to their mental and physical development.

The first obligation of a program of practical arts and vocational education is to assist young men and young women who must drop out of school and go to work. It is that group of young people from 14 to 18 years of age who must go to work that should concern us most. While we are serving them we should also be attempting to help all young men and young women to choose the type of work in life in which they can serve with most profit to themselves and to society.

The problem of choosing a vocation in life is one of the most difficult questions that any young man has to face. It is not an easy thing to determine which of the many occupations and professions in life one will enjoy most, and the one in which he will render his best service.

After all, the individual usually renders his best service when he is happiest in his work. We work hardest at those things we enjoy most; and, other things being equal, success is almost wholly dependent upon the amount of energy intelligently expended.

Many young men, finding it difficult to make a choice of a vocation, drift through life with no definite goal in mind. They cannot do their best work under these conditions. An individual can do his best work only when he has a definite goal toward which he is working. There is always lost motion when there is no specific objective ahead to guide our efforts. There is a minimum of lost motion when all of education is purposive and is leading toward a specific end.

A program of practical arts education is of inestimable value in assisting young men and young women in their choice of occupation. But to be of most service it must provide for actual participating experience in a limited number of occupations in which the pupil thinks he is interested, or for similar experience in shops and laboratories provided in the school, or both. I say a limited number of occupations because life is too short and the cost is too great to permit of a wide sampling. There are more than 3000 occupations in the industrial field alone, not to mention the occupations in the fields of commerce, agriculture, and home economics, the other three large vocational fields. Experience in an occupation is valuable to the boy or girl who is trying to measure his interests and aptitudes against the actual requirements and working conditions of such occupations. He may find in a very short time that certain occupations make no appeal whatever to him. This is important in that it will prevent him from wasting time in them later.

It is the function of practical arts education, then, to help the boy or girl "to determine whether his interest and bent are toward this or that field of economic activity including the professions." The sooner an individual decides upon his life calling the sooner there is an impelling motive in his work. Happy is the man whose youthful ambitions may still be pursued in his old age. It is a tragedy for any man to choose a

vocation in which he will lose interest before his days of service have ended. In choosing a vocation, then, its permanence should be a first consideration. Children should have this brought before them. There cannot be a permanent interest or maximum of service where an individual must learn a new job every few years. It is real life, real work, real objectives, and permanent interests that alone can keep young and virile the heart of man.

There is another difficulty about guidance through practical arts education and that is the rapidity with which a young man is called upon to change his job. If through his sampling the boy finds a job that he can do well and in which he is happy when he goes to work his guidance program has served a useful purpose. If it can help him into a line of work where he can find opportunities for growth and for advancement—where he can find permanency, it has served a still larger purpose. We have a right to expect much from practical arts education, but we must not expect it to guide every young man or young woman who goes through its doors into lines of permanent interest.

When an individual has made a choice of an occupation it is the obligation of a democracy to give him the largest possible amount of help, consistent with the good of society, in becoming proficient in that occupation. You hear much today about the exorbitant cost of vocational education, but the great part of this criticism comes from a group of people who talk more than they think. We have done less in America for the people who have to drop out of school and go to work than for any other group. We do not hesitate to spend huge sums for all kinds of liberal and professional education but we complain bitterly when we are requested to support our continuation and trade schools. As noted previously, public schools paid so little attention to the whole field of commercial education that hundreds of private commercial schools sprang up in America. These schools are operated for gain and charge a tuition rate that compels great sacrifices on the part of many of those attending. The commercial schools are in large part doing the work that the public schools should be doing. I am not condemning them. I am commending them for doing what our public schools failed to do.

I think most people are fairly well agreed that vocational education should be built upon the best foundation in general education that is possible for the individual. This is today a fairly well accepted bit of educational philosophy. We are not so well agreed on the length of course necessary to efficient training. To some of us there is still too large a tendency to mix general and vocational education. Personally, I am inclined to think that the all day schools in agriculture and in industrial education are the least effective programs that we have in these fields. The interest is less, the assurance of entry upon the occupation after leaving school is uncertain, and the whole program of smaller vocational value than that of the evening and part-time schools.

If practical arts and vocational education are to have a fair chance to serve their purposes there must be a larger rather than a smaller amount of funds available for work in these fields. These funds, in my opinion, should not be raised wholly from local taxation. They should be provided in large part from the state and national treasuries. I am not at all concerned about state or federal domination of education. I have worked under the federal vocational education act since it became a law and I have had nothing but helpful cooperation from those charged with its administration. I should like to see funds available for the equalization of educational opportunity to the end that youth may have a better basis for a choice of occupations and that all persons desiring education for occupational efficiency shall have it within reach.

All this involves one further thing. America must not allow either its youth or its adult population to waste time or public funds pursuing courses of training that cannot result in anything but lost time and wasted money. I saw one young man kept in a state normal school for a period of five years and he never passed one semester's work successfully. He managed to get into a dental college and was there five more years before he was told that he could not expect to be granted a diploma. It is not fair to the individual or to the public to allow a person to take the training leading to any vocation when that individual is unfitted mentally or otherwise to succeed in that occupation.

A study of the records of 4739 high school seniors recently completed by Jesse E. Adams of the University of Kentucky shows that these pupils had failed 926 times in their high school work. The highest number of failures recorded in any one subject in the group of schools in which the vocational subjects were taught was algebra 1, this subject being responsible for 30 percent of all the failures in these schools. English followed with 17.8 percent, history with 12.5 percent and Latin I, with 14.1 percent. If we base the number of failures on the number of persons who studied the subject Latin holds second place in the ranking. Geometry accounts for 15 percent of all failures which occur above the first year. The data gathered indicate that Latin, algebra, and geometry are responsible for about 63 percent of all failures in the small high schools in Kentucky in which vocational work is taught.

It may be interesting to you to know that 61.8 percent of all failures reported in these schools occurred in the first year, 28.3 percent in the second, 9.6 percent in the third and only .3 percent in the fourth year. The decreasing percentage of failures cannot be due to a more select group of pupils since all failures recorded are by pupils still in high school.

There were very few failures in the vocational subjects. This, I think, may be attributed to the fact that these subjects challenge the interest of pupils to a larger degree than do the subjects that are farther removed from life activities.

In the high schools in which no vocational work was offered 2555 pupils returned the questionnaires. In this group there were 955 failures reported. As in the other group the largest number of failures is in algebra 1, with 229 or 23.9 percent of the failures. Latin is a close second with 222, or 23.2 percent of the failures. English and history follow next with 13.3 percent and 10.5 percent respectively. Latin, algebra, and geometry are responsible for 60 percent of all failures in these schools. Of the 995 failures 64 percent occurred in the first year, 255.7 percent in the second, 10 percent in the third and .3 percent in the fourth year.

I am not opposed to the teaching of any subject in our public school program. But there are too many people taking such subjects as algebra and Latin just to have it said that they "took" them. Many people registered in these subjects are not taking them by any means. Too frequently the subject takes the pupil.

From my point of view, then, we need funds to provide for a larger program in practical arts and vocational education. We need closer cooperation with business and industry to provide for more adequate participation and a more satisfactory program of training; we need a philosophy that will bring about a larger interest in the program of practical arts and vocational education; and we need more careful research to determine the values of all school subjects being acquired of that great army of children in our public schools today.

SOME ASSETS IN PART-TIME SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION—ABSTRACT

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Educators have gotten into the habit of thinking that something less than ordinary good performance is to be expected of part time schools because of what they are likely to term "inherent difficulties" in its organization and administration.

But the fact is that compensating for difficulties due to such factors as irregularity of entrance and shortness of the school week are other factors peculiar to the part time school, which make up for the difficulties. Among these are:

The part-time school may teach anything, and in any way it thinks will benefit the pupil, regardless of how far it departs from the traditional school practice. It has no college entrance requirements or high school entrance requirements or in fact any imposed requirements which it must prepare its pupils to meet. It has a student body which, by reason of the fact that it is actually in the midst of the real problems of adult life, has come to appreciate the need for certain types of instruction in a way that even college students have not. The constant addition and loss of pupils compels an acceptance by teachers of the necessity for individual instruction. The same condition, supplying as it does a constant stream of new

pupils, makes possible a use of productive project work in shops wherein educational progression from the simple to the difficult can be maintained as it cannot be in a class whose enrolment remains static for a semester or more.

Moreover, it is not an absolutely established fact that 30 hours of good instruction are necessarily more valuable than 8 hours of good instruction plus many hours of opportunity to apply the instruction.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION—AN ESSENTIAL PART OF A STATE PROGRAM OF EDUCATION

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Education for a democracy—In a scheme of education devised for the children of a representative democracy, 95 percent of whom will be called upon to earn their own living in some gainful occupation and all of whom are expected to exercise broad civic privileges, work and work habits coupled with a high degree of intelligent appreciation of the finer things in life are essential elements. Their education should involve training in both appreciation and vocational phases of life. These opportunities free from selfish predetermination should be assured them.

In our eagerness not to deprive youth of their birthright of culture and appreciation, we must not rob them of that other birthright—knowledge and training which enables them to earn a living.

Of what does a democracy consist? Let us look at a typical cross-section of democracy: this city. Let us examine it, having in mind as we do so the needs of this democracy and the preparation for meeting these needs through training our young workers.

We need professional men and women. Yes! You are all committed to the proposal that we should train for the professions. But we do not need them in large numbers. It would not be well for us if all were in the professions. Training for the professions we call professional education.

The business and commercial life of a democracy, the trading-in and selling, the exchanging and accounting for our products, must be attended to. It must be given careful attention. We no longer think of securing the corps of workers in this field without affording them an opportunity to secure training. We have accepted commercial education as necessary.

But what of the producers of the finished articles of our industrial world, the skilled worker and artisan? Democracy cannot survive without him or her. What are we doing to train the young worker for advantageous entrance to the skilled trades? Relatively very little. This is one of the greatest needs of democracy. We should train our young workers. The nation, the state, or the city that does not have skilled workers is dependent upon other outside sources for its finished products.

The training for placement in the productive industries we call industrial education and it is a phase of education which must be more fully developed.

But democracy needs more. It must be fed and clothed and sheltered. Its food supply, its raiment and to a large extent its shelter, come from the soil. Somewhere, and by someone, crops, the raw material from which these needs are met, must be planted, cultivated, and harvested. It just must be done. We call the enterprise farming and those engaged in it farmers: or do you prefer agriculture and agriculturalists? Organized training for this undertaking we call agricultural education.

In our cross-sectioning of democracy we have found a need for professional, commercial, industrial, and agricultural service—and we have proposed training for our youth to meet these needs. But a greater need in a democracy than any yet named remains to be mentioned. A democracy may not survive save as the homes are preserved intact. As an occupation, homemaking (for the man or the woman) is the most important pursuit mankind engages in.

For the woman and the mother in the home, homemaking is the combination of multiple trades and callings—the most important “profession” in the world. In its most complete development it embraces the essentials of fifty other occupations.

It is a very natural division of labor which gives woman charge of the home. While it is a division no man wishes to bind her to with chains, it is a division she herself will never willingly give up. Where economic conditions do not force her to outside productive labor, woman willingly and to the great good of society as a whole, confines herself to conserving at home what the husband makes in his employment.

But some women must seek employment in industry. While woman's status will never be solved by confining her to the home, neither will it be solved by using her to beat down the labor market. In industry the woman worker should replace the man and not displace him. The woman worker should supplement the man and not supplant him and marriage will unquestionably ever be a barrier to woman's entry into the higher positions in industry.

Our problem and our social duty is to prepare women for both industry and homemaking, and the school work organized to train for successful and effective homemaking is called household arts education. Since preserving the home is the greatest need of democracy this is the most important form of vocational education.

The opportunity should be afforded for all of this training in full-time, part-time, and evening school classes. In the programs organized for the vocational all-day school work definite assignment for instruction in citizenship, hygiene, and in general improvement courses should occupy at least one quarter of the time.

The social and economic significance of such a program of education is important.

From a social standpoint it is the one way to reach and secure an equitable education for all the youth of our democracy. It will conserve the human resources of the nation and ensure the workers their measure of leisure time. Properly organized it will educate them to use their leisure advantageously.

From an economic standpoint it is the way by which we may hold and increase our commercial and industrial prestige. Through shortening the period and effort of learning greater skill will be directed into business, more and better goods will be produced at less cost and the competition forced upon us by other nations will operate to our advantage. Otherwise we cannot maintain our leadership against our competitors.

THE VIEWPOINT OF A SUPERVISOR OF TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION TOWARD VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

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Vocational Education is any form of education the purpose of which would be to fit an individual for useful employment.

With this definition in mind the attitude of a trade and industrial supervisor must be governed by the recognition that his work is a part of a big movement to pursue effectively recognized, profitable employments.

A supervisor must understand and know the types of schools best adapted to the community in question. He must organize his time to the best advantage. At the present time it is a common practice among state supervisors to organize a type of education known as foreman classes, and to teach foremen in industry to be able to lead their own groups in conference discussion. Quite often the administrator of the local school system has a very different idea of vocational education than the supervisor, and it is quite necessary for the two of them to get together on some common ground before attempting to organize a definite program procedure.

The supervisor must also bear in mind that there are three major types of vocational education as conducted under the Federal Board for Vocational Education: Agriculture, home economics, and trades and industries. The agricultural group deals with decentralized communities, more along individualistic lines; the trade and industrial supervisor deals with collective organizations and must work with groups. He deals with a collective and not an individualistic community.

The supervisor of trades and industries has been criticized for standing alone and forcing his ideas on the people. This may be brought about by the strict discipline of industry and its effect upon him. The old trade union idea, of course, was to force their opinion at any cost, and there are some traces of this influence left in trade organizations today. The apprenticeship program is particularly representative of this phase of the old

trade union idea, where a boy must serve, regardless of ability, his required number of years as an apprentice before receiving journeyman's wages. In case of mass production the period of apprenticeship may be cut down. The modern tendency is toward specialization.

Trade and industrial education is preparing people to enter employment in trades and industries. The supervisor must understand that he has a certain obligation toward those children who have not had the advantages of an education, and must promote the part-time continuation school. He will recognize that the entire vocational program must be one of co-operation, not only with industry, with trade unions, and with other organized bodies, but with the school people as well, and must work toward the end of turning out good tradesmen, and not civil engineers.

MANUAL ARTS AND THEIR RELATION TO ANY VOCATIONAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM

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It is a temptation, which must be resisted, to glance back in the past and trace the development of the manual arts to their present almost universal adoption in nearly every junior and secondary program in the country; but time will not permit, and the limitations of my topic do not require it. It will be sufficient to call attention to the fact that the manual arts found their way into the school system because of their claims for practicality and for teaching the fundamentals of the trades.

Vocational education, on the other hand, has comparatively recently claimed public attention because it was found that manual arts, however valuable they are in the school curriculum, were not adequately equipping the youths in our public schools for advantageous entrance into occupations and employment. It cannot be determined here to what extent this seeming failure can be charged to the manual arts and those responsible for organizing this work in the schools; and how much to the fact that the large number of youths who are leaving the schools and entering upon employment do so before they have an opportunity to receive any of the vocational benefits, except of the most elemental sort, that the manual arts are supposed to contribute.

The emphasis given to vocational education dates from the enactment of the Smith-Hughes law in 1917. By its provisions the federal government contributes to the states certain funds for the promotion of vocational education of less than college grade for youths and adults who desire training which will give them advantageous entrance into an occupation; or, if already employed, will give them training which will lead to promotion in that occupation.

At the time the Smith-Hughes law went into effect and the work of the federal board, established by this act, was inaugurated the belief was wide-

spread that the manual arts courses and departments in the high schools of the country were the logical places for the setting up of vocational courses that meet with the provisions of this act. The result was that east and west the first attempt to set up a vocational program in a community was by some modification of the existing manual arts program. This was usually done by changing the school program to suit the time requirements named in the act: i. e., giving half of the school day to practical shop activities and the remainder of the day to the high school curriculum usually found in cosmopolitan high schools, with an attempt to have certain courses in mathematics, science, and drawing related in some way to shop activities. Vocational education was thus looked upon as another subject which the public was demanding should be included in an already overcrowded high school curriculum. Since vocational education was supposed to be primarily for those youths who could not stay in school; who were kept in school against their will; or who found no interest or satisfaction in the other courses, they were transferred to these so-called vocational courses as a last resort before the school authorities were relieved of their presence by their taking matters into their own hands and leaving the school for some job.

The above was the natural procedure on the part of those responsible for secondary education. Boys and girls who could not make the grade in the longer established courses were naturally transferred to the only other place the principal of the school had—the industrial arts department—and, since federal money could be had by changing the hours on the high school schedule, why not do this, and call the erstwhile industrial arts course a vocational course. When it was pointed out that vocational education was not a new subject to be placed in the school curriculum, but was a program whereby boys and girls who needed a new adjustment in their training could get it, and it would lead to their being placed advantageously in some profitable employment, the objection was raised that the purpose of the high school was to train for citizenship and to give a good education to every youth. It was also claimed that such a vocational program was narrowing in its effect and would deprive those who took it from graduation from the high school; and, still greater calamity, it would not equip them for entering the university. Which habit is of the most value, the habit of failure in school or the habit of success on a good job?

In the early days of the promotion of the vocational program set up by the Federal Board for Vocational Education, criticism was frequently made that it failed in not providing for the promotion of some form of prevocational education. The policies set forth for the realization of the act clearly stated that vocational education was for those who, having chosen an occupation, desired training that would give advantageous entrance into an occupation or advancement in a vocation in which they were already employed. The act and this ruling excluded prevocational education from securing reimbursement intended solely for vocational educa-

tion. It did, however, lay upon the states the responsibility for determining in some way who are the individuals needing vocational training, what are their interests, capacities, tastes, and aptitudes; how genuine is their desire to realize the choice they have made—in other words, what reason have we to believe that such and such groups of youths, having chosen a certain line of vocational training, could really enter upon the occupation and successfully hold a job in it. This is a valid claim, for it is clearly evident that vocational training for anyone cannot be given until the individual has in some way discovered his fitness for it and his interest. In other words, there is always in the experience of every one in entering upon any employment, a period of selfdiscovery in which he determines whether this is the job he wants to tie to. It is natural to presume that the public schools should in some way seek to supply this need, especially for that large army of boys and girls who are leaving the school before completing the regular courses, and we now believe this sort of an experience is also necessary for every youth.

I am well aware of the high values, other than vocational, that the manual arts have in our educational program. I am well aware also that there is no possibility, because no one desires it, to do away with any of the manual arts programs that are successfully carried on in our school systems; especially so when they are properly taught by teachers who are adequately trained and have had the right experience for their work.

The relation, then of the manual arts to vocational education is one of prevocational education. I use the term in its several applications. In its early use it applied to a kind of training that could be given to boys, mostly from among the poor, who needed some training that would prepare them in a way to enter upon a certain trade. It was restricted to some five or six of the dominant trades and only in the industrial field. Later the term was broadened in its conception to include all experiences in the form of information, instruction, and sometimes, but not often, placing on the job, which are given to an individual to help him make intelligent choice of an occupation. "Occupational discovery" is another name for the same term and it is now widely accepted as the meaning of prevocational education in our junior high schools. There is a third use of the term "prevocational" and it is upon this ground, I think, that it has its most valid reason for being a part of the general educational program: That is, that all, or any, activities through which a youth may be passed are not only to discover for him his possible occupational interest, but are to give him an appreciation of the work-a-day world from the lowliest occupation to the highest profession.

If the manual arts are to realize this last objective and serve as prevocational education in this manifold meaning; and if they are also to contribute as "occupational finding" so necessary in the setting up of any vocational educational program, it will be necessary for those responsible for the industrial arts to get this vision more clearly fixed in mind and

organize their programs for work with such an objective in view. The industrial arts as they are generally conceived throughout the country are altogether too narrow to serve as prevocational courses for the boys in wood-working, metal work, auto mechanics, and electricity with perhaps a course in mechanical drawing and printing. For the girls they offer some form of home-making course with some applied art or arts and crafts. Commercial and agricultural courses are too little made use of. If these subjects were taught as illustrating, and introductory to, the great industrial groups they represent there would still be much to be desired if prevocational work is to be a responsibility of the schools as a means of discovering occupational interests as a basis for some vocational and educational guidance. Unfortunately these subjects are dealt with almost entirely from their trade and technical requirements.

In my judgment the part-time school again has the best opportunity for realizing such a program. We know that thousands of boys and girls are leaving school and getting all sorts of jobs. They are not doing this efficiently and industry and business are paying the overhead cost for this inefficient adjustment. I believe it is conceivable that an educational program can be worked out whereby all of these various jobs and occupations open to youth can, under proper supervision, and coordination on the part of the school organization, be made to contribute a prevocational experience as valuable, if not more valuable than the prevocational experiences carried on under the school roof.

Another element which is too often overlooked in the organization of our manual arts activities is the one of developing right relationships which must be maintained as an essential element in every job. A statement was made recently to the effect that in a survey of some 5000 discharges of employees the cause in 64 percent of them was due to various forms of social maladjustment. In other words, it was not because these people lacked skill and knowledge necessary to do the work of the job in which they were employed, but because they were unable to get along with one another or with the boss, or because they were tardy or lazy or had other habits which interfered with the carrying out of the skills and knowledge which they possessed. I am satisfied that in the manual arts, as well as in the vocational educational work, far more can be done to inculcate something of these ideals, as well as habits in connection with the work which everybody must do. My ideal, then, is that training for work to be accomplished only by training through work. In the same way I believe training for life is by means of living now rather than preparing to live some time in the future. I believe the manual arts are surely destined to fill a much larger place and a much more worthwhile place in our educational program than has yet been conceived by those responsible for them.

HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION FOR TOMORROW

ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR, CHIEF, HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION SERVICE,
FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The morrow must be anticipated in terms of the present. The trends of today are the index to the happenings of tomorrow. What direction is home economic education taking at the present time that will probably continue through tomorrow? What have been the changes in point of view and procedure in the last decade that may be accepted as authoritative signs for the morrow? Among the trends in home economics education today that may safely be regarded as signs of the morrow are the following:

1. *Emphasis of the synthetic method of approach*—Today the entire life of the home is used as a basis for home economics instruction. The tendency to isolate the various responsibilities of the home makers and teach them one by one has been superseded by that of stressing their inter-relationships in the maintenance of the entire home and family life. When the program of home economic education was started over a quarter of a century ago, the founders undoubtedly had in mind the serious need of the aid of the school in training girls and women for the important vocation of home economics. Already the home was undergoing great transformation in the lessening of production through invention of machinery and other aids which carried it from the home into places and conditions where it could be conducted on a large scale.

In the years that followed, the attempt to better understand each individual responsibility led to such complete differentiation that the family and home were lost sight of, and each field was studied, as it were, for its own sake. With the organization of a program of vocational education in home economics, this point of view changed as interest centered on the vocation of home making.

In home economics education of tomorrow, the home and family life will be the objective and only such instruction pursued as will tend toward the improvement of the home life. In this larger study of home life, men and boys will be trained as well as women and girls, especially in the large economic and social problems of the home.

2. The contributions of the laymen must be utilized in the program of home economics education.

A. Home economics teachers are no longer satisfied to outline theoretical courses of study or to develop programs of instruction from the angle of the school alone, but are seeking advice from the lay people—women and girls, men and boys—as to what should constitute a functioning home economics program and what are the responsibilities of the home maker and the family group for which special training is needed, that the school can most effectively supply.

3. The people are recognizing that the public school plant and equipment, no matter how closely it is made to duplicate home conditions, can never be a complete replica of the home; and, therefore, the work of the school must be carried over into the home to make the instruction really effective. In other words, the home project will become increasingly important, and it is altogether likely that when tomorrow arrives our courses of instruction will be centered wholly upon the activities and responsibilities of the local home life and best means for its improvement.

4. Emphasis must be placed on the phases of home life that have to do with the human product in the family rather than with the material only.

Our school instruction is already taking account of child training and family relationships. However, this is not yet by any means widespread; but the demand

is a growing one and the character of the instruction is constantly improving. Home economics education for tomorrow will be a large asset in the great program of paternal education that is so rapidly spreading throughout the land.

5. There is demand for occupationally competent teachers in the field of home economics and increasing attempts on the part of the teacher-training institution to check up applicants for teacher-training courses in home economics in terms of their experiences in the vocation of home making and their apparent aptitudes for entering the field of teaching home economics.

In the vocational program from the beginning teachers for adults have been selected on the basis of their maturity and experience rather than that of technical training only. This tendency is extending to the part-time school and also, at least in one state, to the full-time school.

Women with experience in the actual management of the home are being sought more and more as teachers of the vocation of home making, and suitable training for that purpose being given to them to supply their deficiencies from the angle of technical information and professional training and experience.

6. The general acceptance of social adjustment is the major objective for home economics education.

A. The successful teacher of home economics is attempting to develop her program of instruction on the basis of local conditions, and thus to increase the efficiency of home life in the local communities. When conditions are not understood and courses of study are set up on a theoretical basis, unattainable ideals are fixed in the minds of the girls and dissatisfaction created with their present environment. The home economics teacher is accepting as her responsibility the gaining of information on what is good in the home and community life and stressing that in her instruction, as well as discovering and attempting to improve the things that can be bettered in the community. Instruction in home economics must be near enough to the actual local conditions to make it possible for the girl to return to her home and work in her present environment, seeing the possibilities there for attaining the standards that have been set up in the school. In other words, she will be effectively carried from level to level only as rapidly as she can adjust her present surroundings to the new standard. Education in home economics must be a dynamic not a static procedure, for the homes are constantly changing with changes in population, development of science and art, influx of girls and women into wage-earning pursuits, and countless other influences, and teachers can only be alert to these changes and make their adaptations to the extent that they keep up their contacts with actual home and community conditions.

7. The availability of organized home economics instruction for those not enrolled in the full-time schools is increasing.

A. The public schools are awakening to their responsibility for meeting the educational needs of adults and the youth who have dropped out of full-time schools. The part-time and evening school programs in home economics have had a prodigious growth in the last ten years. State supervisors are providing definitely in their budgets for these types of classes, and teacher-training institutions are giving at least a point of view on them to their student teachers in home economics, and in a few instances providing for a special member of the staff who shall give preemployment training and training in service to selected groups who will teach or are teaching home economics in part-time and evening schools.

These trends are all forward looking influences in the program of home economic education and will continue to be taken into account, so that instruction in this field may function in a satisfactory ratio to its possibilities and make an outstanding contribution to local and national life.

Tomorrow questions will not be raised as to the content of home economics, for it will be accepted as ranking in educational value with any

other subject of the curriculum and its availability essential in elementary schools, high schools, and institutions of higher learning for every girl and woman in the country.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING A STATE PLAN FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

NICHOLAS RICCIARDI, COMMISSIONER OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION,
SACRAMENTO, CALIF.

A statement by Edward A. Filene represents quite clearly what may be characterized as the progressive viewpoint in industry. Mr. Filene has made a statement which may be accepted as an expression representing the viewpoint of employers who have given some serious thought to vocational education. His statement is this:

Education should fit men for their jobs. But that does not mean that we must choose between a kind of vocational education that is devoid of culture and a culture that either does not fit or unfits a man for his job. It means that we shall end the dangerous dualism that today exists between the school and the factory and work out a kind of education that makes it unnecessary for a man to think one way in the schoolroom and another way in his shop. If education is to serve the state as well as the workshop we must give men culture as well as skill. But the thing we shall come to see more and more is that it is possible for a man to get the most vital kind of culture out of training for his life work.

There are certain fundamental principles which make it possible to practicalize through a state plan of vocational education the philosophy of vocational education set forth in Mr. Filene's statement. These are the principles which should guide us in working out a state plan of vocational education.

An employer, referring to the salary of one of his best workers, made this remark:

We pay him a thousand dollars a year for what he *does*, and two thousand a year more for what he *is*.

Quite clearly that means that industry wants workers who can do something worthwhile and be worthwhile persons. It wants workers, in other words, who are the product of the kind of program of education advocated by Mr. Filene and by thousands of employers who agree with him.

A most practicable way to produce such workers is through a sound and comprehensive program of vocational education. A sound and comprehensive program of vocational education fits the individual in terms of his interests and capacities to earn a living in a specific vocation, makes him socially efficient and an intelligent citizen. Such a program of education consists of three fundamental phases. These are: (a) Practical work, (b) related technical training, and (c) instruction in social studies.

Practical work—Practical work alone makes the individual employable and capable of earning a living usually as a routine worker.

Related technical training—Practical work with related technical training takes the individual out of the class of routine workers, increases his employment opportunities and his chances for promotion.

Instruction in social studies—Instruction in social studies gives the individual the organized body of information and training that is deemed essential to develop the right civic and social attitudes and employment relationships.

These phases of vocational education fit most effectively the needs of the individuals concerned. They are sometimes given as separate courses, or as units of separate courses, depending upon the individual's capacities, the vocation for which he is being trained, and the length of time he expects to pursue the training program. For some individuals the related technical training and the instruction in social studies may be given most satisfactorily in connection with the practical work, rather than as separate courses. These phases make the program quite flexible.

<i>Practical Work</i>	<i>Related Technical Instruction</i>	<i>Instruction in Social Studies</i>
The HOW of the job. Job-training designed to give the individual the craft knowledge and skill required to make him employable, usually as a routine worker.	The WHY of the job. Courses in mathematics, science, and drawing designed to make the individual more than a routine worker.	The WHEREFORE of the job. Courses in English, history, and other social studies, designed to make the individual an intelligent citizen and socially efficient. These courses give the individual "the culture" every socially efficient citizen should have.

The fundamental principles underlying such a program of vocational education are: (a) The principle of individual counseling, (b) the principle of adapting the training program to the interests and the capacities of the individual, (c) the principle of linking the training program with industry, (d) the principle of placement, follow-up, and adjustment after placement, and (e) the principle of selecting occupationally competent individuals and training them as vocational teachers.

The practical application of these principles is made possible by a state plan of vocational education which establishes the most feasible and workable conditions for carrying into effect the type of program which, as Mr. Filene expresses it, ends "the dangerous dualism that exists between the school and the factory and works out a kind of education that makes it unnecessary for a man to think one way in the schoolroom and another way in his shop"; and which makes it possible to give the individual "the most vital kind of culture out of training for his life work."

A. Local supervisors—One of the feasible and workable conditions that a state plan should set up is to have the state department of vocational education appoint local supervisors of trade and industrial education in cooperation with local school systems and local supervisors of agricultural education in cooperation with state teachers' colleges.

We now have in California local supervisors of trade and industrial education, in cooperative relationships with the state department of education, in each of the following places:

Fresno	Los Angeles	Sacramento	Santa Barbara
Long Beach	Oakland	San Jose	Vallejo

We have local supervisors of agricultural education, under an agreement agreeable to the state department of education and to the state teachers' colleges, at the following places:

Chico	Fresno	Ontario	San Jose
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We have local supervisors of vocational education who are directly responsible only to the local authorities, in the following places:

Alameda	Crockett	San Diego	Stockton
Berkeley	Huntington Park	San Francisco	

Individual counseling—With local supervisors of vocational education as local "key person," a procedure for individual counseling may be carried successfully into effect.

World Federation of Education Associations

THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS was the outgrowth of a World Conference on Education which was called by the Committee on Foreign Relations of the National Education Association to meet at San Francisco, in July, 1923, in connection with the National Education Association Convention there. The first biennial meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations was held in Edinburgh, Scotland, in July, 1925, and was attended by approximately 2000 people, nearly 1400 of whom were delegates from almost every country in the world. The Second Biennial Conference was held in Toronto, Canada, in August, 1927. The officers of the World Federation of Education Associations for the years 1927-29 are: *President*, A. O. Thomas, Augusta, Maine; *Vicepresidents*, Harry Charlesworth, Vancouver, B. C.; P. W. Kuo, Shanghai, China; Fred Mander, Hamilton House, London, W. C. 1, England; *Secretary*, Charles Williams, Columbia, Missouri; *Treasurer*, E. A. Hardy, Toronto, Canada; *Financial Agent*, Walter R. Siders, Pocatello, Idaho; *Board of Directors*, two-year term, Frank W. Goldstone, Hamilton House, London, W. C. 1, England; P. Ling, Peking, China; D. D. MacDonald, Toronto, Canada; P. Seshadri, Benares, India; Walter R. Siders, Pocatello, Idaho; Mary Tweedie, Edinburgh, Scotland; Selma Borchardt, Washington, D. C.; Rao B. P. A. Inamdar, Aundh, India; G. R. Parker, Catford, London, S. E. 6, England; *Board of Directors*, four-year term, Harry Charlesworth, Vancouver, B. C.; Thomas Henderson, Edinburgh, Scotland; P. W. Kuo, Shanghai, China; Fred Mander, Hamilton House, London, W. C. 1, England; Thomas J. O'Connell, Dublin, Ireland; M. Sawayanagi, Tokio, Japan; Annie C. Woodward, Sommerville, Massachusetts; Otto Tacke, Stettin, Germany. Facts relating to the establishment of the World Federation of Education Associations and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings*, as follows:

1921: 176-182
1922: 312-317

1923: 106, 402-424
1924: 272-274

1925: 913-927
1926: 996-1003

PROPOSED ARTICLES OF INCORPORATION OF THE
WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION
ASSOCIATIONS¹

TO THE REGENTS OF THE UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF NEW YORK:

We, the undersigned, who are now officials and directors of the unincorporated association known as—*The World Federation of Education Associations*, all being persons of full age, desiring to form a Corporation under the Education Law, do hereby apply to the Regents of the University of the State of New York, for a Charter to be granted pursuant to the provisions of Section 59 of such law, and do make, sign and acknowledge the following statement:

First: NAME: The name of the proposed Corporation is *The World Federation of Education Associations*.

Second: PURPOSES: The purposes for which such Corporation is to be formed are to promote the cause of education and to elevate the character of teaching throughout the world; to secure international cooperation in educational enterprises; to foster the dissemination of information concerning the progress of education in all its forms among nations and peoples; to advise and promote suitable and effective means to bring into closer co-ordination the various agencies in every civilized country which have to do with education; to cultivate international goodwill, and to promote the interests of world wide peace.

Third: POWERS: The said Corporation shall have power to hold conferences for consideration and action upon such matters as are embraced in or related to the foregoing objects of this Corporation; to publish and circulate literature pertaining to the cause of education, goodwill among peoples and world peace, and such other literature as may promote the welfare, or tend to carry out the objects of the corporation; to provide for such other measures as might seem necessary or advisable to secure action or cooperation by individuals or bodies, to promote the said state objects; further to take, receive, manage, invest and re-invest any real or personal property, whether by gift, grant, devise, bequest or purchase, and to grant, convey, lease or otherwise administer the same for the purposes of this corporation; and further, to accept, hold and administer any trust of real or personal estate for any purpose within the objects of this corporation; also to make bylaws not inconsistent with the provisions of this instrument; and to perform or do any other act or thing necessary or incidental to the carrying out of the foregoing objects and powers.

Fourth: MEMBERSHIP: The membership of the corporation shall be composed of educational organizations, associations of persons directly con-

¹ An account of the Second Biennial Conference of the World Federations of Education Associations, held at Toronto, Canada, August 7-13, 1927, appears in the October, 1927 issue of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, page 211.

nected with education, institutions of learning, or associations whose chief function is education.

The classification of members, their qualifications, admission to and terms of membership, rights, duties and obligations, shall be prescribed by the bylaws of the corporation.

Fifth: OFFICERS: The Managers of this corporation shall be known as Directors. The Board of Directors shall consist of fifteen members, of whom no more than two shall be residents of the same country. They shall be nominated as prescribed by the bylaws, and elected by a Delegate Assembly, representation in which shall be fixed by the bylaws. The President shall be a member of the Board of Directors *ex officio* and shall serve as a member thereof in addition to the number above specified. The corporation shall have power to increase the number of Directors from time to time, as new countries come into relationship with the corporation through application for and admission to membership of education associations or groups in such countries. The total number of directors, however, shall never exceed sixty-five (65). Notwithstanding anything to the contrary, the Directors shall have power to add three directors to provide for any unrepresented educational interests.

Directors shall be classified with respect to the time for which they shall severally hold office, by dividing them into two classes. The Directors of the first class shall be seven in number, and shall hold office until the next meeting of the Delegate Assembly of the corporation which is proposed to be held in 1929. The successors to the said Directors of the said first class shall be elected at such time to hold office for the term of four years. Directors of the second class shall be eight in number, and shall hold office until the next succeed meeting of the Delegate Assembly following that which is proposed to be held in the year 1929. Successors to said Directors of the second class shall be elected at such time to hold office for such term as may be prescribed by the bylaws. At each meeting of the Delegate Assembly held thereafter directors shall be elected for terms of years as prescribed in the bylaws in place of those whose terms of office expire in the year of such meeting.

All moneys received from dues or paid or given directly to current operating expenses shall be held, managed, and administered by the Board of Directors exclusively.

There shall also be a Board of Trustees consisting of not less than fifteen nor more than twenty-one persons. The Board of Trustees shall have the exclusive safekeeping, management, and administration of all moneys and other property which the corporation may acquire by donation, devise or bequest, except such moneys above described, as shall be received from dues, or paid or given directly for current operating expenses, with the power of investment and reinvestment thereof, and of all surplus or unexpended income therefrom. The income of such permanent fund, aside from the expense of the administration of the trust, shall be used, with the approval of

the Board of Trustees, to promote such educational enterprises as the Board of Directors may determine to undertake within the limitations, powers and purposes of the corporation. The Board of Trustees shall appropriate from such income for budgets so set up by the Board of directors from time to time, except as to items by said Trustees disapproved. Trustees shall not be responsible for losses not caused by bad faith. In no event shall property or funds given for a specific purpose be used for any other or different purpose.

Trustees shall be classified with respect to the time for which they shall severally hold office, by dividing them into three classes, each consisting as nearly as may be of one-third of the whole number of the Board of Trustees. Trustees of the first class shall hold office for two years from the date of the issuing of a Charter to this corporation. Trustees of the second class shall hold office for four years from the date of the issuing of a Charter. Trustees of the third class shall hold office for six years from the issuance of such Charter to the corporation. The successors to the class of Trustees whose terms shall expire in any given year, shall be elected to hold office for the term of six years, so that the term of office of one class of Trustees shall expire in each two years. Upon expiration from time to time of terms of Trustees, the Board of Directors shall elect successors, but in so doing may elect only such persons, or from such group of persons, as are nominated therefor, by the remaining Trustees, except that the Board of Directors may elect to said Board of Trustees not to exceed at any time one-third of the total number of the Board of Trustees, persons not nominated by the said remaining Trustees. In case of any vacancy in the Board of Trustees occurring during the term of a Trustee, through death, resignation, removal, disqualification or other cause, the remaining Trustees may elect a successor to hold office for the unexpired portion of the term.

The Bylaws may provide that Directors and Trustees may vote on any proposed action coming before their respective Boards, by mail, telegram or by proxy.

The Bylaws shall provide also for the creation of other offices and committee, method and manner of appointment or election thereto, qualification for office, terms of office, powers and duties, and all other matters in relation thereto.

Sixth: The proposed corporation is to be a non-stock corporation.

Seventh: The principal office of the corporation shall be located in the City of New York, State of New York, but the principal business may be transacted elsewhere.

Eighth: The names and postoffice addresses of the Directors for the first period, as provided in Article Fifth of this Certificate, are as follows:—

DIRECTORS OF THE FIRST CLASS:

Names: _____ Postoffice Address:

DIRECTORS OF THE SECOND CLASS:

Names: _____ Postoffice Address:

Ninth: The names and postoffice addresses of the Trustees for the first period, as provided in Article Five of this Certificate, are as follows:—

TRUSTEES OF THE FIRST CLASS:

Names: _____ Postoffice Address:

TRUSTEES OF THE SECOND CLASS:

Names: _____ Postoffice Address:

TRUSTEES OF THE THIRD CLASS:

Names: _____ Postoffice Address:

Tenth: The names and postoffice addresses of the subscribers to this Certificate are as follows:

Names: _____ Postoffice Address:

Eleventh: The duration of this corporation shall be perpetual. Certificate, this — day of — in the year One thousand nine hundred twenty-seven.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF we have made, signed and acknowledged on this — day of August, One thousand nine hundred and twenty seven (1927).

PROVINCE OF ONTARIO,

COUNTY OF YORK,

To WIT:

ON THIS — day of August, one thousand nine hundred and twenty-seven, before me personally appeared ——— known to me to be the persons described in and who executed the foregoing Instrument, and they severally duly acknowledged to me that they executed the same.

*RESOLUTIONS ADOPTED BY THE SECOND BIENNIAL
CONFERENCE OF THE WORLD FEDERATION OF
EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, TORONTO,
CANADA, AUGUST 12, 1927*

1. The World Federation of Education Associations reaffirms its allegiance to the ideals and program of service developed at the World Conference in San Francisco, in 1923, and at the First Biennial Conference of the W. F. E. A., at Edinburgh, in 1925.

It believes that upon the teachers of the world rests the responsibility of preparing the children and youth of all nations and races for lives of mutual goodwill, service, and happiness.

It believes that every child is entitled to an education which will prepare it for sound health, worthy home membership, mastery of the tools, technics, and spirit of learning, faithful citizenship, vocational effectiveness, the wise use of leisure, and which will promote the development of sound character.

Educational Opportunity—The W. F. E. A. recommends that in every country, educational opportunities be open to all, regardless of race, creed, or color.

Secondary Education—1. That the W. F. E. A. encourage cooperation with affiliated associations in the promotion of such aids to education as universal biography, visual instruction, and the use of motion films, particularly when of educational and scientific nature, literature and language study, particularly in the modern field, esthetics, and training for citizenship as possessing great potentialities for the development of the international outlook.

2. That the W. F. E. A. encourage secondary schools to secure, during the next biennial period, the inclusion in the daily time-table or schedule, provision for assemblies, athletics, musical and dramatic work, and other forms of extracurriculum activities, with a view to improving the general morale of all pupils.

Colleges and Universities—The W. F. E. A. recommends that the Committees of the Group on Colleges and Universities continue their work during the next biennial period, and that they make a full report to the group in 1929.

Adult Education—The W. F. E. A. recommends that its constituent associations in all countries cooperate with all bona fide associations, or other agencies, in the work of the provision and development of facilities for adult education.

History Teaching—The W. F. E. A. recommends:

That the W. F. E. A. prepare a statement of the ideals which should obtain in history and history teaching. Such statement should emphasize the necessity for an impartial treatment of international intercourse. A frank admission of shortcomings should accompany the claim of services rendered to the cause of human welfare in each country. In proceeding from national to world history, emphasis should be laid upon the progress from conflict to conciliation.

Geography Teaching—The W. F. E. A. recommends:

1. That in the interests of the fuller development of the spirit of world mindedness, it is desirable that means be devised whereby upto-date geographic information can be secured and distributed to the teachers in the various types of educational institutions in all countries.

2. That a committee be appointed to investigate the present situation in regard to the teaching of geography.

Home and School Relationships—The W. F. E. A. recommends, since the child receives its education in home, school, and community, the promotion of cooperation between home and school, and their joint efforts to secure in the community such conditions as will supplement the best instruction given by the parents and teachers, for the development of the whole child in all three of these relationships.

Education Week—The W. F. E. A. recommends that Education Week be observed throughout the nations of the world, for the purpose of acquainting the public with the work of the schools and their needs, and that the Federation offices serve as a clearinghouse for plans, policies, and information covering this project.

Health—The W. F. E. A. recommends:

1. That in all countries a school health service be established by the appropriate authorities.

2. That entrance to teacher training institutions be preceded by a health examination, and that such institutions provide thorough training in the fundamental principles of hygiene and physiology, and that all doctors and nurses appointed to school health services be especially trained and qualified in the psychology of education, in school administration, and in classroom procedure.

3. That machinery be established by this Federation, for the interchange of information regarding these activities throughout the world.

Character Education—The W. F. E. A. recommends that a committee be appointed to ascertain the current practice in different countries, in the preparation of teachers; for the giving of character training, and that this committee report to the section at the next biennial meeting.

Preparation of Teachers for International Cooperation and Goodwill—The W. F. E. A. recommends that this section continue and extend its studies during the next biennial period.

The Behavior-Problem Child—The W. F. E. A. recommends:

1. That special provision be made for the behavior-problem child, including a curriculum adapted to his needs, and the provision of understanding teachers.

2. That the problem child be regarded not as a moral delinquent, or a mental defective, but rather as a special type, needing to be helped through a difficult period of development.

3. That a committee be appointed to investigate and report on what is being done in teacher training classes to prepare teachers for this responsibility.

International Educational Exchange—The W. F. E. A. recommends:

1. That the plans now in operation for the exchange of students, professors, and lecturers between the higher institutions of learning in various countries be highly commended, and that we heartily recommend that edu-

cational authorities throughout the world offer as far as possible all reasonable inducements in the way of scholarships and other means to promote and extend exchanges of this kind. It especially recommends the use of such means as invitations from educational institutions and industrial concerns of any country to the students and professors of other countries for the promotion of scientific research work.

2. That we believe the interchange of teachers to be a most effective means of promoting better understanding and goodwill among the peoples of the world and also to be of inestimable educational advantage. In this connection we recommend for careful consideration as a general basis for interchange the scheme for interchange of teachers endorsed by the Imperial Educational Council at London, England, in 1923, and now in operation within the British Empire.

Library Service—The W. F. E. A. recommends that a committee be appointed to formulate a program of work to be presented at the next biennial conference, covering the international aspect of library service, including bibliographies and education literature of various countries, and the interchange of educational periodicals and news.

The Removal of Illiteracy—The W. F. E. A. recommends:

1. That all nations strive to bring the tools of learning to their illiterates.
2. That the Illiteracy Commission of the W. F. E. A. gather information, literature, and plans in use in various countries, and make them available in handbook form.
3. That a uniform definition of the term "Adult Illiterate" be adopted, and that this include persons of ten years of age or over.
4. That this definition be applied in the census to be taken in or about 1930.

Visual Education—The W. F. E. A. recommends:

1. The creation of a visual aid card index catalog, an international bibliography on the visual aid field, an international circulation plan for the catalog and bibliography so created.
2. The cooperation with all other sections of this Federation, in order to secure to each the maximum benefit of visual aids in accomplishing their aims.

Appreciation of Hospitality—The W. F. E. A. expresses its sincere appreciation and thanks to the Local Committee, the Canadian Teachers Federation, the Provincial Government of Ontario, the University of Toronto, the officers of Hart House, the Board of Education, the City of Toronto, the Niagara Falls Commission, the railways, the press, the police, the Canadian National Exhibition, to Mr. Augustus Bridle and his associates, to Dr. H. A. Fricker, the Canadian Bureau for the Advancement of Music, the T. Eaton Company, and the Robert Simpson Company, for generous services and hospitality provided in connection with the conference.

The cordial cooperation of all these agencies, and of the citizens of Toronto, has contributed in the highest possible degree to the success of this second Biennial Conference.

The Secretary of the Federation is instructed to convey an expression of the gratitude of the W. F. E. A. to all who contributed in this way.

THE RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

Chairman—Mr. F. Mander, B. Sc., England.

Secretary—Mr. Joy Elmer Morgan, U. S. A.

Committee—Mr. M. J. Coldwell, Canada; Mr. Sidney Wei, China; Mr. G. R. Parker, B. A., B. Sc., England; Sir Charles Cleland, Scotland.

Associational Records and Information

Associational Records and Information

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 bylaws 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, *Eliphalet Oram Lyte, *John W. Lamsinger, 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; *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,	List of Incorporators
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*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

Purpose and Departments 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 bylaws 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.

* Deceased.

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.

**Property to be
Tax-Exempt**

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 bylaws of the corporation.

Members

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.

Officers

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 bylaws of the corporation.

**Board of
Directors**

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 committee 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 adopted by the Board of Directors under general directions as may be given by said board.

**Executive
Committee**

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.

**Board of
Trustees**

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

**Permanent
Fund**

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 expenditure 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

**Duties of
Trustees**

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.

**Election of
Secretary**

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,

**Location of
Office**

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 bylaws.

SEC. 9. That the charter, constitution, and bylaws 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 bylaws shall be adopted; and

**Acceptance of
This Charter**

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 bylaws, 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 incorporated 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 heretofore 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, **Rights of Creditors** or for any cause existing against the 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. **Amendments to Charter**

SEC. 12. That said corporation may provide, by amendment to its bylaws, 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 bylaws adopted by said corporation. **Creation of Representative Assembly**

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 Educational 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 Educational Association of the United States by the active members thereof in annual session at Salt Lake City, Utah, July 9, 1920.

BYLAWS

THE Bylaws as presented herewith are complete as amended at the annual business meeting of the Representative Assembly at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, July 3, 1926. The right-hand column shows the amendments proposed by the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions and presented to the Representative Assembly at Seattle, Washington, July 6, 1927. The foreword of the report presented by the Committee at Seattle follows:

In 1924 the Committee on Coinclusive Membership was appointed to study the problems of the Association growing out of the present system of electing delegates to the Representative Assembly which permits duplicate representation in that body.

At the Philadelphia meeting in 1926, the Representative Assembly authorized the discharge of the Coinclusive Membership Committee and the appointment of another committee, with more inclusive powers, to be known as the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions. Soon after the Philadelphia meeting adjourned, President Blair appointed this committee with Dr. P. P. Claxton as its chairman. The first meeting of the Committee was held at Dallas at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Discussion by members of the Committee at this meeting revealed that there were four outstanding problems to be considered: (1) the problem of bringing the Bylaws into agreement with the Charter; (2) the problem of clarifying and bringing into agreement and harmony the Bylaws with themselves; (3) the problem of reducing the size of the Representative Assembly so that it may be a really deliberative body; and (4) the problem of providing a method for the selection of the delegates to the Assembly that will be fair and equitable and at the same time eliminate duplicate representation in the Representative Assembly.

A subcommittee was appointed by the chairman to meet some time before the Seattle meeting of the Association to formulate recommendations to the committee as a whole. This subcommittee met in Chicago in May. Its recommendations were submitted to the entire committee at Seattle and after three extended sessions, during which the recommendations of the subcommittee were gone over in detail, the Committee was unanimous in making the recommendations which it submits in this report.

The Committee submits these amendments with the request that delegates take them to their organizations for study and that any suggestions for their improvement be sent to the chairman of the Committee before February, 1928.

BYLAWS

(Complete as amended at the Annual Business Meeting of the Representative Assembly, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, July 3, 1926.)

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

Membership Defined

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.

Obligations and Privileges

SEC. 3. The annual dues of an active member shall be \$2 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 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.

Life Members and Life Directors

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.

Associate Members

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

ARTICLE I

SECTION 1. Unchanged.

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

SEC. 3. The annual dues of an active member shall be \$2. It shall entitle him to attend all meetings of the Association and its several Departments; to receive *The Journal* and on application, to secure all publications of the Association at a price fixed by the Executive Committee, which shall be the approximate cost. By the payment of annual dues of \$5 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. Unchanged.

SEC. 5. Associate members of the Association shall be persons who are not actively engaged in the profession of teaching or other educational work, but

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.

Corresponding Members

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.

Membership Year

SEC. 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.

Payment of Dues

SEC. 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.

Membership Card

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 bylaws of the Association.

Right to Vote

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.

who are otherwise 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, to serve as a delegate in the Representative Assembly and to hold office.

SEC. 6. Unchanged.

SEC. 7. Unchanged.

SEC. 8. Unchanged.

SEC. 9. Unchanged.

SEC. 10. The right to vote, to serve as a delegate in the Representative Assembly and to hold office in the Association or in any department thereof, shall be limited to active members whose dues are paid. The right to vote, or hold office in the Council shall be limited to members of the Council whose dues are paid.

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

Election of Officers

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. At the first Business meeting of the Representative Assembly on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association nominations for the following officers shall be made: President, Vicepresident, and Treasurer. Candidates for said offices shall be nominated from the floor upon roll call of the states. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association the delegates of each state, territory, and district of the United States shall nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors and the name of such person shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states. On the fourth day of the annual meeting officers shall be elected from the candidates by the delegates to the Representative Assembly by ballot. Said ballots shall be printed and shall contain the names of all nominees as provided above. Polls for voting shall be open from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M., at such place or places as the President of the Association shall designate. The candidates for President, Treasurer, member of Board of Directors from each state, territory, or district, respectively, and the eleven candidates for the office of Vicepresident receiving the highest

ARTICLE II

SECTION 1. Unchanged.

SEC. 2. At the first business meeting of the Representative Assembly on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association, nominations for the following officers shall be made: President, eleven Vicepresidents and Treasurer. Candidates for said offices shall be nominated from the floor upon the roll call of the States.

On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, the delegates of each State, territory or district of the United States* shall nominate one person for member of the Board of Directors; provided that a nomination for member of the Board of Directors has not already been made by the state teachers' association or by the education association of such state and the nominations so made reported to the Secretary of the Association so as to be received by him not later than ten (10) days before the first day of the annual meeting; the nominations for state member of the Board of Directors may be made by the Representative Assembly of the state teachers' association or the education association of the state, not having a Representative Assembly in such manner as the state teachers' association or education association of the state may determine. The name of the person nominated shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states and at this meeting the Directors thus nominated shall be elected by acclamation.

On the fourth day of the annual meeting, officers shall be elected from the

* Hereafter wherever the word "State" appears as above, it will be understood that State territory or District of the U. S. is meant.

number of votes shall be declared elected. The President of the Association shall appoint tellers and complete all arrangements for carrying out the election. The results of the election herein provided shall be announced at the final business session of the Representative Assembly. The officers thus chosen 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 term for which they are separately chosen and until their successors are duly elected.

Affiliated State Associations

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.

candidates by the delegates to the Representative Assembly by ballot and said ballot shall be printed and shall contain the names of all nominees as provided above. Polls for voting shall be open from 8:00 A. M. to 6:00 P. M. at such place or places as the President of the Association shall designate. The candidates for President and Treasurer and the eleven candidates for the office of Vicepresident receiving the highest number of votes, shall be declared elected. The President of the Association shall appoint tellers and complete all arrangements for carrying out the election. The results of the election herein provided shall be announced at the final business session of the Representative Assembly. The officers thus chosen 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 on the first day of October, provided that when a change of officers is made, such change shall be accompanied by an audit covering the transactions of business and the holdings of these officers for the preceding year.

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 then be designated an affiliated State Association. The annual dues of an affiliated State Association shall be \$5. Said Association shall receive without application or other condition, all regular publications of the National Education Association.

Affiliated Local Associations

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.

Relationship: National, State and Local

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 insofar as such interest comes 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.

State Delegates

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

SEC. 4. A local educational association or teachers' organization within a state, may affiliate with the National Education Association and shall be designated an Affiliated Local 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.

SEC. 5. Each Affiliated State Association shall, together with the Local Affiliated Associations, within the State, constitute a state unit and as such shall sit in the Representative Assembly.

SEC. 6. The Board of Directors shall provide an equitable plan for paying the expenses of delegates to the annual meetings of the Association.

hundred of its members, or major fraction thereof, who are active members of the National Education Association. Such delegates shall be designated State Delegates.

Local 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.

Selection of 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.

Ex Officio Delegates

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.

(Section 5 becomes Section 7, to read as follows:)

SEC. 7. Each Affiliated Association, both state and local, shall be furnished with certificate of membership and shall be entitled to the active assistance and support of the National Education Association in promoting the interests of such Affiliated Association and its members, insofar as such interests come within the purposes 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, in harmony with the policies approved by the Board of Directors, 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.

(Sections 6, 7, 8 and 9 deleted.)

SEC. 8. The President of the National Education Association shall be the President of the Representative Assembly and shall preside at its meetings. In the absence of the President, the ranking Vice-president who is present, shall preside and in the absence of the President and all Vice-presidents, the Assembly shall, under the direction of the Secretary, elect a Chairman pro tempore.

SEC. 9. (Section 10 as amended.)

Delegates shall file their credentials with the Secretary of the National Education 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 Credentials Committee when appointed, with such information thereon as may

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.

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 delegate shall have one vote. Meetings of the Representative Assembly shall be open to all members of the Association and any member of the Association may address the Representative Assembly upon the invitation of the President or by a majority of the Assembly.

SEC. 10. The Representative Assembly shall be composed of the President and the twelve Vicepresidents of the National Education Association and 500 delegates elected from the several states in the proportion which the number of their active members in the National Education Association bears to the total number of members of the Association, provided that every state shall be entitled to at least one delegate.

The ratio for computing the number of delegates to which the several Affiliated Associations are entitled, shall be determined by dividing the total number of active members of the Association, by five hundred.

The Secretary of the National Education Association shall compute this ratio annually at the close of the membership year and shall, on or before the 10th day of September, certify the same to the Secretary of each State Affiliated Association, together with a statement of the number of delegates for the ensuing year to which each of the states is entitled. He shall also transmit to the Secretary of each State Association, a list of all the Affiliated Local Associations in that State, together with the number of active members of the National Education Association recorded as members of each of the Affiliated Local Associations.

The delegates in the Representative Assembly to which any state shall be entitled, shall be apportioned to the local Associations affiliated with the National Education Association, and to the active National Education Association membership in the state, not so affiliated in the ratio of their respective numbers. Local Affiliated Associations

Delegates; Credentials; Voting; Freedom of Floor

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 bylaws of the Association. It shall recommend an equitable plan for paying the expenses of delegates to the annual business meeting of the Association.

having a National Education Association membership entitling them to one or more delegates shall name such delegate or delegates and certify them directly to the Secretary of the State Association for election as delegate.

Each local affiliated organization whose total active membership in the National Education Association is less than the ratio, but not less than fifty members, shall be entitled to nominate one delegate; from these nominees the State Association shall elect the number of delegates to which this group of local organizations is entitled. All nominees not elected as delegates shall be placed on the alternate list.

The election of delegates to which the State National Education Association membership, not members of local associations, shall be entitled, shall be provided for by the State Association in a manner consistent with the Charter and Bylaws of the National Education Association provided that such delegates shall not be members of any affiliated local Association and Provided that with the approval of the Executive Committee of the National Education Association, any state may, through its State Association, modify the plan herein set forth for electing the delegates to the Representative Assembly of delegates.

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

(Section 11 deleted.)

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

Duties of the President

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 Vicepresident who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all Vicepresidents a chairman *pro tempore* shall be elected. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of the annual meeting of the Association, and, with the approval of the Executive Committee, shall deter-

ARTICLE III

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 Vicepresident, who is present, shall preside, and in the absence of the President and all Vicepresidents, the Chairman *pro tempore* shall be elected under the direction of the Secretary of the Association. The President shall prepare the program for the general session of the annual meeting of the Association and shall have the power to confer with the President of the Council

mine the time and place of the general meeting of the Association and of the various departments not definitely fixed by these bylaws, 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 Vicepresident for the ensuing year, and shall be chairman *ex officio* of the Committee on Publication.

Duties of the Secretary

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 bylaws, 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 the 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

and the heads of the several departments and to make such recommendations in regard to the program of the Council and the several Departments as will, in his opinion, 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 acting for and under the instruction of the Board of Directors. On the expiration of his term of office as President, he shall become first Vicepresident for the ensuing year.

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 these Bylaws and in all matters not definitely described therein shall be under the direction of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee acting for the Board of Directors and in the absence of instructions from the Board of Directors or the Executive Committee, shall be under the direction of the President. He shall receive or collect all moneys due the Association and pay the same each month to the Treasurer. He shall countersign all bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors or by the Executive Committee acting under the authority of the Board of Directors or on the approval of the President acting under authority of the Board of Directors or of the 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. He shall be the custodian of all the

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.

Duties of the Treasurer

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.

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 fifteen (15) days before 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 or distribute any official report or other document without the approval of the Board of Directors or of the Executive Committee acting under the general instruction of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 3. The Treasurer shall receive from the Secretary, and under the direction of the Board of Trustees shall hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall notify the President of the Association and the Chairman of the Board of Trustees whenever the surplus funds in his possession exceed \$500; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures with vouchers for the latter; and said accounts ending on the 31st day of May each year; he shall render to the Executive Committee not later than ten (10) days before the annual meeting of the Association and when approved by said Committee, these accounts shall be transmitted by the Committee to the Board of Directors at its meeting held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association and a copy of the report shall be transmitted to the Representative Assembly for its information. 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.

Duties of the Board of Directors

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall elect corresponding members as prescribed by Section 6 of Article I of these bylaws, shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these bylaws, 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 meeting 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.

Duties of Executive Committee

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 mem-

SEC. 4. The Board of Directors shall elect corresponding members as prescribed in Section 6 of Article I of these Bylaws; shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these Bylaws; shall fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills incurred by itself or by the Executive Committee; the President or the Secretary acting under the authority of the Board of Directors, shall appropriate from the current funds of the year the amounts of money ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meeting of the same for the work of all special committees of Research and investigation authorized and provided for at the annual business meeting, and for all other needs of the Association; 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 its annual business meeting, and shall do all in its power to make the Association a useful and honorable institution.

The Board of Directors shall meet in connection with the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly and may meet in connection with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence and at such other times and places as may be determined by the President or requested in writing by a majority of the elective members of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 5. The Executive Committee may 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 members 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

bership 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.

Further Duties of Trustees

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

Function of National Council

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 meet-

duly authorized by the Representative Assembly and appropriations for them have been authorized by the Board of Directors, the Executive Committee shall, under the instructions of the Board of Directors, have general supervision of them. The Executive Committee shall receive and consider all reports made by the Special Committees and shall print these reports and present them, together with the reports of the Secretary, the Treasurer and the Board of Trustees, and the recommendations of the Executive Committee thereon, to the Board of Trustees which shall transmit the same with recommendations to the Representative Assembly at its annual business meeting. All special committees shall be appointed by the President of the Association.

In case of death, resignation or incapacity of the President, the Vicepresidents shall become President in the order of their rank.

SEC. 6. The Board of Trustees shall require of the Secretary and Treasurer bonds in such amounts 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 ten (10) days 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 in connection with the annual meeting of the Association. It shall choose its own chairman and secretary.

ARTICLE IV

SECTION 1. No change.

ing 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.

Membership in Council

SEC. 2. The National Council of Education shall consist of one hundred 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. In addition to the 120 members thus selected from the active membership, the National Council may in its bylaws provide for the admission to membership of representatives from the several departments of the Association on the basis of equal representation from each department.

SEC. 2. No change.

Election of Committee Members

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.

SEC. 3. No change.

Time of Meeting

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

SEC. 4. No change.

Loss of Membership

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 reg-

SEC. 5. No change.

ular sessions of the Council and participating in its discussions. A member who discontinues or foreits his active membership in the Association forfeits his membership in the Council.

Council Officers

SEC. 6. The officers of the Council shall consist of a President, a Vicepresident, a Secretary, and such standing committees as may be prescribed by its bylaws, 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. 6. No change.

Bylaws and Powers of Council

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

SEC. 7. No change.

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.

SEC. 8. No change.

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

ARTICLE V

SECTION 1. The following departments are now (1927) in existence, to wit: The departments, first, of Adult Education; second, of American Association of Teachers Colleges; third, of Business Education; fourth, of Classroom Teachers; fifth, of Deans of Women; sixth, of Elementary School Principals; seventh, of Junior High School Principals; eighth, of Kindergarten-Primary Education; ninth, of Lip Reading; tenth, of Music Education; eleventh, of Rural Education; twelfth, of School Health and Physical Educa-

SECTION 1. No change.

tion; thirteenth, of Science Instruction; fourteenth of Secondary School Principals; fifteenth, of Social Studies; sixteenth, of Superintendence; seventeenth, of Visual Instruction; eighteenth, of Vocational Education. There is also the National Council of Education.

Members of Departments

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. 2. No change.

SEC. 3. Each department shall hold its annual meeting at the time and place of the meeting of the Association, except as the Executive Committee may approve other arrangements.

SEC. 3. Each Department shall hold an annual meeting at the time and place of the meeting of the Association except as otherwise provided in these Bylaws or as directed by the Board of Directors.

Object of Department Meetings

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. 4. No change.

Officers of Departments

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

SEC. 5. The officers of each Department shall consist of a President, a Vicepresident, a Secretary and such other officers as may be deemed necessary by the Department, who shall be elected at the last formal session of the Department and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the Asso-

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 bylaws of the Association.

Department Headquarters

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.

Rights of Departments

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 bylaws.

How Established

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 two hundred fifty members engaged or interested in the field

ciation. In case there is a vacancy in the office of President of any Department, it shall be filled by appointment made by the Executive Committee of the Department. 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 Bylaws 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. No Department shall establish an office outside of the general headquarters of the Association without the consent of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 7. No change.

SEC. 8. A new department may be established by a two-thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any annual business meeting on the recommendation of the Board of Directors; 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 Assembly next preceding the one at which action is taken—by at least 250 members en-

of labor in the interest of which the department is proposed to be established; provided, That no group shall be admitted to departmental status until it shall have held constructive meetings for at least three successive years.

How Discontinued

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 of 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.

Fees for Department Members

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.

gaged or interested in the field in the interest of which the department is proposed to be established; provided that no group shall be admitted to Departmental status until it shall have held constructive meetings for at least three successive years. A Department already established may be discontinued upon a two-thirds vote of the Representative Assembly at any business meeting provided that announcement of the purpose to discontinue has been made at the preceding annual business meeting. The Board of Directors may recommend to the Representative Assembly the discontinuance of any Department. A Department shall be discontinued when it fails to hold a regular meeting for two successive years.

SEC. 9. No change.

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

Auditing Committee

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

ARTICLE VI

SECTION 1. Not later than five months before the end of the fiscal year, 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 and audit of the expert accountant or accountants, together with the communication of the President transmitting the same as pro-

in Section 6 of this article; and the committee shall report its findings at the meeting of the Representative Assembly.

Delegates Meet by States

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, 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.

Resolutions

SEC. 3. 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.

Necrology

SEC. 4. 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.

Examination of Accounts

SEC. 5. 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, papers, and

vided in Section 5 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 times and places as shall be designated on the annual program by the President of the Association, delegates from each state shall select one member for each of the following committees: Credentials, 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. No change.

SEC. 4. The Committee on Necrology may prepare for the published proceedings, brief memorial tributes to members who have died during the year.

SEC. 5. Within thirty (30) 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 accountant or accountants so appointed shall examine

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

Meetings to be Held Annually

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 bylaws. 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.

Meetings of Assembly Directors, and Trustees

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,

the accounts, papers 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 accountant or accountants shall be filed with the President not less than ten (10) days before the opening day of the annual meeting of the Association and shall be by him submitted to the Auditing Committee with such comments as he may think proper.

ARTICLE VII

SECTION 1. A stated meeting of the Association of the Council of Education, and of all other Departments, except as otherwise provided, shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors or by the Executive Committee acting under the instructions of the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. The annual business meeting of the Representative Assembly shall begin at 9:00 o'clock A. M., on the second day of the annual meeting of the Association. A regular meeting of the Board of Directors shall be held in connection with the annual meeting of the Association. The times and places of such meetings shall be designated in the program. The Secretary shall notify the members of the Board of Directors of the meeting, not less than thirty (30) days before the meeting.

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 this meeting shall 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. Special meetings of the Trustees may

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

Publication of 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*.

Absence of Author

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

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

Limit on Investigations

SECTION 1. Unless otherwise ordered by the Representative Assembly at the annual business meetings, not less than 10 percent 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.

be called by the Chairman and shall be called on request of a 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

SECTION 1. The proceedings of the Association, of the Council, of the Departments, and of all commissions and committees, shall be published at the discretion of and under the direction of the Executive Committee provided that such publication has been approved and the money therefor appropriated by the Board of Directors.

SEC. 2. No paper, lecture or 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 President of the Department interested, nor shall any such paper, lecture or address be published in the proceedings without the approval of the Executive Committee.

ARTICLE IX

SECTION 1. Elected directors from twenty-five states shall constitute a quorum of the Board of Directors. A majority of the accredited delegates shall constitute a quorum of the Representative Assembly.

ARTICLE X

(Deleted)

ARTICLE XI—AMENDMENTS

Amendments to Bylaws

SECTION 1. These bylaws 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.

ARTICLE XI

No change.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

NOW KNOWN AS THE

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

CERTIFICATE

of Acceptance of Charter and Adoption of Bylaws 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 bylaws 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 bylaws, 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 bylaws 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.

CALENDAR OF MEETINGS

NATIONAL TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, 1857-1870

- | | |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1857—PHILADELPHIA, PA. (Organized) | 1865—HARRISBURG, PA. |
| JAMES L. ENOS, Chairman. | S. S. GREENE, President. |
| W. E. SHELDON, Secretary. | W. E. SHELDON, Secretary. |
| 1858—CINCINNATI, OHIO | Z. RICHARDS, Treasurer. |
| Z. RICHARDS, President. | 1866—INDIANAPOLIS, IND. |
| J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary. | J. P. WICKERSHAM, President. |
| A. I. RICKOFF, Treasurer. | S. H. WHITE, Secretary. |
| 1859—WASHINGTON, D. C. | S. P. BATES, Treasurer. |
| A. I. RICKOFF, President. | 1867—No session. |
| J. W. BULKLEY, Secretary. | 1868—NASHVILLE, TENN. |
| C. S. PENNELL, Treasurer. | J. M. GREGORY, President. |
| 1860—BUFFALO, N. Y. | L. VAN BOKKELEN, Secretary. |
| J. W. BULKLEY, President. | JAMES CRUICKSHANK, Treasurer. |
| Z. RICHARDS, Secretary. | 1869—TRENTON, N. J. |
| O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer. | L. VAN BOKKELEN, President. |
| 1861, 1862—No session. | W. E. CROSBY, Secretary. |
| 1863—CHICAGO, ILL. | A. L. BARBER, Treasurer. |
| JOHN D. PHILBRICK, President. | 1870—CLEVELAND, OHIO |
| JAMES CRUICKSHANK, Secretary. | DANIEL B. HAGAR, President. |
| O. C. WIGHT, Treasurer. | A. P. MARBLE, Secretary. |
| 1864—OGDENSBURG, N. Y. | W. E. CROSBY, Treasurer. |
| W. H. WELLS, President. | |
| DAVID N. CAMP, Secretary. | |
| Z. RICHARDS, 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—PHILADELPHIA, 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. SHELTON, Secretary.
H. S. TARBELL, Treasurer.
- 1883—SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y.
E. T. TAPPAN, President.
W. E. SHELTON, 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. SHELTON, Secretary.
N. A. CALKINS, Treasurer.
- 1886—TOPEKA, KANS.
N. A. CALKINS, President.
W. E. SHELTON, Secretary.
E. C. HEWETT, Treasurer.
- 1887—CHICAGO, ILL.
W. E. SHELTON, 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.
- 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, President.
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 RHODES, 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.

1924—WASHINGTON, D. C.

OLIVE M. JONES, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1925—INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

JESSE H. NEWLON, President.
J. W. CRABTREE, Secretary.
CORNELIA S. ADAIR, Treasurer.

1926—PHILADELPHIA, PA.

MARY MCSKIMMON, President.
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*JOSEPH SWAIN	Swarthmore, Pa.
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Nevada	H. A. WHITENECK, Superintendent of Schools.....	Las Vegas
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New Jersey	CHARLES B. DYKE, Superintendent of Schools.....	Short Hills
New Mexico	ISABEL LANCASTER ECKLES, Superintendent City Schools	Sante Fe
New York	W. H. HOLMES, Superintendent of Schools.....	Mount Vernon
North Carolina	N. C. NEWBOLD, State Department of Education.....	Raleigh
North Dakota	MINNIE J. NIELSON, 901 Fifth Avenue.....	Valley City
Ohio	R. J. KIEFER, Superintendent of Schools.....	Niles
Oklahoma	C. K. REIFF, Superintendent of Schools.....	Muskogee
Oregon	MRS. SUSANNE HOMES CARTER, County School Superintendent	Jacksonville
Pennsylvania	CHARLES E. DICKEY, County Superintendent of Schools	Pittsburgh
Philippine Islands	LUTHER B. BEWLEY, Director of Education.....	Manila
Porto Rico	FRANCISCO VIZCARRONDO, Assistant Commissioner of Education	San Juan
Rhode Island	AGNES M. BACON, State Supervisor of Americanization, 119 State House.....	Providence
South Carolina	GEORGE W. WANNAMAKER, Superintendent of Schools.....	St. Matthews
South Dakota	N. E. STREELE, Secretary, South Dakota Education Association, 3 Perry Building.....	Sioux Falls
Tennessee	S. L. SMITH, General Field Agent, Julius Rosenwald Fund, Commercial Club Bldg.....	Nashville
Texas	J. O. WEBB, Superintendent of Schools	Harrisburg

* Deceased, May 19, 1927.

Utah	D. W. PARRATT, Executive-Secretary, Utah Education Association, 316 Vermont Bldg.....	Salt Lake City
Vermont	CLARENCE H. DEMPSEY, Commissioner of Education	Montpelier
Virginia	JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS, Superintendent of Schools.....	Newport News
Virgin Islands	ARTHUR E. LINDBORG, Director of Education.....	St. Thomas
Washington	T. R. COLE, Superintendent of Schools, 850 Central Building	Seattle
West Virginia	J. H. HICKMAN, Superintendent of Schools.....	Hinton
Wisconsin	E. G. DOUDNA, Secretary, Wisconsin Teachers Association, 717 Beaver Building.....	Madison
Wyoming	A. A. SLADE, Superintendent of Schools.....	Casper

HEADQUARTERS STAFF

1201 Sixteenth Street Northwest, Washington, D. C.

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

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HELEN T. HIXSON, Director of Accounts and Assistant Treasurer.	JOHN K. NORTON, Research.
JOY ELMER MORGAN, Publications.	HAROLD A. ALLAN, Business.
AGNES WINN, Classroom Service.	CHARL O. WILLIAMS, Field and Legislative
S. D. SHANKLAND, Administrative Service and Secretary, Department of Superintendence.	T. D. MARTIN, Records and Membership.

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<i>Secretary</i>	ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR, <i>Chief</i> , Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education (Term expires 1929).....	Washington, D. C.
<i>Executive Committee</i> ...	ANNA LAURA FORCE, Principal, Lake Junior High School (Term expires 1927)	Denver, Colorado
	GEORGE W. CHILD, Superintendent of Schools (Term expires 1928).....	Salt Lake City, Utah
	A. J. MATTHEWS, President, Tempe Normal School (Term expires 1929).....	Tempe, Arizona

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<i>President</i>	ROBERT C. DEMING, State Director of Americanization, State Board of Education.....	Hartford, Connecticut
<i>Vice-President</i>	WIL LOU GRAY, Supervisor of Adult Education, State Department of Education.....	Columbia, South Carolina
<i>Secretary</i>	WILLIE LAWSON, George Peabody College for Teachers	Nashville, Tennessee
<i>Treasurer</i>	ETHEL RICHARDSON, Assistant State Superintendent in Charge of Immigrant Education, 1130 Sun Finance Building	Los Angeles, California

American Association of Teachers Colleges, Department of National Education Association

<i>President</i>	DWIGHT B. WALDO, President, Western State Normal School	Kalamazoo, Michigan
<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>	W. P. MORGAN, President, Western Illinois State Teachers College	Macomb, Illinois

Department of Business Education

<i>President</i>	JOHN G. KIRK, Director of Commercial Education, Philadelphia Public Schools, Ramsey Building, Pine Street below Twelfth.....	Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
<i>Vice-President</i>	E. G. BLACKSTONE, Commercial Teacher Training, State University of Iowa	Iowa City, Iowa
<i>Secretary</i>	ELIZABETH BAKER, Teacher, Commercial High School, Atlanta, Georgia	Atlanta, Georgia

Department of Classroom Teachers

<i>President</i>	ANNA THOMPSON, Ormond Hotel.....	Kansas City, Missouri
<i>Vice-President</i>	MARY B. SULLIVAN, State Normal Training School, Castleton, Vermont	
<i>Secretary</i>	CLARA LYNN, 3 Crockett St.....	Seattle, Washington
<i>Executive Committee</i> ..	Western Section, JEAN L. SOULES, Avalon Hotel (Term expires 1927).....	Spokane, Washington
	Eastern Section, MRS. EDITH B. JOYNES, 408 W. 14th St. (Term expires 1928).....	Norfolk, Virginia
	Middle Section, EULA F. HUNTER, 1324 E. Morphy St. (Term expires 1929).....	Fort Worth, Texas

Department of Deans of Women

<i>President</i>	DOROTHY STIMSON, Dean of Women, Goucher College	Baltimore, Maryland
<i>Secretary</i>	ELIZABETH M. HAUSE, Dean of Girls, West Chester High School	West Chester, Pennsylvania
<i>Treasurer</i>	ANNA E. PIERCE, Dean of Women, State College for Teachers	Albany, New York

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 I. Newton Earle, Jr., Roosevelt Junior High School, New Brunswick, New Jersey.
 W. I. Early, Principal, Washington High School, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.
 David Felmley, 207 North School Street, Normal, Illinois.
 Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, Principal, Buchanan School, Grand Rapids, Michigan.
 John H. Finley, Editor, New York Times, New York City.
 Charles M. Fisher, Superintendent Dade County Schools, Miami, Florida.
 V. K. Froula, Principal, Roosevelt High School, Seattle, Washington.
 George B. Gerard, Superintendent City Schools, Belleville, New Jersey.
 C. B. Glenn, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Alabama.
 Thomas W. Gosling, Superintendent of Schools, Madison, Wisconsin.
 Clifton D. Gray, President, Bates College, Lewistown, Maine.
 Jessie Gray, Training Teacher, Philadelphia Normal School, 1301 Spring Garden Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
 William O. Holden, 46 Gooding Street, Pawtucket, Rhode Island.
 H. V. HoJoway, State Superintendent Public Instruction, Dover, Delaware.
 J. H. Hope, State Superintendent of Education, Columbia, South Carolina.
 W. A. James, Principal, Ball High School, Galveston, Texas.
 Olive M. Jones, 52 Gramercy Park, N., New York, New York.

- R. G. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.
- R. L. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Memphis, Tennessee.
- R. A. Karges, State Normal School, River Falls, Wisconsin.
- Jel W. Lamkin, President, Northwestern Missouri Teachers' College, Maryville, Missouri.
- W. A. Lewis, Kansas State Teachers College, Hays, Kansas.
- Ruby Lorange, Supervising Principal, West Palm Beach, Florida.
- L. C. Lord, President, East Illinois State Teachers College, Charleston, Illinois.
- C. G. Manning, Superintendent of Schools, Lewistown, Montana.
- R. L. Marquis, Benton, Texas.
- S. M. N. Marrs, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Austin, Texas.
- A. J. Matthews, President, State Normal School, Tempe, Arizona.
- A. B. Meredith, State Commissioner of Education, Hartford, Connecticut.
- M. A. Nash, c/o State Department of Education, Capitol Building, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.
- Minnie J. Nielson, 901 5th Avenue, Valley City, North Dakota.
- Stanley R. Oldham, Secretary, Massachusetts Teachers' Federation, Boston, Massachusetts.
- J. E. Parks, Superintendent of Schools, Cedartown, Georgia.
- M. E. Pearson, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Kansas.
- E. Ruth Pyrtle, Principal, McKinley School, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- McHenry Rhoads, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Frankfort, Kentucky.
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- D. W. Rocky, State Department of Education, Santa Fe, New Mexico.
- L. A. Sherwood, Superintendent of Schools, Lander, Wyoming.
- Walter R. Siders, Superintendent of Schools, Pocatello, Idaho.
- H. L. Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.
- N. E. Steele, Secretary, South Dakota Education Association, Room 3, Perry Building, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.
- Henry Suzzallo, University Station, Box 641, Seattle, Washington.
- Augustus O. Thomas, Commissioner of Education, Augusta, Maine.
- John J. Tigert, United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.
- W. W. Trent, Secretary, West Virginia State Education Association, Rooms 403-405, Capitol City Bank Building, Charleston, West Virginia.
- Maurice S. H. Unger, Superintendent of Schools, Westminster, Maryland.
- Francisco Vizcarrondo, Department of Education, San Juan, Porto Rico.
- D. A. Ward, Superintendent of Schools, Wilmington, Delaware.
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- E. B. Wetherow, Superintendent of Schools, La Porte, Indiana.
- C. H. Williams, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.
- Charl O. Williams, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
- Annie C. Woodward, High School Teacher, 144 School Street, Somerville, Massachusetts.
- R. H. Wright, President, East Carolina Teachers' College, Greenville, North Carolina.

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(Authorized by Representative Assembly)

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- William D. Burdick, Director of Physical Education, Baltimore, Maryland.
- William Burnham, Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts.
- Alonzo Garcelon, Superintendent of Schools, Bangor, Maine.
- Emily Griffith, 1524 Fillmore Street, Denver, Colorado.
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- William A. Howe, State Medical Inspector, University of the State of New York, Albany, New York.
- John F. Keating, Superintendent of Schools, District 20, Pueblo, Colorado.
- Mary Murphy, Director, Elizabeth McCormack Memorial Fund, 848 Dearborn Street, Chicago, Illinois.
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- Josephine C. Preston, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Olympia, Washington.
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(Authorized by Representative Assembly)

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George William Eggers, Museum of Art, Worcester, Massachusetts.
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Jessie E. La Salle, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Washington, D. C.
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H. G. Faust, Superintendent of Schools, Shawnee, Oklahoma.
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Anna G. Fraser, Vice Principal, Oakland High School, Oakland, California.
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A. D. S. Gillett, President, State Normal School, Superior, Wisconsin.
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F. A. Harrin, Conway, Arkansas.
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W. J. Hunting, 702 West Musser Street, Carson City, Nevada.
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Olive M. Jones, 52 Gramercy Park North, New York City.
R. G. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio.
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J. F. Keating, Superintendent School District No. 20, Pueblo, Colorado.
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P. H. Kimball, Superintendent of Schools, Brunswick, Maine.

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- W. T. Longshore, Principal, Greenwood School, Kansas City, Missouri.
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- A. A. McDonald, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux Falls, South Dakota.
- B. H. McIntosh, Cheyenne, Wyoming.
- Ury McKenzie, Superintendent of Schools, Hot Springs, Arkansas.
- J. G. Moore, Superintendent of Schools, Fargo, North Dakota.
- Harlan B. Peabody, 7 Villa Avenue, Providence, Rhode Island.
- Mrs. B. C. Peixotto, 55 John Street, New York, New York.
- Caroline S. Pfaff, 4868 Constance Street, New Orleans, Louisiana.
- Sidney Pickens, Superintendent of Schools, Batesville, Arkansas.
- Fred Pitcher, Principal, Public School, Chelsea, Massachusetts.
- D. Walter Potts, Superintendent of Schools, East St. Louis, Illinois.
- Sue Powers, Superintendent, Shelby County Schools, Memphis, Tennessee.
- Lois Randolph, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Santa Fe, New Mexico.
- Charles B. Redick, Superintendent of Schools, Gallup, New Mexico.
- Anna Riddle, 217 North 13th Street, St. Joseph, Missouri.
- E. E. Roderick, Superintendent of Schools, Belfast, Maine.
- Joseph Rosier, President, State Teachers College, Fairmont, West Virginia.
- E. L. Rouse, Superintendent of Schools, Scottsbluff, Nebraska.
- V. L. Roy, President, Louisiana State Normal College, Natchitoches, Louisiana.
- Joseph H. Saunders, Superintendent of Schools, Newport News, Virginia.
- H. Leslie Sawyer, President, New Hampshire State Teachers Association, New London, New Hampshire.
- W. E. Sealock, Dean, School of Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- R. T. Shaw, 245 South 51st Street, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
- Fred W. Shearer, 4 Miles Avenue, Middletown, Connecticut.
- Fred Sickles, Superintendent of Schools, New Brunswick, New Jersey.
- Jessie Skinner, 1129 Thurman, Portland, Oregon.
- Harry P. Smith, Superintendent of Schools, Lawrence, Kansas.
- J. W. Smith, T. C. Station, Denton, Texas.
- Payson Smith, State Commissioner of Education, Boston, Massachusetts.
- R. H. Snyder, Superintendent of Schools, Idaho Falls, Idaho.
- H. E. Stahl, Superintendent of Schools, Claymont, Delaware.
- B. F. Stanton, Superintendent of Schools, Alliance, Ohio.
- George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- W. A. Sutton, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Georgia.
- W. S. Taylor, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky.
- Guy Townsley, Principal, Public School, Box 278, McGill, Nevada.
- May Trumper, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana.
- L. A. Tuggle, Superintendent, Vermilion County Schools, Danville, Illinois.
- Ira Tweedy, Superintendent of Schools, Rupert, Idaho.
- D. B. Waldo, President, Western State Normal School, Kalamazoo, Michigan.
- W. F. Webster, Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- F. L. West, Utah Agricultural College, Logan, Utah.
- L. A. White, Superintendent of Schools, Minot, North Dakota.
- G. Elmer Wilbur, Superintendent, Duval County Schools, Jacksonville, Florida.
- S. C. Wilson, Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville, Texas.
- Benjamin Wist, President, Normal School, Honolulu, Hawaii.
- Kate Wofford, Superintendent, Laurens County Schools, Laurens, South Carolina.
- Will C. Wood, Commissioner of Banking, Sacramento, California.
- Robert H. Wright, President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina.

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(Authorized by Bylaws)

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- Mary H. Bailey, Supervising Principal, North Craftsbury, Vermont.
- M. E. Brockman, Superintendent of Schools, Chester, South Carolina.
- Frances J. Brown, House Principal, 2118 Campbell Avenue, Detroit, Michigan.
- Kate B. Brown, College Professor, Hattiesburg, Mississippi.
- William H. Buker, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, New Hampshire.
- C. Allen Carlson, Principal, Crisfield High School, Crisfield, Maryland.
- E. M. Carter, Secretary, Missouri State Teachers Association, 717 Gentry Street, Columbia, Missouri.
- William V. Casey, Superintendent of Schools, 820 Pine Street, Boulder, Colorado.
- Thomas Christoffel, Teacher, High School, 952 Lafond Street, St. Paul, Minnesota.
- A. R. Clifton, Superintendent of Schools, 133 North Myrtle Street, Monrovia, California.
- Hannah Cohn, Teacher, 2317 Grove Avenue, Richmond, Virginia.
- Professor Cornelius, University of Porto Rico, Mayaguez, Porto Rico.
- Vera Evans, Grade Teacher, 724 Garfield Avenue, Kansas City, Kansas.
- Clara E. Fishpaugh, Professor of Education, West Virginia Wesleyan College, Buckhannon, West Virginia.
- Edith Goddard, Teacher, High School, Montvale Avenue, Maryville, Tennessee.
- Carrie R. Gross, Teacher, Public School, 742 South 22nd Street, Louisville, Kentucky.
- E. H. Hedrick, Superintendent of Schools, Medford, Oregon.
- Mrs. Isabel Holcombe, Head, Department of History, Irving High School, 1012 North Hudson, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

- Winifred Jackson, Teacher, 1546 E Street, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- Margaret V. Kiely, Principal, Normal School, 396 Gregory Street, Bridgeport, Connecticut.
- Robert Laramy, Superintendent of Schools, 1403 Sixth Avenue, Altoona, Pennsylvania.
- Miss Willie Lawson, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee.
- R. James Longstreet, Principal, Public School, Daytona Beach, Florida.
- M. Grant Lucas, Principal, Bruce School, Washington, D. C.
- William McAndrew, Superintendent of Schools, 1142 South Michigan, Chicago, Illinois.
- Jennie McGuffey, Visiting Teacher, Tucson, Arizona.
- Mary Belle McKenzie, Elementary School Principal, 405 South Presa Street, San Antonio, Texas.
- Mrs. P. M. McNeal, Avondale School, Birmingham, Alabama.
- Myrtle Markham, Principal, Elementary School, 57 North Main Street, Natick, Massachusetts.
- A. C. Matheson, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction, State Capitol, Salt Lake City, Utah.
- Ella Ford Miller, Primary Training Teachers, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.
- Ruth M. Moore, Grade Teacher, Stanford, Montana.
- Fred Murphy, Supervisor, Rural Maui School, Wailuku, Maui, Hawaii.
- Mary O'Rourke, Teacher, High School, 421 East Main Street, Weiser, Idaho.
- Elizabeth H. Patton, Teacher, High School, 1103 West 8th Street, Wilmington, Delaware.
- C. G. Pearse, 4315 Lisbon Avenue, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
- Edith Post, Teacher, High School, 1548 15th Avenue, North, Seattle, Washington.
- J. Richardson, Superintendent of Schools, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.
- George A. Shumway, Superintendent of Schools, Douglas, Alaska.
- Mrs. Maud S. Stratton, County Superintendent of Schools, Silver City, New Mexico.
- George M. Strong, Teacher, East High School, 75 Glenmont Avenue, Columbus, Ohio.
- John E. Vincent, Principal, Mayflower School, New Rochelle, New York.
- Emma C. Voves, Classroom Teacher, Crystal Springs, North Dakota.
- Alberta E. Waterbury, Assistant Supervisor of Music, 198 North 77th Street, Newark, New Jersey.
- E. R. Weber, Superintendent of Schools, Mableton, Maine.
- Charles O. Williams, Secretary, Indiana State Teachers Association, Indianapolis, Indiana.
- Mae I. Winter, Principal, Park School, Casper, Wyoming.
- Robert H. Wright, President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina.

COMMITTEE ON REVISION OF DEPARTMENTS

(Authorized by The Board of Directors)

- Randall J. Condon, Chairman, Superintendent of Schools, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- John W. Abercrombie, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Montgomery, Alabama.
- William C. Bagley, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- Charles E. Dickey, County Superintendent of Schools, 595 Union Trust Building, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
- Flora E. Drake, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Indianapolis, Indiana.
- Warren E. Forsythe, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.
- Julia Hahn, President, Kindergarten Primary Department, Supervisor of Schools, San Francisco, California.
- Jesse H. Newlon, Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado.
- E. E. Oberholtzer, Superintendent of Schools, Houston, Texas.
- Carroll G. Pearse, 4315 Lisbon Avenue, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
- Rose Pesta, Windemere Hotel, Chicago, Illinois.
- Walter D. Potts, Superintendent of Schools, East St. Louis, Illinois.
- C. G. Schulz, Secretary, Minnesota Education Association, Room 919 Pioneer Building, St. Paul, Minnesota.
- George D. Taylor, Principal, Susan B. Anthony School, Rochester, New York.

COMMITTEE ON VISUAL EDUCATION

(Authorized by Representative Assembly)

- Frank Cody, Chairman, Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan.
- H. A. Allan, Business Manager, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St. N. W., Washington, D. C.
- J. V. Ankeny, In charge Visual Education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, West Virginia.
- Arthur G. Balcom, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Newark, New Jersey.
- S. E. Boomer, State Normal University, Carbondale, Illinois.
- Elizabeth Breckenridge, Principal, Louisville Normal School, Louisville, Kentucky.
- Ernest L. Crandall, Director, Lectures and Visual Instruction, 500 Park Avenue, New York City.
- Mrs. Susan M. Dorsey, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California.
- Isabel L. Eckles, Superintendent of Schools, Santa Fe, New Mexico.
- David Gibbs, Superintendent of Schools, Mer-Elizabeth Hall, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- Dudley Grant Hays, 460 South State Street, Chicago, Illinois.
- M. C. Lefter, Superintendent of Schools, Lincoln, Nebraska.
- Mary B. McAndrew, President, Carbondale Teachers Association, Carbondale, Pennsylvania.
- James J. Walsh, Fordham University, New York City.
- Arthur C. Watkins, 1628 Columbia Road, Apartment 409, Washington, D. C.
- H. B. Wilson, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California.

MINUTES OF THE SEVENTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY¹

Seattle, Washington, July 3-8, 1927

First Business Session, Tuesday, July 5, 1927

The first business session of the Seventh Representative Assembly, meeting in connection with the Sixty-fifth Annual Convention of the National Education Association, held at Seattle, Washington, in the Fifth Avenue Theater, was called to order by the president, Francis G. Blair of Springfield, Illinois, on Tuesday morning, July 5, 1927, at 9 o'clock, when the following proceedings were had:

President Blair: At the meeting in Meany Hall yesterday morning a lady from Vermont presented your president with a gavel that was made from wood from a number of historic places and structures from the state of Vermont. Amongst other things the handle was made from a tree cut in the farm where President Calvin Coolidge was born and reared, but I told the lady when she suggested it that that would be the gavel for that particular program, because the people of Tennessee, that great state in which the mother of the president of this National Education Association was born, had prepared to present him with a gavel made from wood of that state where that blessed woman was born, and this morning the modest presenter of that gavel did not wish to come to the stage to present it, but I hold in my hand a gavel made from wood from the state of Tennessee, where the mother of the man who holds it in his hand was born, a gavel that I cherish very greatly and shall use in all the meetings of this Representative Assembly. Let us open the session by repeating the Lord's Prayer. (The audience then rose and repeated the Lord's Prayer.)

(Songs by Miss Hansen, of Seattle.)

The first order of business is the report of the Committee on Credentials. I shall call upon *Mr. E. M. Carter* of Missouri, to present that report.

Mr. Carter then presented the following report:

To the members of the Representative Assembly:

The Credentials Committee of the National Education Association met in regular session in the Lounge of the Olympic Hotel Monday at 8 P. M., July 4, 1927.

It elected the following officers: *E. M. Carter*, Missouri, Chairman; *W. J. Sanders*, Massachusetts, Vice-Chairman; *Edith B. Joynes*, Virginia, Secretary. It was voted that the 1001 delegates who are now registered with *Miss Chase*, together with those who may register at a later date, be seated in the Representative Assembly.

It was moved, seconded and carried that a subcommittee be appointed by the chairman to consider any contests that might arise.

The following subcommittee was appointed: *W. J. Sanders*, Massachusetts; *George A. Allen*, Kansas; *Mrs. Frances M. Butts*, District of Columbia; *Edna Jones*, West Virginia; *T. E. O'Connor*, Washington.

Respectfully submitted,

THE COMMITTEE ON CREDENTIALS:

By *E. M. Carter*, Chairman,

Edith B. Joynes, Secretary.

Mr. Carter: I desire to move the adoption of this report, but before I do that, I am going to call on *Miss Harriett M. Chase* of the headquarters office, who has charge of the registration of delegates for the Committee on Credentials. I would be glad if she would let us hear from her.

Miss Chase: In appearing before this great assembly, I feel somewhat like the

¹ This is a brief statement of the business sessions as prepared by the Secretary. A complete copy of the notes taken by the official reporter is in the Secretary's office.

little boy who was clambering out of a stream. Just then an elderly gentleman passed and seeing the lad, said "Well, my boy, how did you come to fall in?" to which the boy replied "I didn't come to fall in; I came to fish."

Now, I didn't come to Seattle to speak. That is out of my line. I came to register delegates, but when the chairman of the Credentials Committee asked me to say a few words to you about delegate registration and the problems it presents, I assure you I consented most willingly. It has given me much pleasure to give some thought as to what I would say on this important topic.

It has been my very great honor and privilege to assist the Committee on Credentials every year since the meeting of the first Representative Assembly in Des Moines in 1921. (*Miss Chase* then gave an outline of the work of the Committee on Credentials, pointing out its problems and reviewing its policies. She urged the adoption of the report.)

Mr. Carter: I thank *Miss Chase* for the fine explanation she has made. Your applause shows your appreciation. I move that the report be adopted. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

Mr. Blair: The next is the adoption of the Order of Business. Mr. Secretary, what do you offer?

Secretary Crabtree: It has been the practice to adopt as the order of business the program prepared by the president of the Association, so I move that we adopt the official program for 1927 as the order of business for this session. (Motion was seconded and carried.)

Mr. Blair: The next item in this order of business is the presentation of the Minutes of the Philadelphia meeting of the Representative Assembly, Mr. Secretary.

Mr. Crabtree: The minutes are printed in the Official Manual which you have in your hands. They are also printed in the *Proceedings*. You have had an opportunity to read them. I move the adoption of the minutes as printed in the manual. (Motion seconded.)

Mr. Blair: Any discussion? Any changes suggested?

(Motion carried.)

Mr. Blair: The minutes of the Philadelphia meeting are therefore approved as printed in the Official Manual.

(President Blair then delivered the opening address before the Representative Assembly on *The Policy of the National Education Association Towards the Representative Assembly and Board of Directors*, printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: We have Dean Russell of the Teachers College, Columbia University, on the program before this Association later on. He finds, however, it is necessary for him to return for the opening session of his summer school, Teachers College, Columbia University, and has asked to be placed on the program at a time which would enable him to return. I now desire to call upon him to present the ideas of his committee as it relates itself to this great National Education Association, and its proposals, if any, in regard to the future relations of this Association to the World Federation of Education Associations.

Mr. Russell: Last summer at Philadelphia the report of the Committee on International Relations took the form of a description of what had been done at Edinburgh, with two simple proposals to the incoming president of the Association. This report will be an informal description of what we plan to do at Toronto a month hence. (He then outlined the delegation program for Toronto, giving the plans for gathering information to bring back home for national, state, and local association meetings. He closed his remarks as follows:)

I maintain that our group should be a real mine of information and a source of inspiration after they return from this meeting, and we can do better and serve your purposes better if in advance we can get some idea of what it is that you want to know. Every delegate at Toronto should later be on the programs of sections of the state associations and on programs of sections of the National Education Association itself.

Now, just another final word. We are going there with the motto of "What do you know?" rather than "I will tell the world." We are going there with the idea of learning, and I want to say in confidence that in my judgment that is the real way in which to gain international friendship and international goodwill.

I do not wish to be considered as deprecating talk about peace. I believe in peace and I believe in talking about it. I do not want to deprecate personal friendships you have made in other lands, because, I like you, have made them, and I understand what an exceedingly pleasant thing and happy thing it is, but there are things in life and certain customs among people and among relations between man and man that the more you talk about them the less good it does. I think friendship among nations comes from people that have some interest in common. They have struggled with one another and argued with one another and have been helpful to each other.

So then I hope you in the delegate assembly here will formally approve the action of this committee, and that you will uphold our hands and carry forward our policy, so that after we go to Toronto this time and as we go to other countries in future years we shall not be an aimless group of tourists; that we shall not be just a group of one hundred people out to see strange lands, but that we shall be serious people earnestly seeking information which will enable us to answer questions of importance to our people back home.

Mr. Blair: This Association pays a fee of one thousand dollars (\$1000) each year to that international association, and Dean Russell has presented to us in what seems to me to be a clear and forceful way, the objectives of the committee as he as the chairman and as the members of the committee see it.

That report is before you. I think some expression of your point of view toward it should be given here. I await any action on the part of the assembly.

Secretary Crabtree: I move the approval of the plans of the committee as presented by Dean Russell. (Motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: Any discussion? All approving the general plans and objectives and policy of the international committee, as outlined by *Dean Russell* will say "aye." Contrary "no." (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: I have asked Superintendent Jesse H. Newlon to discuss the policy of the National Education Association toward its departments, and when he is through I hope this Representative Assembly will see fit to ask questions and discuss the presentation by Mr. Newlon.

Mr. Newlon: Mr. President and members of the Representative Assembly, I want to make it clear in the beginning that I am not speaking for the Committee on Committees or the Committee on the Revision of Departments, but I am presenting my own personal views in regard to the problems which I shall discuss.

In this paper I first discuss committees. Toward the close I shall raise a question regarding the relation of departments to the Association, and I make one or two suggestions as to possible ways in which we might effect the integration.

I want it definitely understood I am not proposing any plan of reorganization. My only purpose is to call your attention to this problem of integration, which seems to me to be a most important one.

(Mr. Newlon then read a paper, on *The Relation of Committees to the Association*. The report is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: I want to express to you our appreciation of this fine survey.

(The president was then handed a large basket of cut flowers.)

I wish it was for Mr. Newlon, but it is for the N. E. A. It says "To the N. E. A. in appreciation from the Oregon State Teachers' Association."

Mr. Newlon's report is before you, with the suggestions he has made with respect to committees and with respect to departments. Is it your pleasure to discuss this report?

Miss Gardner of Milwaukee: There is one point in Mr. Newlon's report I think should be stressed, and that is the idea of integration, and I think that the relation between finances and integration might probably be brought out more clearly.

In my mind there is a decided connection between the method of financing the departments and the integration of the departments with the National Education Association.

Since the Department of Classroom Teachers was reorganized, the Committee on Reorganization of that department gave this question of financing the department a great deal of study and deliberation, and there is no thought of putting classroom teachers in the class of people who are unable to pay for professional organization. That is not the point at all. The classroom teachers are willing to pay, and no one pays more for professional work than the classroom teachers of Milwaukee.

We pay \$2 for our state association and \$2 for the National Education Association, in addition to our local fees. So that is not the reason for our advocating the payment of a part of the expense out of the National Education Association treasury.

Those who have been in this work for many years forget the classroom teacher, particularly in the rural districts, is not at all familiar with the idea of professional organization.

(She then made the point that dues should not be increased for rural teachers, showing the importance of enlisting their cooperation in the Association.)

Mr. Blair: Miss Gardner's idea of increasing the fee and redistributing this fee of one dollar back to the departments upon some basis would, I am sure, fit in with Mr. Crabtree's idea, and perhaps has great value in the suggestion made.

Any other suggestions or questions?

Mr. Rosier of West Virginia: I want to offer some comments on Mr. Newlon's report.

I am not out of sympathy with the elimination of some committees. I served as chairman on a committee for a year or two and I have been impressed in my connection with the affairs of this Association that committees rarely if ever eliminate themselves. I think I introduced a very great innovation last year when I moved that the committee be discharged. Usually they ask that the committee be continued. I think it is a very material matter about these committees.

Most legislative bodies have committees, but only a few of them function. In the first place the traditional notion of a committee is that it shall be a committee for research. I think it ought to be accepted as a fact that we do not need research committees as we did formerly.

This Association has a Research Division and all research work should be submitted to that division. The committee should have relation to it only in an advisory capacity.

The great weakness of this organization in my judgment, as a deliberative assembly, is that nearly everything has been initiated by the executive committee and a few people at the head of the organization direct things. We should have machinery set up so that a member of this delegate assembly might rise in his place and propose something and have it referred to a committee.

Mr. Blair: I am convinced as *Mr. Rosier* has said if this body is to become a deliberative, legislative body that it must have some committees of its own to which certain matters will be referred.

I am asking the chairmen of the delegations here represented to meet at 2 o'clock this afternoon, and to take up this one point, in their opinion what committees should be appointed from this representative body, to be committees during the session to which certain matters may be referred for consideration and report back to this body. And at that meeting I shall suggest that it organize in the usual way by electing a chairman and then to report back to this body.

Now, any further comment on Mr. Newlon's report?

Miss Spooner of Portland, Oregon: Having been formerly the president of the Classroom Teachers Department, I wish to speak on the policy of financing the departments of the N. E. A.

The N. E. A. has a very decided tendency to represent city organizations, city superintendents and organized bodies, at any rate to make themselves felt. We classroom teachers hope that that department may reach the rural teacher in unorganized districts, the unorganized teachers throughout the country. There is no easy machinery to reach the teachers in rural districts to collect that one dollar, except through the N. E. A., and that does not represent a sympathy with the rural teacher.

Mr. Newlon: I think there are three things I ought to say at this time. First, that I am not making any proposals to be voted on this morning. I am merely presenting my views on these questions, with the thought that if you consider my views of any value you will give some consideration to them in the next year or two.

Secondly, I provided in my statement for exactly the situation which has been described, when I said that there should be departmental fees in each case except where the N. E. A. desires for the time being or for a certain length of time to promote a certain department.

Now, if the time has not come to establish a fee in the Classroom Teachers Department, because it is necessary to promote the interest of that department in some other way, well and good.

Third, I think I should not make a strong argument for free membership in the N. E. A. Some think we would get the rural teacher into the N. E. A. by giving her a free membership in the N. E. A.. I do not think we would succeed in doing that at all, and it is my opinion more classroom teachers would be gotten into that department if fees were established than otherwise, and that the establishment of fees would give these departments the adequate finances that they need to carry on the work.

In regard to the point raised by *Miss Gardner*. Of course under our present organization I think she would be right, that we would not effect the integration we ought to have by the establishment of these fees. That is what led me to believe that through a reconstitution of the Board of Directors we ought to give the Department of Superintendence, Classroom Teachers Department, the Rural Education Department, and other departments membership on the Board of Directors, that the body which makes the budget really for the Association and controls its finances should have the benefit of that representation.

Mr. President and members of the Association, as a result of my study I have come to the conclusion there are some real problems surrounding these committees and their relation to the Association. I am not going to move the adoption of anything, and I do not want anybody else to do so, because I am making no proposals.

Mr. Blair: We are not going to try to jump at any quick conclusions, but the meeting of the chairmen of these delegations this afternoon if they wish to take up a consideration of Mr. Newlon's report, they may do so.

Mr. Holmes of New York: I want to make a suggestion. It seems to me it would be a little more democratic if at the close of this meeting the delegations here could meet for a few minutes and give some suggestions to those chairmen as to what they think, and I hope that will be done.

Mr. Blair: Any other comments on Mr. Newlon's very suggestive program that he has outlined? If not we shall go to the next order of business on the program.

I think when the history of the National Education Association is written that one of the great meetings which will find a place there will be the meeting of the secretaries of the state associations and other education associations, which gathered about a table in the central office of Washington this year. There it was revealed what many members of this Association, or of this general assembly, perhaps have never known, that there was a growing irritation between the N. E. A. and the state associations. There we put all of our cards on the table. Every difficulty, every irritation, was brought forward, and one man who has, I think, the right to say, considered that meeting with what it revealed—with the chance of reapportionment, with the chance of better understanding—one of the most signifi-

cant in the history of this National Education Association. One of the participants at that great conference at Washington, and one who has continued to carry out some of the things undertaken there, is the gentleman whom I am to introduce to you now, and who is to speak on *The Policy of the National Education Association Toward State Associations*, Mr. Arthur H. Chamberlain, State Executive Secretary, California Teachers' Association, of San Francisco, California. (Applause.)

(Mr. Chamberlain then read the address, which is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: Does the Representative Assembly care to take any action, or ask any questions or make suggestions on this statement of Mr. Chamberlain?

As we must vacate this hall not later than 12:15 I want to expedite matters, so according to the suggestion from the gentleman from New York, I suggest that your various delegations will have at least fifteen minutes to confer with their delegation chairman on the matters that should come up at the 2 o'clock meeting.

If there is no discussion of Mr. Chamberlain's paper, the next matter is the report of the Committee on Elections. Mr. Sanders of Massachusetts, is the chairman of that committee.

Mr. Sanders: Your Committee on Elections held a meeting at 8 o'clock this morning. It seemed to be the sense of that committee that the method of holding the election at the Philadelphia meeting a year ago was quite satisfactory, and they recommend to you that the same method be followed for the election this year.

The polls will be open from 8 o'clock in the morning until 6 o'clock in the evening of Thursday, July 7. The election will be held in the Lounge of the Olympic Hotel. Appropriate signs will indicate the voting places. The ballots will be simple and will carry adequate instructions for marking. It will be necessary for each delegate to present to the inspector in charge his card entitling him to a seat in this assembly. All delegates therefore will please make note of this. Do not forget to have your credential card with you. Only delegates may vote. No provision has been made for absent votes. The committee wishes that you vote early, especially between the hours of 9 and 12, in order to avoid the congestion that comes to the polling places around one o'clock. They also request that after you vote that you do not tarry at the voting place. We make the same announcements we did at the Philadelphia meeting a year ago and that is that the representatives of teachers associations can set an excellent example to the other citizens of the nation by casting a one-hundred-percent vote.

Mr. Chairman, I move the adoption of the report.

Mr. Blair: You hear the report of the chairman of the Committee on Elections and his motion that it be adopted. (Motion was seconded and carried.)

Mr. Blair: This committee consists of Mr. Sanders of Massachusetts, Mr. Reynolds of Ohio, and Mrs. Armsbruster of Illinois, who will serve as tellers and take in charge the entire election that is to follow.

The next order of business is nominations from the floor for president, vice-presidents, and treasurer. We await nominations from the floor. First shall we say for president? We will call the roll of the states as has always been done. The secretary will call the roll.

(Secretary Crabtree calls roll. Delaware gave way to Virginia.)

Mr. Saunders: Mr. President and members of the delegate assembly. May I first of all express my appreciation to my fellow director from Delaware for allowing the courtesy of the floor to Virginia; and may I also say to the people of Seattle and this great northwest section that we who come from Virginia are delighted to be your guests in this great domain. We feel an almost proprietary interest, certainly a community of interest, in this great section of the country, because a pioneer by the name of George Rogers Clark, with a few other pioneers blazed the trail through this great region that gave us title to this great country, and so we of Virginia are delighted to be in what we consider a portion of Virginia, and we honor and revere and rejoice in the great name of Washington, which this state bears.

We have as a candidate a lady who has the entire respect of everybody in Virginia, and as I said in our meeting on Sunday afternoon in regard to enlisting the support of these elements in the country other than the educational interests for our great movements, I am proud to say the candidate whom we offer has just that interest and that influence with other groups of citizens that will bring to this Association that influence that we desire.

I say that by reason of a telegram which we have just received, and I am going to take a moment of your time to read it to you, because it expresses a phase of our relations with our fellow citizens which should be more closely cemented.

(He then read the telegram from the Richmond Chamber of Commerce.)

Just a few months ago we dedicated at the College of William and Mary a memorial to the great Phi Beta Kappa. The orator on that occasion was a man who is honored and revered by the people of this country, *Henry Van Dyke*, and in his peroration of that great oration in which he spoke of democratic education, he used these words:

(He then recited the Tribute to the Unknown Teacher. See *Journal of The National Education Association*, January, 1927, page 15.)

We offer to you as a servant of this great organization *Miss Cornelia S. Adair* of Richmond, Virginia, a lady who has served this Association for long and faithful years in every executive capacity except that of president. She has served upon the Board of Directors, she has served upon the Board of Trustees, and upon the Executive Committee. Her service has been faithful; it has been of high type; she has the capacity, the executive ability the character necessary for this position. She comes to you today with no interests to serve save those of this great Association, as a real servant of this organization, but not merely as a candidate from Virginia, because of her wide contact with all of the associations of the National Education Association in America she is a candidate really from the United States at large, and I have the honor and the privilege of offering the name of *Miss Cornelia S. Adair* as the president of this great organization.

Mr. Blair: The secretary will continue the call of the roll.

(As the roll call proceeded many states seconded the nomination of *Miss Adair*. There were no other nominations.)

Mr. Blair: The next order of business is to call the roll on the office of Treasurer. It may expedite matters having the roll called and each state making nominations for treasurer and vice-presidents at the time the name of the state is called upon.

As the states were called the following nominations were made: *Claude W. Sandifur* for vice-president, by California; *Henry Lester Smith* for treasurer, by Indiana; *Agnes Samuelson* for vice-president, by Iowa; *Florence M. Hale* for vice-president, by Maine; *H. A. Senter* for vice-president, by Nebraska; *John Bond* for vice-president, by Oklahoma; *J. O. Webb* for vice-president, by Texas; *R. L. Jones* for vice-president, by Tennessee; *H. J. Crane* for vice-president, by Wyoming.

Mr. Saunders of Virginia: There are only nine nominations for vice-president, and eleven are to be elected. There seems to be no contest for any office, and if it is in accordance with the Bylaws of the Association, I move that the secretary cast a unanimous ballot for all nominees made upon the floor this morning.

(Said motion was seconded.)

(After discussion by *Miss Jones* and others the motion was withdrawn.)

A. T. Adams was nominated for vice-president, by North Carolina, and *John J. Ray* for vice-president, by Idaho, making eleven in all.

Mr. Blair: We will call the roll for the directors. Each state when the name is called will give the name of its State Director.

The secretary then called the roll by states, the following nominations being made, to-wit: Alabama, *J. D. Williams*, Birmingham; Alaska, *W. E. Keller*, Juneau; Arizona, *John R. Sexson*, Bisbee; Arkansas, *J. P. Womack*, Little Rock; California, *A. R. Clifton*; Colorado, *W. B. Mooney*, Denver; Connecticut, *John A. Young*, Bridgeport; Delaware, *David A. Ward*, Wilmington; District of Columbia,

Harry English; Florida, *W. S. Cawthon*, Tallahassee; Georgia, *Fort E. Land*, Atlanta; Hawaii, *O. E. Long*, Honolulu; Idaho, *Charles F. Dienst*, Boise; Illinois, *A. L. Whittenberg*, Springfield; Indiana, *Charles F. Miller*; Iowa, *Thomas R. Roberts*, Independence; Kansas, *M. E. Pearson*, Kansas City; Kentucky, *R. E. Williams*, Louisville; Louisiana, *C. B. Turner*, Baton Rouge; Maine, *William B. Jack*; Maryland, *William Burdick*, Baltimore; Massachusetts, *Annie C. Woodward*, Somerville; Michigan, *W. H. Pearce*; Minnesota, *Effie MacGregor*; Mississippi, *H. V. Cooper*; Missouri, *Thomas J. Walker*; Montana, *R. J. Cunningham*, Helena; Nebraska, *M. C. Lefler*, Lincoln; Nevada, *Bertha Knemeyer*; New Hampshire, *Perley L. Horne*, Derry; New Jersey, *Alice J. Lemming*; New Mexico, *Marie G. Balling*, Albuquerque; New York, *W. H. Holmes*, Mount Vernon; North Carolina, *T. W. Andrews*; North Dakota, *Minnie J. Neilson*; Ohio, *H. C. Eldridge*; Oklahoma, *John G. Mitchell*, Edmond; Oregon, *Vida Cannon*; Pennsylvania, *George Robb*; Philippine Islands (no nomination and the president declared the present director, *Luther B. Bewley*, would be the one to vote upon); Porto Rico, *Francisco Vizcarrondo*; Rhode Island (no nomination and the president declared the present director, *Agnes M. Bacon*, will be continued); South Carolina, *George W. Wannamaker*; South Dakota, *N. E. Steele*; Tennessee, *P. L. Harned*, Nashville; Texas, *L. W. Rogers*; Utah, *B. A. Fowler*; Vermont, *C. H. Dempsey*; Virginia, *Joseph H. Saunders*; Virgin Islands (no nomination, the president declared the present director, *Arthur E. Lindborg*, will be continued); Washington, *J. E. Myers*, Spokane; West Virginia, *Joseph Rosier*; Wisconsin, *E. G. Doudna*; Wyoming, *A. A. Slade*.

Mr. Blair: All in favor of electing the directors thus nominated will say aye. Contrary no. They are declared duly elected directors of the National Education Association. We will now stand adjourned.

Second Business Session, Wednesday, July 6, 1927

The second business session of the Seventh Representative Assembly, meeting in the Fifth Avenue Theatre, was called to order by the President, *Francis G. Blair*, of Springfield, Illinois, on Wednesday Morning, July 6, 1927, at the hour of 9 o'clock, when the following proceedings were had:

The president announced the Pageant to be given by ten thousand Seattle school children at the University Stadium this evening, and urged delegates and others to attend.

Elgia Dawley, Soprano of Seattle Civic Opera Company, accompanied by *Myron Jacobson*, Russian composer and pianist, sang songs, "Alleluia," by *Mozart*, and "Eros," by *Grieg*, and "Aria" from opera "Queen of Sheba." State song by Kansas.

Mr. Blair: Every member of this Delegate Assembly who has been actively interested in the work of the National Education Association knows how during the presidency of *Miss Jones* a new idea was brought forward, that of homes for retired teachers. This morning I have asked *Miss Jones* and *Mr. Siders* to put before this legislative body the matter as it now stands, with the points they have in mind for the future of this great idea, and I first call upon *Miss Olive M. Jones*, Principal, Public School No. 120, New York City, Chairman of the Committee on Homes for Retired Teachers.

Miss Jones: Mr. Chairman, members of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association, I am going to plunge in right away to an absolutely practical situation.

I have been before you twice, talking on this subject. I have given you the argument. I have given you the conditions as we found them in 1924 and 1925, through the partial survey that was made of this country. Since that time we

have had a number of very serious difficulties to overcome. (*Miss Jones* then gave a complete history of the movement ending in a plea for the cooperation of every teacher.)

Mr. Blair: At the meeting of the Board of Directors at the Dallas meeting this matter was placed in the hands of the Board of Trustees, and all future activities looking toward the founding of these homes will be under the control and direction of the Board of Trustees. The Board of Trustees has already appointed *Miss Jones* as chairman of the committee to carry forward certain activities.

Dr. Walter R. Siders, the chairman of the Board of Trustees, who was chairman of the subcommittee that looked into this matter and reported at Dallas, will now speak to you from his point of view on the plans and policies for homes for retired teachers—*Dr. Walter R. Siders*.

Mr. Siders: As *Dr. Blair* has said the business side of this devolves on the Trustees, the reason being that the Charter provides that the Permanent Fund 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 donations, bequests, or devises.

At the Dallas meeting several things were determined which will be of interest to you. It was decided that we would accept only unconditional gifts for buying lands or buildings thereon or equipping those buildings, or accept money for endowment or for maintenance, or monies might be accepted which would be used in part for maintenance and in part for the purpose of endowment, or part maintenance with another institution, provided that the National Education Association would not lose a necessary control over such an institution.

(He then read the opinion of an attorney on the points involved.)

I hardly ever go into a Pullman car and see that sign that hangs out late at night "Quiet is requested for the benefit of those who have retired" but that it causes my mind to run on this subject. It is very difficult when one is in the morning of life or stands in the strong moonshine of life to realize that the time will come when the long, cool shadows of evening will creep over him, but very truly is it written "Let him that is yet young beware lest he grow old." It is the inevitable fate of all to come to the time when something of this sort will be needed.

I remember the shock with which I read an article entitled "I go to Kill my Father." An Eskimo of the Northland was making a trip into the interior, and when asked where he went he said "I go to kill my father." It is the custom, he said, that when a man is too old to longer go to the hunt and maintain his place among the strong and virile of the tribe that his oldest son shall take his life with a knife.

Civilization has taught us better manners. I sometimes wonder if it has taught us better feeling. If you plant flowers on my grave you do so to please yourself, that the place where you put me away may look more attractive to you. Those long, ugly sapsucking roots that go down into my face will not entertain me.

I have been so much impressed with that saying that "A rose to the living is more than sumptuous wreaths to the dead, A rose to the living, if given before the hungry spirit is fled, A rose to the living is more than sumptuous wreaths to the dead," that I wish to make this plea. To us as school teachers who must take the lead if anything ever comes of these homes, let us have a larger charity; let us instead of spending our money on funeral wreaths and great funerals and funeral orations, let us see that those who are still alive and whose steps are faltering that that money may be provided to supply those old people with the necessary comforts in their old age, and—as *Miss Jones* has so well said—that they may have that which they crave most, companionship, and the assurance

that they have not been forgotten by those with whom they have fallen out of step.

Mr. Blair: You have heard the outline of the plan devised under the authority of the Executive Committee and the Board of Trustees and approved by the Board of Directors at Dallas.

The plan was matured under legal advice. If you listened to that plan as *Dr. Siders* read it through, it had all the earmarks of a plan solid and substantial, reaching down to the ground.

These two statements present these two sides of the thing to us for your consideration. *Miss Jones* and *Dr. Siders* and the President of this Association crave your consideration at this time.

Any question, any comments before we ask you to express your approval of this plan? We now await any question or any comment on these plans as presented.

Mrs. Hill of California: We have in California offered a site for a home and according to the remarks made this morning it seems we shall have to wait for a survey. How about these two thousand that are waiting for a home? Can we not work for having the homes sooner than the survey is made? We have thirty-five thousand teachers in California. Can we not make the whole western section of our United States a district for one of these homes? And I would like to know if we started something of that kind must these gifts go into the general fund or may they go for sections?

Mr. Blair: I shall ask *Miss Jones* to answer the first part of your question and *Dr. Siders* the last part.

Miss Jones: I see no objection to individual states or combinations of states starting out to establish their own homes. Experience in that matter on the part of fraternal organizations, notably the Masonic organization, is to the effect that sooner or later some of those homes will need to be subsidized from some national fund; but in the meantime I see no reason why the individual states or combinations of states may not proceed to raise funds and secure their own sites.

Mr. Blair: I will say that Massachusetts and Vermont have undertaken this on their own responsibilities. I could not speak directly to the fact of just how far they have gone but they have in operation, as I understand it, homes for retired teachers, under some modified plan such as has been suggested here.

Mrs. Hill: I would like to know if the funds we secure in the western section may go for the home we might start, or does it go to the general fund?

Mr. Blair (To Mr. Siders): Funds contributed say in certain sections of the United States, will that go back to build homes in that section or will they become a part of the federal fund?

Mr. Siders: It is the expression of the Board of Trustees if they accept any funds to accept any reasonable conditions attached thereto. When we say "unconditional gifts" we mean by that we would not accept gifts that entail something contrary to the interests of our organization. If the people of any part of the country should wish to raise money for a home for that section, I cannot speak for the rest of the trustees, but I think that I am right in saying that would be recognized.

A Member from Denver: Some of our delegates at Philadelphia caught some of *Miss Jones's* enthusiasm and persuaded the Denver teachers to do some preparatory work that when *Miss Jones* called upon us for a definite program we might have it ready. (She then described the Denver plan.)

Mr. Blair: That shows how the feeling is going to those localities where they have immediately tried to get some concrete expression on this great sentiment.

A Voice: I would like to ask what effect this would have on the retirement systems being organized in the various states. Would not the legislatures begin to feel we were provided for and therefore withdraw the retirement fund?

Miss Jones: No retirement allowance is or ever can be large enough to pay for companionship, for care, and for hospital service, such as has been talked about, and that is very well recognized by the persons who are making a study of retirement allowances today. They are two separate problems. One is for the child, for the cause of education, and the other is for companionship and care for retired teachers, which can never be bought with money.

A Voice: May those who are really working on this problem meet with *Miss Jones* and discuss this subject?

Mr. Blair: The question is raised whether those who are interested in this may meet with *Miss Jones*, and I should say *Dr. Siders*, because there are two clearly defined sides to it. One is the legal side.

A Voice: I would like to ask if the *Olive M. Jones Fund* means there will be just one national home, wherever they see fit to accept a gift, New York State or Texas or California or in the central section, wherever it may be, or would there be sectional homes, helped out by sections or cities or by the states themselves?

Mr. Blair: I can answer that question because I have sat in at all these discussions. We cannot determine that until this investigation has been put on. We do not know whether we want a single home. It may be we will want one or two national homes; it may be they will all be of local character within the states, aided by state contribution and by the fund in the hands of the Board of Trustees, but until we investigate and find out what the sentiment of the teachers is, we cannot answer, I think, definitely that particular question. Have I answered that correctly, *Miss Jones*? (*Miss Jones* and *Mr. Siders* nodded approval.)

Miss Whitacre of Indiana: If a motion is in order I would like to make a motion so that these committees can get to work. Therefore I move you, Mr. President, that the committee be empowered to make the survey suggested by *Miss Jones*.

Mr. Blair: I think the motion should call upon the Board of Trustees to appoint the necessary committees to begin the work just as soon as possible. If that meets with the lady's approval I will put the motion in that form.

Miss Whitacre: It certainly meets with my approval. I just want to get the machinery in motion.

Mr. Blair: The motion is that the Board of Trustees, in whose hands this has been placed, and which Board alone has the power to appoint committees, shall appoint all necessary committees as soon as possible to initiate the movement for bringing about the concrete consummation of the plan for the establishment of homes for retired teachers. (Said motion was then duly seconded and carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: Those seeking definite information may find *Miss Jones* and *Dr. Siders* in Parlor "A," of the Olympic Hotel, tomorrow afternoon at 4:30.

Miss Woodruff: We are considering one of the most momentous questions that has ever arisen before this Association. It is a question that concerns every state and every little village and every city in every state, and which concerns every one of us present at this assembly this morning, and I would like to offer at this time this resolution. Other committees are appointed by this Association and they work with untiring effort upon the thing they are appointed to work upon. I know in this particular case, and we all know it, that *Miss Jones*, with her persistent, determined effort has pushed this thing when many people said it could not be done. She has given her unselfish, untiring sacrifice to what is almost, we believe, an impossibility, but ultimately it will be a success, and I wish to offer this resolution, that this great body go on record as expressing our hearty appreciation to *Miss Olive M. Jones* in her work for this great movement. (Motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: The motion is that this Representative Assembly express its appreciation and approval of the work done by *Miss Olive M. Jones* in forwarding this great movement. All in favor say aye.

Mr. Blair: The motion is carried.

Miss Jones: I want the delegates to know I appreciate that resolution, and my heart was deeply touched by the action of the Board of Trustees. Nothing in all my life has meant so much to me, and I do not expect anything will ever mean as much. My heart is in this thing.

Mr. Blair: This plan as outlined by *Dr. Siders* will be printed and placed in the hands of every active member of the Association, so every detail as far as we have gone will be under the immediate observation of every active member of the Association.

We have now come to a very large and in my opinion most important question for our consideration. I tried in every way I could to represent the country and every section and every group upon this great committee, who should review the charter and the bylaws and the question of this Representative Assembly and of the Board of Directors and all the bodies under this, and what action should be taken in modifying the Bylaws, if it should be found they were needed to be modified, and upon that committee, if you will read the names over, you will find every phase and type of education represented, and as I said to the Board of Directors the other day, I set about finding a man for the chairmanship of that committee. I despaired. I thought of three or four men and consulted with them, and they I know, saw the difficulties, and then one day in my office as if it burst from the sky above it came to me the man, by experience and every other way, in the confidence of the teachers, and in his ability, who was fitted to take charge of this great committee, and that man was *Dr. Claxton*, and after some consideration, no hasty snap judgment, he finally agreed to become chairman of that committee.

It is my pleasure and my great delight to ask *Dr. Claxton* to take at this time as much as he wants of your time to explain the work of this committee and its findings.

Mr. Claxton: Mr. Chairman and members of the Representative Assembly, the report has been printed and I am asking the Pennsylvania delegation to distribute it. They are good at distribution. (The report is printed in the *Volume of Proceedings* with the Bylaws.)

I shall ask that you do not attempt to read the report now. We had printed first the Bylaws as they now are in one column. After we had agreed on the amendments to be recommended, we had them set in type and printed in the second column, so you have a parallel column arrangement of the Bylaws as they now are and of the recommendations.

Let me give you somewhat the history of this committee. *Dr. Blair*, your President, has said it is not an easy task, and we found that it was not. I am sure we were all convinced in the beginning that it would require much effort, but the committee recognized the fundamental importance of the work to the welfare of the National Education Association, and we have acted accordingly.

When the committee met at Dallas there were fourteen members present. We had three sessions—a total of nearly ten hours. That there might be no hasty judgment we resolved at the Dallas meeting to vote on nothing that had to do with the Bylaws, and that it might be considered from every possible point of view.

Then a subcommittee was appointed and met with seven members, six and the chairman, at Chicago, on April 20 and 21. You can remember the date if you care to because those are the days on which *Lindbergh* flew across the Atlantic.

We were in the air as long as he was, but we hope the landing will be as safe as his was on the other side.

That subcommittee held five meetings and was in session approximately fifteen hours. We arrived at a conclusion either in final statement or in principle, on all items we took up for consideration. The most important of all we did not arrive at a complete statement on, and it was asked that every member of the subcommittee would give it more careful study and would send to the chairman and secretary a letter containing this statement.

The committee met here and was in session about eight hours in three different meetings, and we came finally to a unanimous conclusion on the recommendations which we have submitted.

Now, this was a small committee comparatively, twenty-four of us, of that number fourteen meeting at Dallas, and seven and *Dr. Blair* at the Chicago meeting of the subcommittee, and fourteen or fifteen members were here, and we gave altogether about thirty hours to it, beside the time we have given in our homes.

There are three or four problems before us. One is the harmonizing of the Bylaws with the constitution of the Association—the charter given by the Congress of the United States.

The charter provides that the Board of Directors shall be responsible for the general management of the Association, for all of its business, and for everything which is not committed to the Board of Trustees. It provides for an Executive Committee, and the only power given to the Executive Committee is to serve as an administrative body, carrying out the general policies, and working under the direction of the Board of Directors between meetings.

As the Association has grown much larger than it was when the Bylaws were made, certainly much larger than when the charter was obtained, it has come about that much more business must be done, business which can hardly be foreseen by the Board of Directors in detail, and which requires the kind of work that can only be done by a smaller body than the Board of Directors, and it was therefore suggested that wherever it is necessary for the Executive Committee to take action at all, it shall be stated in the Bylaws that they shall do this, under the general direction of the Board of Directors.

One other thing which we did not do, let's refer to before we get to this matter of the Representative Assembly. The Bylaws have been amended many times, and many times very hurriedly. We have not made much effort to do that part of the task, foreseeing that it could be done best probably by having this committee or some other write the Bylaws from beginning to end, in the best possible English of which your committee might be capable, and in the fewest possible words.

Now, the great immediate problem before us as to the legality of the Bylaws is the question of execution.

The Association was comparatively small when the Representative Assembly was provided. It has grown immensely since that time. I do not know what the membership was, but I imagine about twenty thousand or less, and now it is nearly two hundred thousand, nearly ten times as large as it was then.

The income at that time was I imagine about ten percent of what it is now. A Representative Assembly we felt should be a legislative body if it is to do business, and we thought that it ought to be small enough really to be a legislative body and not merely a listening body, a group of people coming together to hear reports and to give passive assent to them.

We have therefore first considered the size of the Representative Assembly. You will find the result of our deliberations on page 8 of the Committee Report. I am asking you to read Section 10.

These are the things we have had to submit. I want to say just one other word

about the size of the Representative Assembly. There are registered here now approximately ten thousand members of the Association. There are ten hundred, a little bit more than one thousand, of the representatives here. Nine thousand of them are not here. If five hundred can do business as well as a thousand or ten thousand or seventeen hundred or two thousand then there is a gain in having only five hundred do it.

Another statement I wanted to make in regard to it. This Association is now entitled to something like seventeen hundred or eighteen hundred delegates. They are not all here; they have not all ever been present.

One reason for the formation of this representative body of delegates chosen from the various organizations was the fact that as we get in different sections of the country we get a greater variety of policies and ideas.

It is not the function of the committee to say your expenses shall be paid, but the committee was very largely of the opinion, if not unanimous, that with the smaller representative body it would be possible sooner or later to pay a large part of the expenses.

(*Dr. Claxton* then took his report up point by point explaining why the change if any was made. He promised that the report would be printed in the *Proceedings* and requested that all members study it during the year stating that the report would come before the Representative Assembly in 1928.)

Mr. Blair: I have just spoken to the person who will be the President of the Association, and she has agreed, as stated, that if she is elected *Dr. Claxton* will be made the chairman of this committee, if it is the wish of the Representative Assembly to continue this great committee.

The matter of the report made by *Dr. Claxton* and the matter of continuing the committee is before you. The question on the plan itself perhaps you would like to defer until you have read it through with some consideration and care, but on this other question, will this body at this time authorize the continuance of this committee. (It was then moved and seconded that said committee be continued, and said motion was carried unanimously.)

(The report is printed in the *Proceedings* and will be printed in the Official Manual for 1928.)

Mr. Blair: I wish to say of what I have seen of *Dr. Claxton's* work that it is my candid opinion if we had gone out into the world of experts to have gotten someone to give the energy, the time and intelligence that he has given to this matter, it would have bankrupted the treasury, but he has given his time unsparingly, and I am glad to know that he will be chairman of that committee. I cannot think of anybody thinking any other way.

We will pass to the next order of business, which is a report from the Secretary, *J. W. Crabtree*.

Mr. Crabtree: Again you have the printed report in your hands, and it is only necessary to refer to it.

You will find that it is composed of two parts, the first part being a decade of achievements, in which the Association is the principal factor.

The second part consists of suggestions of various kinds. You will perhaps be interested in reading the report later on, if you have not already read it.

The suggestions in the second part have been considered by the different committees in the Association. The Executive Committee has taken up some of these suggestions. The Board of Trustees have considered some of them and will consider others. Some have gone to committees of various kinds. The Board of Directors have taken up some of them, and the Directors have taken action on two or three questions which I wish to submit for the approval of the Representative Assembly.

One item is on American Education Week. The Board of Directors have resolved as follows:

"The officers of the Association are authorized to express to the President of the United States the appreciation of 170,000 members for the proclamation which he has issued for the observation of American Education Week, and they are requested to invite him to issue a special proclamation, preferably in September, for the observation of the week, November 7-13, for the year 1927."

The Board further resolved:

"The Secretary, with the cooperation of the Chairman of the Committee on International Relations, is authorized to correspond with the national education associations and with the educational authorities of other nations on the advantages of arranging to have an education week in every nation, when particular attention shall be given to acquainting the public with the work which schools are actually doing and with their pressing needs."

That is one resolution which is submitted for approval, and another is concerning the salaries paid instructors, assistant professors and professors in universities and colleges, the salaries at the present time being largely on the pre-war basis. This is the resolution passed by the Board of Directors and is submitted for approval:

"The Secretary is instructed to cooperate with the officers of state and local associations in acquainting the public and the college authorities with the importance of retaining an efficient faculty in the colleges, and with the necessity of paying better salaries to instructors, assistant professors and to professors to accomplish that end.

"He is further authorized to use the research division in collecting information on the question of salaries in colleges, as such information is needed by state and local associations in promoting better pay for members of college faculties."

I move, therefore, the approval of both of these resolutions passed by the Board of Directors.

Mr. Blair: You hear the report of our Secretary with the suggestions. Do I hear a second? (Motion was seconded.)

(After discussion the motion was carried by a unanimous vote.)

Mr. Blair: The next person I desire to introduce I cannot introduce without a word of explanation.

Running over the minutes of the meetings I found *Miss Cornelia S. Adair* had been the one who had first recommended to the Board of Directors that a part of the expenses of this delegate body should be paid by the National Education Association.

I appointed her on a committee to continue further study of that question, and when it came to formulate this program I asked her to speak before this representative body, and that letter fell into the hands of some of her friends who knew what I did not know at that time, that she would probably be a candidate for the presidency of this Association, and one of these friends said "I do not think *Miss Adair* should be put on the program to speak on a controversial subject, and therefore I suggest that you do not recommend her."

I wrote to *Miss Adair* and here was the answer: "I am not afraid to come before the Delegate Assembly and to speak my mind on any question whatever you may care to assign to me." That is the kind of timber the newly to be elected president of this Association is. And I now take pleasure in introducing *Miss Cornelia S. Adair*, of Richmond, Virginia, who will speak on the question of Expenses of Delegates and Directors to the Convention of the National Education Association.

Miss Adair: Some of my letters come to the hotel addressed to Miss Blair, so you see President Blair has evidently added to his family.

I want to take this, my first, opportunity, to thank you for your generosity toward me on yesterday. I wish to do all in my power to be worthy of the great honor you are conferring upon me. It is a little hard to come down from the happiness to which you have raised me to the consideration of financing delegates, but I have prepared this little paper, which I shall now read. (*Miss Adair* then read the statement. It is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Miss Adair: That we may have something to sort of agree on Mr. Chairman, I move you that the sum of ten thousand dollars be appropriated for delegates' expenses for next year, and that the whole matter of the payment of delegates' and directors' expenses be referred to the committee on the appointment of delegates and kindred matters, which is now headed by *Dr. Claxton*.

It seems to me the two matters are so closely linked they might be well handled by the same committee.

Mr. Blair: You hear the motion. Any questions or comments? Any discussion?

A Voice: It seems to me as this motion carries with it an appropriation, that should come before the Board of Directors.

Miss Adair: I wish to change my motion to state that the matter be recommended to the Board of Directors and that they make the appropriation. (Motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: I think the point is well taken, and it is now moved and seconded that the Representative Assembly recommend to the Board of Directors the approval and the setting aside of ten thousand dollars for the payment of delegates' expenses to the next meeting of this National Education Association. Any discussion? If not, all in favor will say aye. (Carried.) That is approved by this body, and will be transmitted to the Board of Directors.

The other is that of the question of the future policy of this Association—it may be a matter of the Bylaws—with respect to paying the expenses of the Board of Directors and the delegates shall be referred to the committee at whose head is *Dr. Claxton*. Do I hear a motion on that?

A Voice: I make the motion, Mr. President.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It is moved and seconded that this whole question of paying the expenses of directors and delegates be referred to the Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Subjects.

Mr. Claxton: I seldom differ from your very wise decisions. I am doubtful, however, if just now we could fix any definite statement in regard to it, other than that which is now in the Bylaws, that the proper authorities shall work out from time to time methods, equitable methods, of paying the expenses of representatives and directors. That might vary from year to year. I suppose, however, when I arose I thought you had in mind fixing some definite statement—

Mr. Blair: No. This is a general policy that you might from your committee refer back, not the appropriation of any definite amount.

Mr. Claxton: I have no objection then.

A Voice: The present practice of paying expenses of the Board of Directors, what is being done at this time?

Mr. Blair: They are being paid.

The Voice: Just for this one meeting?

Mr. Blair: Just this one meeting, and the extra meeting that was called at Dallas.

The Voice: Under what authority is that done at this time?

Mr. Blair: Under the authority of the Board of Directors. Any further question? If not, all in favor of this motion will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: We have now come to the end of the morning program. I want to thank the delegates for their attendance. (Adjournment.)

Third Business Session, Thursday, July 7, 1927

The third business session of the Seventh Representative Assembly, meeting at Seattle, Washington, in the Fifth Avenue Theatre, was called to order by *President Blair*, on Thursday morning, July 7, 1927, at 9 o'clock, when the following proceedings were had: (The President made announcements, followed by songs and state stunts.) (Before taking up the program, the audience was requested to stand, when all repeated the Lord's Prayer.)

Mr. Blair: We will now listen to an announcement by the Secretary of the Association.

Mr. Crabtree: I do not know that you are acquainted with the help that we are getting from other great national associations. The American Medical Association, the American Bar Association, and the National Editorial Association are among those most interested in our work. We have had letters from each of these and others, expressing interest in the big program of this association. They want us to call upon them for help. They are interested in this meeting. We have a telegram which has just been received from the National Editorial Association which I take pleasure in reading:

"The National Editorial Association sends most cordial greetings to the National Education Association, and wishes you a profitable meeting. We wish also to express our appreciation of the masterly address given by your honored President before our recent convention at Omaha. It is true that both these great educational organizations are working along similar lines for the general good. We have much in common, looking to the future welfare of our country. The National Editorial Association, *H. C. Hoteling*, Executive Secretary." (Applause.)

May I not reply thanking this great association and placing before it our major problems for their consideration and help. We can depend on them.

Mr. Blair: Inquiry has been made a number of times as to the enrolment at the Seattle meeting. I have asked *Secretary Crabtree* to report on the enrolment at this time.

Mr. Crabtree: The enrolment has gone beyond the eight thousand mark. That is the largest enrolment for the third day that I recall. The attendance is therefore something beyond twelve thousand.

Mr. Blair: I have asked *President Walter P. Morgan* of the Western Illinois State Teachers' College, to present the topic this morning, *The Policy of the National Education Association Toward Private Foundations and Other National Organizations*.

Mr. Morgan: Mr. President, delegates of this great convention, and ladies and gentlemen: Before I take up the topic that is assigned to me on this program, I wish to make another statement. I feel sure that after what you have seen this morning, you will not feel that Illinois is boasting in what I say. If you should have that feeling, please bear in mind that we have the spirit of retirement or else we have made a record at this convention for good behavior, for on the first morning when we assembled here, we had a seat well down toward the center of the hall for Illinois. Yesterday morning we had dropped back under the balcony. This morning somebody has placed us on a back seat, and I am sure our behavior has been good. The thing I want to say is that Illinois is very proud of what she has brought to this great convention this week as a presiding officer. (Mr. Morgan then presented a prepared address which is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: The pinch hitter brought in all bases and made a home run in my opinion. (After pointing out some of the mistakes of foundations he said:)

The question is now open for discussion. Any comment or observations which you wish to make upon the relations of the National Education Association toward other national organizations or toward private foundations?

Mr. Rosier of West Virginia: I want first of all to compliment *President Morgan*

for the very able way in which he has presented the topic. I think the relations of the National Education Association to private foundations, based on some experience which I have had and upon surveys which have come under my observation, is one of the most important problems we are confronting or that is confronting public education in this country.

I think that it would be most disastrous to the educational cause of this country if the appropriation of these foundations should be used for the promotion of the personal opinions of the representatives of these agencies. Where these appropriations are dedicated to the purpose of the founders we ought to accept it in the same spirit in which it is given, but I believe that the matter which *Mr. Morgan* brings to our attention is a matter of the highest importance, and possibly the best way to work it out is to settle the matter and secure a close relation between these great foundations, which are extending financial aid, and in some instances are attempting to direct the education of this country, and the National Education Association, as a condition to the acceptance of their aid.

I believe this is one of the most important problems presented to us this week.

Mr. Blair: I want to suggest to my successor that it is a theme that might well be extended on the program of the Assembly at our next meeting.

We are ready now to take up the next discussion, which is Federal Legislation.

Dr. Davidson has done a great work in organizing this committee on Federal Legislation, and some people on that committee are not in favor of a federal bill. They were put there because of their great standing and their great influence, and we want this Association, it seems to me, not to overlook the fact that unless we can convince our own group, unless we can get our own group behind the bill, it stands no show whatever, and I think the great work that *Dr. Davidson* and *Miss Charl O. Williams* have done during the last year in putting the organization into every congressional district and into every county of the states is one of the maximum achievements of this Association in this field, and now for the next forty-five minutes, if they wish that time, I am going to ask *Miss Williams* and *Dr. Davidson* to explain their plans and their policies on federal legislation, and state legislation for that matter. (After complimenting *Miss Williams* on her work he called upon her to speak on the Bill.)

Miss Williams: I am very grateful indeed to the President of the Association, not only for what he has said this morning, but for all the kind things he has said and done throughout the twelve months of this administration. I think *Dr. Blair* came at a time when we needed him very much, and everything he has done and said in this legislative work has advanced the cause.

I am going to leave to *Dr. Davidson* to tell you about the situation in Congress and pass over that portion of my report. (*Miss Williams* then gave an account of her work in the promotion of the new Education Bill. She mentioned the mass of literature which had been printed and distributed; the state-wide debates that had been conducted in high schools, colleges, and universities; the cooperation of great national organizations; the attitude of Senators and Congressmen; the need of definite information among members of the association; the nature of the opposition to the bill and an outline of the machinery which had been set up for carrying out the policies of the committee.)

Mr. Blair: In selecting a chairman for the Legislative Committee, I was not unmindful or unappreciative of the great work that had been done by that committee and its chairman in the years gone by, but I had a sort of feeling, if I may say it, that probably a new adjustment might help us push this thing over the grade.

I looked for a man for that position; I have met him in the Education Council and at great national conventions. I went to him for his vote for a candidate I was interested in and I got to understand the position he occupied in that great assemblage. I have known him in the great education councils and at political

conventions. When I thought of *Miss Williams* coming from the South and being aligned with the Democratic party, it seemed that it might be well to help put the great program over by selecting a man standing mountain high in education. He had also had contacts with Senators and Congressmen and men of that character, used to great national political conventions, and it was on this ground that *Dr. Davidson*, Superintendent of Schools of Pittsburgh, was chosen as chairman of this committee. Everything I dreamed of has been more than realized by his work at the head of this great commission. It gives me great pleasure to introduce *Dr. Davidson*, who will speak on the federal bill and the Legislative Commission.

Dr. Davidson: Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen, as I stand struggling, for a moment to get my bearings upon what I might best and most profitably say, so as to avoid wasting your time, I find my mind still hanging upon the words of introduction spoken by the president of this great Association.

When he drafted me for this position I felt possibly that he knew as well as I knew that he was making a tremendous mistake. I knew how he loved *Dr. Strayer*, for he had revealed that fact to me but never in my life had I been so puzzled as to what to do as when his letter came saying he was not appointing me, that he was drafting me, and so, like many of this Association, after pondering over the matter thoughtfully I took the train and went to New York City and out to Columbia University and had an interview with the chairman of the committee on legislation.

When I looked *George Strayer* in the eye, I said to him "*Blair* is making a terrible mistake, but I want to know if I should bring myself to undertake such a responsible position in the affairs of the Association; whether you will feel you can work with me on this commission as a member in the future as I have tried in my way to work with you." And his reply was so generous, as is always characteristic of him, and his pledge of support was so complete and whole souled that I went back home and wired *Dr. Blair* "I accept your challenge to take up the chairmanship, on the condition that you shall have a committee that will represent the best ideals of the Association, and that it shall be made in its appointment as broad as the nation and as independent as the profound thinking of this body on this question when it finally reaches its conclusions, to say to it that the Congress of the United States is to do its duty in placing a Secretary on the Ship of State to guide the course of learning straight in America."

And now I had prepared a line of thought, but like you I have thrown more speeches into the discard and into the scrap pile than I ever have been able to deliver.

Just now, called to the wing, a special request was made upon me, which seemed so sincerely to represent a conviction of the membership of this body, that I feel myself impelled and compelled to place the iron on the anvil and with hammer, forge out a speech in this presence that will meet the wishes put to me just now in the wing. And the question put to me is "What is the Federal Bill about which we have been writing and about which we have been talking?" "What are its details?"

So much has been said and so much has been written in the past and so much has been spoken upon bills that have been before this body and before the teachers of America and before Congress that a resultant confusion is evident at this time, even in the minds of many members occupying seats as delegates upon this floor.

Fundamentally let me say that over and above all this bill is part of a great national program of education which focuses upon the most important living object in America today, the child enrolled in the public schools and in all the schools of the land. (He then delivered an address which is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: I gather the idea he is for that bill. I have not yet allowed a single session to run beyond the limits of its time, and I will not break over on that.

At this time I had intended to have an extended discussion, as extended as you desired, of this great bill, but I know we will pardon the enthusiasm of these two people which has caused them to use up the time, and we all know they have added greatly to our appreciation of the work they are doing.

This committee is one of the great continuing committees, but it needs the approval of this delegate body, and whatever discussion we have in the remaining seven minutes of time I hope may circle about the motion to continue the committee on federal legislation. I shall entertain a motion of that kind.

Dr. Thomas: I move that the committee be continued.

(The motion was duly seconded.)

Mr. Blair: *Dr. Thomas* of Maine moves the Legislative Commission be continued as the great legislative body on our federal legislation and there is a second to that motion. Any discussion? If not, all in favor will signify the same by saying aye. (Carried unanimously.)

I call attention to the amendment to our Bylaws which provides that the director of each state shall be nominated by the state association, and then come down to be approved. It will obviate a very great many inconveniences of the members meeting now in little groups here and there. That amendment is printed in your Official Manual on page 63.

It would not be right or wise to take it up at this late hour for us to vote upon it, but I ask you to read it over and in the morning one of the first things to come up at this Representative Assembly will be that amendment upon which we will vote.

Mr. Saunders of Virginia: At this particular time I have a motion to go to the Committee on Committees to be presented in the report tomorrow morning, and unless it is offered at this time it will not have an opportunity to get before them. It is a report from a committee which you appointed Tuesday morning, to consider this general matter brought up here in the discussion by *Dr. Rosier* of West Virginia. May I offer the motion?

Mr. Blair: I would be very glad to have you do so.

Mr. Saunders: This committee of the chairmen of the state delegations had several sessions and in the final session, this motion was submitted:

"I move that this body recommend to the Committee on Committees that it provide for a committee of seven, to be known as the Committee of Reference for the annual meeting, and that this committee have one member from each of the following sections of the United States: Atlantic States, East Central States, South Central States, North Central States, West Central States, Rocky Mountain States, and Western States, and that this committee be elected by the chairmen of the state delegations on the first day of the annual meeting, in order that such questions as come up unexpectedly and without thoughtful consideration may, at the discretion of the President of the Association, be referred to this committee for consideration, with or without consultation with the chairmen of the state delegations, to the end that recommendations may be made back to the delegate body at its regular meetings during the convention."

This motion takes into consideration all the elements that were brought out in the discussion on the floor that morning and in the various discussions of the committee afterwards, in providing a method of reference for matters that need further consideration, and I offer this motion as the report of that committee. (The motion was duly seconded.)

Mr. Blair: I sat in with that group, the chairmen of the various state delegations here, and I am convinced from what I heard there that this motion represents a fine solution of the situation. It will give this body one committee representative of the various sections of this country to which moot questions that fail to spring out of the body on this platform may be referred. Is there any discussion. If not, all in favor of the motion will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Crabtree: One of the large cities of this commonwealth asks the Secretary, out of appreciation of the good work of our worthy President to extend their greetings—the greetings of the city of Tacoma—to *President Blair*.

Mr. Blair: I think the people of Tacoma and Seattle have taken *Dr. Siders* seriously, that we would rather have the flowers of the plant touch us in the face than the roots that come downward, and the President appreciated this very much indeed. We are now adjourned.

Fourth Business Session, Friday, July 8, 1927

The fourth and final business session of the Representative Assembly, meeting at Seattle, Washington, Fifth Avenue Theatre, was called to order by *President Blair* on Friday morning, July 8, 1927, at 9 o'clock, when the following proceedings were had:

Mr. Blair: I wish to express our appreciation of the fine music furnished by the City of Seattle. We will now stand and repeat the Lord's Prayer, led by *Miss Mary McSkimmon*. (The audience then stood and repeated the Lord's Prayer.)

Mr. Blair: I wrote at least a dozen letters to *Superintendent Cole* of Seattle asking him to appear on the program, but to each one of my solicitations he said "No, I do not want to appear on the program; I have all I can do, and I want to do that the best I can with the teachers of Seattle."

He is one of the most selfeffacing, retiring men I have ever known. He has arranged for the great school exhibit to be continued open into next week, so that any teacher remaining over may see that exhibit. I know you who have not seen it will make arrangements to see that great exhibit.

We are ready to take up the order of business of the morning. The first item on the program is a report from the Treasurer, our own *Dean Smith*.

Mr. Smith: Mr. President and Delegates, you will find copies of the Treasurer's report in your hands, as the report has been distributed to you, consisting of a four-page pamphlet. Will you please turn to that report? I shall take only three minutes to give the summary. (The Treasurer's report is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: It is moved and seconded that we accept this report. Any discussion? If not, all in favor of accepting this report will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: The next order of business is the report from the President of the Board of Trustees, *Dr. Siders*.

Dr. Siders: I understand this report is in your hands, the report of the auditors. If I may make some very brief comments, I think they will enable you to understand the report without a reading of the figures. (*Dr. Siders* then explained the various items in the report. The report is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Holloway: I think the report shows the balance on hand May 31, 1926, as shown in the auditor's account, and as shown in the Treasurer's account, ought to be explained. There is a typographical error in there, I think. In one case it is \$56,875.47 and in the other case it is \$58,875.47.

Mr. Smith: Fifty-eight is right.

Mr. Blair: There is one place where the date is wrong. It says 1917, where it ought to say 1927. With those corrections the report is ready for acceptance or rejection. (It was then duly moved and seconded that the report be accepted.)

Mr. Blair: Any questions or discussion on this report? If not, those in favor of the acceptance of the report will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: Each year the President is required to secure a firm of trained accountants to go to Washington and go over the reports. The Executive Committee this year asked through the President that these trained accountants not only audit the accounts, but that they make suggestions to the President and Execu-

tive Committee of how the method of bookkeeping at Washington might be improved, if at all.

That report had to be referred to a committee of this Association and that committee has reported back and I am asking *Secretary Crabtree* to read the report of that committee at this time. (*Mr. Crabtree* then presented the following, to-wit:)

Seattle, Washington, July 8, 1927.

Francis G. Blair, President
National Education Association
Seattle, Washington.

Mr. President:

We, your committee, appointed to consider the report of the accountants who audited the books of the Association, recommend that that part of their report which certified that the moneys of the Association were properly accounted for and that the balances were intact and properly safeguarded, be accepted.

In addition to their audit of the books, you asked for certain suggestions regarding methods of bookkeeping. We recommend that the Representative Assembly refer that part of the report, dealing with methods of bookkeeping to the Board of Directors with the recommendation that it be referred to the Executive Committee for such investigation and action as may be deemed advisable.

Respectfully submitted,

Florence M. Hale, Maine,
J. H. Kelley, Pennsylvania,
Uel W. Lamkin, Missouri,
Chairman.

Mr. Crabtree: I move the adoption of this report. (The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: This report is a report of the committee of this Association that reviewed the report of the trained accountants that went to Washington and went over the reports and you will see that the first is merely to be accepted. The second part is a letter with the suggestions of how certain duplications, perhaps certain things in the bookkeeping, might be improved and the committee recommends that the Representative Assembly refer that to the Board of Directors, so the Executive Committee may take it up and work with the central office to work it out. Is there any discussion? If not, the action of the first part of the report is to accept it and to refer the second part of it to the Board of Directors will be voted on. All in favor of the motion will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

I am asking *Mr. Newlon* to make the report for the Committee on Committees.

Mr. Newlon: The report of the Committee on Committees will be very brief. We find that the President and the Executive Committee have carried out the recommendations made a year ago, and which you approved, and our only function at this time is to indicate the committees we think should be continued and those we think should be transferred, to report to other bodies, or to be discontinued.

We recommend that the Commission on the American School Program be discontinued; that committee has not been active, largely due to the ill health of the chairman and we understand that it is the opinion of Dr. Owen, the chairman, that it should be discontinued.

The Committee on the Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Subjects, of which *Dr. Claxton* is chairman, is to be continued.

The Committee on Community Relations to be discontinued.

The Editorial Council does not seem to be active. We therefore recommend the discontinuance of this committee.

The Committee on Educational Problems in Colored Schools, an active committee, and we recommend that it continue.

To continue the Committee on Ethics of the Profession.

To continue the Committee on Homes for Retired Teachers.

Refer to the Department of Health Education, the Committee on Health Education but we recommend that an appropriation be made that will enable the Department of Health Education, through a new committee, to continue its cooperation with the American Medical Association in a very important piece of work.

Continue the Committee on International Relations.

The Legislative Commission and the Committee on School Libraries are continued.

Continue the Committee on Retirement Allowances and the Committee on Revision of Departments.

The Committee on Rules, of course, is necessary.

The Committee on School Museum Relations to be discontinued.

We recommend that the Committee on Visual Education be referred to the Department of Visual Education.

The Budget Committee, of course, will be necessary.

There seems to be a desire on the part of a number of people there should be a new committee on salaries. It has been years since the Association has had a committee on salaries and, during the time that has elapsed since the last report, there have been a number of important developments; a number of forward looking salary schedules have been adopted and certain problems have arisen.

The Research Division under *Dr. Norton* has done a remarkably fine piece of work in collecting statistics on salaries. I believe it is the custom of that Division now to make an extensive survey every two years.

We recommend that the President appoint a committee on the economic status of teachers and that it be the function of this committee, with *Dr. Norton* and his associates, to prepare within the next year another report that will state what we now know or think we know in regard to the development of salary schedules and in regard to the great problem of the economic status of teachers, not only in the elementary and secondary schools, but in the colleges and universities as well. We believe the time has come for such a report and it would be very usable by many who are concerned with the technical problem of salary schedule making.

We suggest—not recommend, but suggest—that the Secretary raise the question with the Curriculum Commission to decide whether it would be best to make a recommendation as to character education in the schools, something that might prove as an outlet for teachers and executives and something that might inform the lay public as to the importance of the matter which we adapt to that objective of education and something as to the methods which we employ in our attempts to achieve that objective.

Now, Mr. President, this is a very informal report and I do not know whether it is proper to move that it be approved or not.

Mr. Blair: I think so.

Mr. Newlon: I therefore move its adoption.

Mr. Blair: You hear this report. A motion and second is before you to approve the report of this committee that *Mr. Newlon* has made. I believe there was a second. (The motion was seconded.)

A Voice: Did I understand when I listened to the report there was no reference to a Committee on Tenure?

Mr. Blair: If that was omitted, it was by mistake.

Dr. Claxton: Maybe the Assembly would like to hear the committees continued in one group and those discontinued in one group.

Mr. Blair: *Mr. Newlon* will read the committees to be discontinued first, if he will.

Mr. Newlon: The Committee on the Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Subjects is to be continued and the following committees are also to be continued: the Committee on Educational Problems in Colored Schools; on Ethics; on Homes for Retired Teachers; on International Relations; the Legislative Commission, and on School Libraries; Resolutions of course would be continued, but not under our recommendation; on Retirement Allowances; on Revision of Departments; the Rules Committee; the Budget Committee; the Necrology Committee. These

are the committees we recommend to be continued. I think I have read all of them. This list I have in my hand might not be absolutely complete.

The committees that are not to be continued as committees of the Representative Assembly: The American School Program; the Community Relations Committee; the Editorial Council; the Committee on Health Education is to be referred to the Department; School Museum Relations; Visual Education.

We also recommend the creation of a committee on the economic status of teachers.

Mr. Blair: You have heard this restatement.

Mr. Saunders: Mr. President, the body has, by resolution, instructed the Committee on Committees to report a Committee on Reference. I did not hear any reference to that.

Mr. Blair: That is a committee of this body already adopted and approved by this body but we will include that amongst the committees.

Mr. Newlon: I might refer to the fact that such a committee had been created by the Representative Assembly. We did not consider it necessary to make a recommendation on that point.

Mr. Blair: But that should be included in the list. Any further discussion? If not, all in favor of continuing those committees recommended to be continued and discontinuing those recommended to be discontinued will signify the same by saying aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: The report is adopted and the recommendations approved.

The next report for the Executive Committee is on the budget and I will ask *Dr. Siders* to make that report also, as he was chairman of the Budget Committee.

Dr. Siders: The work of the Budget Committee is to assemble all requests for expenditures, to total these, and to check them against the amount of income which is available under the resolutions of the Board of Directors. (He then explained the various items in the report. It is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

These are the requests for money balanced up, totaled and made to agree with the money available. I move its adoption.

Mr. Blair: You hear this report which was made the subject of a two hour discussion by the Board of Directors. It was approved by the Board of Directors but we felt both bodies should have this report before them and *Dr. Siders* moves the acceptance of this report by this body. If there is a second I shall put it to a vote. (The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It is moved and seconded that the Representative Assembly approve in its general principles this Budget presented to you. Are there any remarks? The Budget Committee consisted of *Dr. Siders*, *David Felmley*, *Frank E. Reynolds*, *Henry Lester Smith*, and *Julia E. Sullivan*. Any comment? All those in favor of its adoption will say aye. (Unanimously carried.)

(The Report of the Budget Committee is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: The next item is the report of the Necrology Committee by *Ernest L. Crandall*. (*Mr. Crandall* then presented the Committee report which is printed in full in the *Proceedings*.) (At the conclusion of *Mr. Crandall's* paper all present stood in silent meditation.)

Mr. Blair: On behalf of this department I want to thank you for this beautiful impressive memorial you have given us for our brethren who have passed away during this year.

Under the item, Unfinished Business, the amendment to the Bylaws which was presented at Philadelphia last year, providing that a director from each state shall be nominated by the state association instead of as at present, is now before us for consideration. Shall I have the amendment read? The Secretary will read it.

Mr. Crabtree: "Amend Section 2, Article 2, of the Bylaws, as follows:

"Strike out the third sentence of the said Section 2 and insert, instead the following:

On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, the delegates of each state, territory or district of the United States shall nominate one person for member

of the Board of Directors, provided that a nomination for member of the Board of Directors has not already been made by the state teachers' association or by the educational association of such state, territory or district and the nomination so made reported to the Secretary of the Association so as to be received by him not later than ten days before the first day of the annual meeting; the nomination for state member of the Board of Directors may be made by the Representative Assembly of the state teachers' association or the educational association of the state, territory or district or, in a state, territory or district not having a Representative Assembly, in such manner as the state teachers' association or educational association of the state, territory or district may determine. The name of the person nominated shall be reported to the Representative Assembly at the first business meeting upon roll call of the states."

Mr. Blair: You have heard this amendment, offered by *Mr. Pearse* of Wisconsin, at the meeting of this Representative Assembly in Philadelphia last year. What is your pleasure?

Mr. Simpson of Indiana: I move that the amendment be amended to include the member of the Committee on Resolutions and the member on the Committee on Necrology. (The motion was duly seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It is moved and seconded that this amendment to the Bylaws be amended by including the member of the Resolutions Committee and the member of the Necrology Committee. Is there any discussion of this amendment?

Mr. Rosier: I move that the report be adopted.

Mr. Blair: It is moved this amendment to the Bylaws be adopted by this body and then when it is adopted there is an amendment pending to it. (The motion was then duly seconded.)

Mr. Blair: The amendment, without restating it, will be considered as made, that this be amended so as to include by the state association or state educational society, the members of the Resolutions Committee and the Necrology Committee.

Mr. Saunders: I want to move you, sir, that the pending motion, together with the amendment, be referred to the Committee of *Dr. Claxton*, which has in charge this whole reorganization process, because I believe this motion needs further consideration from this standpoint.

Mr. Blair: The substitute motion is made to refer this proposed amendment with the motion here to amend, to the Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Subjects. Any other comment?

A Voice: I want to raise the question whether or not the state association, as not being in full membership under our constitution, could elect a director for this Association. I think there is a question of constitutionality. The other question is the amendment to this amendment, which is, in effect, a new amendment, whether or not that can be submitted from the floor and voted upon at this time.

Mr. Blair: Unless the amendment changes the essential nature of the amendment, it would be germane and a matter of proper consideration.

A Voice: In matters of legislation, a motion involving more than one subject would not be legal. The question I raise is whether or not they can all be included under this amendment as it was set out a year ago?

Mr. Blair: That is a technical point I do not think we are called upon to rule upon at this time, but it probably is well taken. The question before us is a substitute motion to refer this pending amendment to the Bylaws, with the motion to amend the amendment, to this committee. Any further discussion?

A Voice: I move that the whole matter be laid on the table.

(From different parts of the house came "Question," "Question," "Question.")

Mr. Blair: There is no second to the motion to lay on the table.

(The motion was then seconded.)

Mr. Blair: I hear a second to lay on the table. This motion takes precedence over all others. Those in favor of laying the entire matter on the table will say aye. (Ayes voted.) Those not in favor of laying the entire matter on the table will say no. (Noes voted. Motion lost.)

Mr. Blair: The motion before you now is to refer the whole matter to the Committee on Representative Assembly and Kindred Subjects for subsequent report to this Assembly. All in favor will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: The ayes have it and the motion is referred to that committee, the entire matter is referred to that committee.

The next order of business is the Report of the Resolutions Committee, of which *Dr. Strayer* is chairman.

(The resolutions are printed in full in the *Proceedings*.)

Dr. Strayer: By the action of the Representative Assembly, the Resolutions Committee of last year was continued and instructed to act for the current year. The thought of the Assembly was, as I understood it, that the Resolutions Committee should be at work during the year and not merely during the annual meeting. Much time and attention has been given to these proposed resolutions.

I would like, if it meets with the pleasure of the Assembly, Mr. President, to present the resolutions, after reading the very brief preamble, by sections, and to ask that the vote be on each one.

Dr. Strayer: (After reading and explaining resolution number 1) I move the adoption of this resolution.

(The motion was seconded.)

(Discussion followed.)

Mr. Blair: All in favor of the adoption of resolution under Arabic No. 1 will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution number 2) I move the adoption of this resolution.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: You heard the resolution read and the motion to adopt it was made and seconded. Any questions or comment? If not, all those in favor of adopting resolution No. 2 will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution number 3) I move that the resolution be adopted.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It has been moved and seconded that resolution No. 3 be adopted. All in favor of its adoption will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution No. 4) I move the adoption of that resolution.

(The motion was seconded.)

(Discussion resulted and a motion to amend was made by Mr. Saunders.)

Mr. Blair: It has been moved and seconded that the sentence "That outside of the urban areas, this unit must be larger than the district or township," shall be omitted from the resolution. Any discussion?

(Further discussion resulted in changing the wording to, "It is understood that in any unit outside of urban areas, it may be necessary to make such unit larger than the district or township.")

Mr. Blair: All those in favor of the resolution as now constituted will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: Resolution No. 4 is adopted with that change in language.

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution No. 5) I move the adoption of that resolution.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: (After commenting on the resolution) All those in favor of adopting it as it reads now will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution No. 6) I move the adoption of that resolution.

Mr. Blair: You have heard the resolution. Any comments?

(An amendment was moved by *Miss Gardner* to strike out words "at large." A vote was taken and the amendment lost.)

(Another motion to amend by striking out the word "state" was made.)

Mr. Blair: The amendment is lost and the motion is now before you to adopt the resolution No. 6 as it was read. All those in favor will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution No. 7) I move the adoption of the resolution.

(The motion was duly seconded.)

Mr. Blair: You have heard the reading of resolution No. 7 and the motion with a second for its adoption. Any discussion or comment? If not, all those in favor of adopting that resolution will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution No. 8) I move the adoption of the resolution just read.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It is moved and seconded that the eighth resolution as read be adopted. Any comment or discussion? If not, all in favor of its adoption will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution No. 9) I move the adoption of that resolution.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It has been moved and seconded that the ninth resolution be adopted. Any discussion? If not, all in favor of its adoption will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution No. 10) I move the adoption of the resolution. (The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: You have heard the reading of the resolution and the motion which has been seconded. Any discussion? If not, all in favor of its adoption will manifest that fact by rising. (A standing vote was then taken with applause.) The resolution is unanimously adopted.

Mr. Wannamaker: I do not think it would be proper to state that it was accepted unanimously. I did not stand.

Mr. Blair: I will withdraw the statement that the resolution was adopted unanimously. By the vote of the Representative Assembly the resolution is adopted.

Dr. Strayer: (After reading resolution under Roman numeral II) I move the adoption of the resolution.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: All those in favor of the adoption of the resolution just read will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading the resolution under Roman numeral III) I move adoption of the resolution.

(The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: You have heard the resolution and the motion for adoption. Any discussion? If not, all in favor of its adoption will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: (After reading the resolution under Roman numeral IV) I move the adoption of the resolution.

(The motion was duly seconded.)

Mr. Blair: You have heard the reading of the resolution, which has been moved for adoption and seconded. Any discussion?

Mr. Webb: (The following amendment was offered by *Mr. Webb* requiring sanity in teaching.)

"At the same time this Association goes on record as favoring sanity in teaching in all our educational institutions."

Dr. Strayer: May the chairman say that the teaching of the truth would seem to involve sanity. And that there was no desire on the part of the committee, nor its chairman, to incorporate in the language of the resolution any suggestion that could be used to support a man who taught in any institution doctrines that were

subversive of our democratic system of government or the ideals of our profession. (Further discussion by *Mr. Rosier* and others.)

Mr. Blair: The motion is before you that we should introduce, following the word "propaganda" I assume, "and that we have sanity in all our schools." All in favor of that amendment will say aye. (No ayes were heard.) All not in favor of the amendment will say no. (Unanimous noes were heard.)

Mr. Blair: The motion to amend is lost. And we are now ready to vote on this resolution as read. All in favor of the resolution as read will say aye. (Large vote of aye.) Contrary no. (One member voted no.)

Mr. Blair: The resolution is adopted.

Dr. Strayer: (After reading the resolution under Roman numeral V.) I move the adoption of the resolution as read.

(The motion was duly seconded.)

Mr. Blair: Any discussion? If not, all in favor of the adoption of that resolution will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Dr. Strayer: *Mr. President*, it would have taken more time than the reading of all the resolutions which have preceded the last, if we had written into it any adequate expression of our appreciation of the courtesies that have been extended to us by the people of this community. I feel sure that every member of this body will go home and long remember the magnificent hospitality that has been extended to us, the wonder of the pageant put on by the teachers and children of the city, the beauty of the music we have heard, but most of all the genuine spirit of hospitality that has met us everywhere. (Applause.)

(After reading the resolution under Roman numeral No. VI.) I move the adoption of the resolution. (The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It has been moved and seconded that we adopt the last resolution read. All in favor of its adoption will signify the fact by standing. (All stand and applaud.)

Mr. Blair: The motion is unanimously carried and the resolution is adopted.

Mr. Holloway: There was handed to me by *Mr. Robert C. Deming*, of the Department of Adult Education, the following suggested resolution, which I take pleasure in offering at this time:

"This nation whose destiny depends upon popular participation in government, cannot afford to tolerate less than a full-functioning literacy.

Be it therefore resolved, that the Secretary of Commerce be requested to secure in the 1930 census more usable information as to the extent of ability to read English with understanding in the United States."

I move the adoption of this as a supplementary resolution.

Dr. Strayer: I would like to accept the resolution and move its adoption.

(The resolution was then unanimously adopted.)

Mr. Saunders: I was waiting for a motion from the chairman of the Committee on Resolutions for the adoption of the report as a whole. I heard no such motion.

Dr. Strayer: I so move.

Mr. Saunders: I desire to offer one comment thereon. The resolutions as a whole are most admirable, but I looked over your report hoping to find therein a resolution with relation to world peace.

The President of the United States has called for and there is now in session a conference on disarmament of the great nations, Great Britain, Japan, and the United States and this great body of educators, if it stands for anything I believe, stands for world peace and the abolishment of war, with all its horrors and all its suffering and all its loss to humanity and it seems to me, we ought to make some adequate expression on that.

Mr. Blair: I think it is almost like readopting the Ten Commandments. We are all in favor of it.

Mr. Saunders: I quite agree with you but I think the expression should be there. We ought to endorse the Ten Commandments too.

Dr. Strayer: May I say for the Resolutions Committee, that the Committee at its Dallas meeting agreed that this particular year our resolutions would deal with the program of education only that we sought to advance in this country and not with other matters and we were following out that policy.

Mr. Blair: All those in favor of the National Education Association reaffirming its oft repeated pronouncements in favor of every legitimate means for promoting world peace and understanding among the people of the earth will say aye. (Unanimously carried.)

A Delegate from Iowa: I move the following resolution:

"That the National Education Association favors a single standard of salaries for elementary and high schools, in which the pay shall be the same for a teacher in the elementary schools as in the high schools."

Mr. Blair: Would the gentleman accept this as a substitute for what he has in mind? We have just acted upon the creation of a committee on salaries, which will study this entire subject and report back to the Association next year, and would it not be proper then for the resolution to come before this Assembly?

The Delegate: I will accept that suggestion.

Mr. Blair: Before I put the motion to accept the report of the Resolutions Committee as a whole, I want to allow *Miss McSkimmon* to present another matter.

Miss McSkimmon: The president has asked me to formulate this resolution:

"We, the members of the National Education Association, in council assembled, desire to express to *Mrs. Clara A. Lindbergh* the congratulations of this body for the noble achievements of her son, *Col. Charles A. Lindbergh* and our joy and pride that the youth whom the nations delight to honor is the son of a fellow worker of our own profession."

And I wish to accompany that with this little poem by *Anne Alfreda Mellish*, one of our members, whose address is the "Boston Teachers News Letter" and which is entitled "To the Mother of Charles A. Lindbergh."

"Across the miles that link our distant homes
 We, sister-teachers, stretch our friendly hands
 To grasp a mother's slender, tired hands
 Which wear today a nation's holy kiss.
 We, who have borne no sons
 And yet whose consecrated lives shall help
 To mold the lives of generations yet unborn,
 We here acclaim you, Mother, who have given
 America a flaming youth
 Whose valiant deed has blazed a wondrous path
 Across the skies, and, for a time, at least
 Welded a fretful world into one brotherhood.
 Our hearts were with you in those fearful hours
 When, buoyed by prayer and trust unflinching,
 You waited for the words of life or death
 And now our hearts rejoice with you
 When all the world, enthralled,
 Proclaims the prowess of your gallant son.
 Your sister-teachers send you greetings warm,
 For this we know; nor princely gift
 Of friend or government, nor Beauty's kiss,
 Nor loud huzzas of frenzied mobs
 Shall prove thy son's true guerdon
 For his knightly quest;
 His accolade shall come, when
 Enfolded in your tender, loving arms,
 He hears your deep, 'Well done, my son!'"

(Applause.)

Mr. Blair: You have heard the resolution as written by Miss McSkimmon, and I will entertain a motion for its adoption.

(The resolution for adoption was moved and seconded.)

Mr. Blair: It is moved and seconded that this resolution extending congratulations and our professional felicitation to *Clara A. Lindbergh* be adopted by this body. Any discussion? If not, all in favor will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

(The resolutions in full are printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Blair: It now becomes our pleasant duty to hear the report of the Elections Committee. We will now listen to the report of the Elections Committee, by *Mr. Sanders* of Massachusetts.

Mr. Sanders: We wish to express our appreciation of the valuable services rendered by the people of Seattle and the headquarters staff of the National Education Association. It has been a real pleasure to have an opportunity to work with them. There were 1145 delegates entitled to vote at yesterday's election. The vote is as follows:

(*Mr. Sanders* then read the following Report of the Election Committee, to-wit:)

SEATTLE, WASHINGTON, July 8, 1927.

To Whom It May Concern:

The National Education Association, Committee on Elections, reports the vote cast at the election held at Seattle, Washington, July 7, 1927, as follows, except a few scattering votes:

President:

Cornelia S. Adair, of Virginia 778

Vicepresidents:

A. T. Allen, of North Carolina 771

Ira T. Chapman, of New Jersey 771

A. G. Crane, of Wyoming 770

Florence M. Hale, of Maine 776

R. L. Jones, of Tennessee 770

John J. Rae, of Idaho 772

Agnes Samuelson, of Iowa 770

Claude W. Sandifur, of California 775

H. A. Senter, of Nebraska 770

John S. Vaughan, of Oklahoma 773

J. O. Webb, of Texas 753

Treasurer:

Henry Lester Smith, of Indiana 775

The committee declares these elected for the ensuing year.

Respectfully submitted,

WILLIAM J. SANDERS,
(Signed) BERTHA S. ARMBRUSTER,
F. E. REYNOLDS.

Mr. Sanders: The formal certificate of election is signed by the members of the Election Committee and now, Mr. Chairman, if such a motion is in order, I move the acceptance of the report of the Committee on Elections and that the election be made unanimous. (The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Blair: You hear the motion by the chairman of the Election Committee that this report be accepted and that the result of the ballots be declared by the President as official and electing to these offices the persons who received these majorities. All in favor of that motion will say aye. (Carried unanimously.)

Mr. Blair: The report is adopted. (He then called the names of the officers for 1927-28.)

May we now have the newly elected President of this Association, *Miss Cornelia S. Adair*, brought to the platform? (*Miss Adair* then came to the platform, amid applause.)

Mr. Blair: *Miss Adair*, I congratulate you on this great honor that has come to you by the unanimous choice of this great Association. I can point out only one difficulty in the way. You will not have the advantage the retiring president had in having an opponent, who has been one of the best helpers I have had during this year. No more loyal cooperation could have been had.

You will also lack that fine body of men and women who opposed my election at Philadelphia, who are and have been among my most valued helpers. I want to express my appreciation of those men and women who have stood out boldly and opposed certain things.

I want to congratulate you on behalf of this great Association for the signal honor that has come to you, *Miss Cornelia S. Adair*, the President of the National Education Association—I congratulate you. (Applause.)

Miss Adair: Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen, while I may not have had that fine opposition of which *Dr. Blair* speaks, nevertheless I have equal strength in *Dr. Blair*—he is behind me.

I cannot help feeling at this moment the responsibility that this office carries with it.

During the days of this week in this beautiful city of Seattle, we have been in the presence of, and have seen, the greatest educational organization in the world in action. It represents the one million people in this country who have dedicated their energies to the training and instruction of the present generation composed of 25,000,000 children. The training of the generations in the arts and culture of modern progressive life is the supreme task to which any government can direct its resources and energies. The agencies set up to promote public education in this country have had a unique evolution. The institution of public education has grown up and found various forms of expression in systems of school administration, in school architecture and in curricula, but the most interesting thing about it all is that each of these has sprung from the sacred precincts of the hearts and composite desires of all the people. Our public school system in the United States is one of the conspicuous achievements of American democracy. It is admired and coveted by the other nations of the world. A representative of one of the nations of Europe, when asked recently what of all things in America, he would most desire for his people, promptly replied, "Your public school system."

The National Education Association is the clearinghouse for educational thought and practice in the United States. Its major purpose is to interpret education to the people and to stimulate further educational progress. It assembles and distributes educational facts which are the raw material out of which we build wise policies and procedure.

The Association in the last decade has had a remarkable era of growth in power and influence. The teachers and school administrators in the states are fast learning to think and feel in terms of the nation. There has been in this period a wonderful growth in interest and loyalty to the national organization, probably only equaled or surpassed by the growth and influence of the state associations. The National Association is about ready to do what some of the state associations have already accomplished—one hundred percent membership in their organization.

Teachers and school people are learning rapidly the fine art of teamwork. We have probably learned it by observing how it works in large, successful financial and business organizations. To make further progress in this particular, we must learn in our annual deliberations not to overemphasize the interests of any one of the various departments composing the national organization. When we meet in annual session, we should visualize the national problems and concentrate upon the larger and more fundamental objectives—upon those things which will promote and further education in general in the United States instead of upon those interests peculiarly inimical to any special group.

The National Education Association's best opportunity to serve more fully the cause of education in America is just ahead. The leaders in education in this

country are to see in the next decade or two expenditures for public education doubled. We shall see every child of school age in the states in a comfortable seat in a modern school building. We shall see the number of high school graduates in this country mounting from year to year and at the close of the next decade or two totaling 400,000 young men and women. Illiteracy among adults will be wiped out and forever banished from our country. We shall see teaching a highly dignified profession with its own technic, standards for entrance and code of ethics, attracting to it a rightful proportion of the best brains of the country. We shall see the classroom teacher recognized, not as a hireling, but as one of the most important professional factors in the system of education. We shall see the colleges gradually shifting their curricula to more highly specialized lines and their faculties selected for their peculiar ability to teach rather than solely upon the basis of scholarly attainments. A limited number of these colleges and universities will devote their major efforts to research. We shall see a Secretary of Education in the President's Cabinet with a major division of the department devoted to educational research. We shall see in the next few years, the membership in the National Association mount to two or three hundred thousand. All of this we shall see within the next few decades. It will be the nation's effort to establish in the coming generations right standards of citizenship and appreciation of the finer things of the past ages as their rightful heritage. It will be America's contribution to the progress of civilization.

Please let me thank you for what you have done in conferring upon me what I regard as the highest educational and professional honor in the United States. I pledge to you that I will give to the office of President of the National Education Association all my time and best energy. I can give no more. My people in the Old Dominion on the other side of this continent will share with me this high honor. (Continued applause.)

Mr. Blair: As I began my official duties as President of this Association with a quotation from Kipling, now I will close with these lines from the same author:

"When I was a King and a Mason—a Master proven and skilled—

I cleared me ground for a Palace such as King should build,
I decreed and dug down to my levels. Presently, under the silt,

I came on the wreck of a Palace such as a King had built.
There was no worth in the fashion—there was no wit in the plan

Hither and thither, aimless, the ruined footings ran—
Masonry, brute mishandled, but carven on every stone;

'After me cometh a builder. Tell him, I too have known.'

Swift to my use in my trenches, where my well-planed ground work grew,

I tumbled his guoins and his ashlar, and cut and reset them anew

Lime I milled of his marbles; burned it, slacked it, and spread,

Taking and leaving at pleasure the gifts of the humble dead.

Yet I despised it nor gloried; yet, as we wrenched them apart,

I read in the razed foundations the heart of that builder's heart

As he had risen and pleaded, so did I understand

The form of the dream he had followed in the face of thing he had planned.

When I was a King and a Mason—in the open noon of my pride,

They sent me a Word from the Darkness—They whispered and called me aside.

They said—'The send is forbidden.' They said—'They use is fulfilled.

They Palace shall stand as that other's—the spoil of a King who shall build.'

I called my men from the trenches, my quarries, my wharves, and my sheers.

All I had wrought I abandoned to the faith of the faithless years.

Only I cut on the timber—Only I carved on the stone;

After me cometh a builder. Tell him, I too have known."

(Applause.)

There is just one item which we have failed to attend to. We have failed in this body to confirm the election of directors, so all those in favor of confirming the directors that were elected by the various state delegations whose names were presented will manifest it by saying "aye."

(Unanimously carried.)

Miss Adair: (Flowers were brought to the platform) I want to thank the state of Virginia for this lovely basket of flowers.

Mr. Blair: This ends our program. The meeting is hereby adjourned.

F. G. BLAIR, *President.*

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE FOR THE YEAR 1926-27

Chicago, Illinois, September 27-28, 1926

Monday, September 27, 1926

The Executive Committee of the National Education Association met at the LaSalle Hotel, Chicago, Monday, September 27, 1926 at 10:10 o'clock. All members were present, *Miss Mary McSkimmon*, *Mr. Uel W. Lamkin*, *Mr. W. R. Siders*, *Mr. H. L. Smith*, and *Mr. F. G. Blair*, chairman.

Place of meeting—The first item of business was that of deciding on the next place of meeting. A favorable report on Seattle was made by *Mr. Siders*, who had been instructed to visit Seattle. A favorable report by *Mr. Allen* was read by the Secretary. *President Blair* then recommended that the meeting for 1927 be held at Seattle. *Mr. Siders* moved that the recommendation of the President be accepted. The motion was seconded. Carried.

Date for next meeting—After giving consideration to two possible dates for the meeting, June 25 to July 1 and July 3 to 8, and after hearing a report of the Secretary giving the reaction of directors and others on the question, *Mr. Smith* moved that the date be fixed for July 3 to 8. Seconded by *Mr. Lamkin*. The secretary was directed by the President to get beginning dates of summer schools by wire and report Tuesday morning, postponing the vote to that time.

Canadian Teachers—After discussing a question raised by *Superintendent Cole* of Seattle as to what recognition could be given to Canadian teachers, *President Blair* expressed a desire to have all Canadian teachers invited as guests of the Association. *Mr. Siders* then moved that the President be authorized to extend the invitation. Seconded. Carried. It was decided not to request them to become members.

Philadelphia local committee—The secretary explained the financial aid rendered by the local committee at the Philadelphia meeting and that out of a sum raised for local entertainment and to apply on delegate's expenses about \$9000 would soon be turned over to the Association. The secretary was instructed to send an expression of appreciation in the name of the Executive Committee when the report is received.

Sabbatical Leave—In compliance with the provisions of resolution passed by the Representative Assembly the secretary was authorized to instruct the research division to prepare a preliminary report on the question of sabbatical leave.

Legal Powers of the Executive Committee.—*President Blair*, at this point, presented a carefully prepared analysis of the respective powers of the Board of Directors, the Board of Trustees, the Representative Assembly, and the Executive Committee. He pointed out that under the Charter the Board of Trustees and the Representative Assembly possessed legislative powers; that the Board of

Trustees was a custodial body and the Executive Committee purely an administrative body. He held that those Bylaws which purported to confer legislative powers upon the Executive Committee were in conflict with the specific provisions of the Charter, the organic law of the association, and were therefore void; that due to this conflict and confusion the Executive Committee was being called upon to exercise powers which it did not possess; that, while such extralegal powers as it had exercised in the past under the assumption that the Bylaws conferred upon it such powers, had been exercised for the best interests of the Association and had in no wise impaired or obstructed its work, the time had come when the enlarged interests of the Association demanded that the Executive Committee should exercise only such powers as are conferred upon it by the Charter. He said that the questions involved and the line of reasoning and construction used in arriving at these conclusions had been submitted to three assistant attorneys in the office of the Attorney General of Illinois, and that they had approved the construction made and the conclusions reached. He, therefore, ruled that the Executive Committee was without legal power to act upon the following matters and questions which were before it:

- (1) The creation of certain committees.
- (2) The appropriation of the sum of \$36,900 to the various committees on investigation and research.
- (3) The adoption of general plans for the organization and management of homes for retired teachers or for authorizing the collecting of money.

There was prolonged discussion of the ruling of the President on these questions particularly to determine the extent to which the ruling would apply to other items than to the ones named. It was decided that it would apply to salary increases for the staff and to all activities of the Association for which specific appropriations have not been made. The Secretary presented the need for increasing salaries of the staff and regretted to postpone but felt it could be done without breaking the morale of the staff. A general desire was expressed for a meeting of the Board of Directors at the time of the Dallas meeting, but action was deferred.

President Blair then presented the following objective which he designed as a program of action for the promotion of the interests of the National Education Association:

1. The committee which was authorized at the Philadelphia meeting on Delegate Representation and other kindred subjects should make a thorough study of the Charter and the Bylaws, and with competent legal counsel prepare a report on what changes should be made in Charter and Bylaws to make clear the powers and limitations of the Representative Assembly, the Board of Directors, and the Executive Committee. Unless such a study is made and such action is affected that grave misunderstandings and obstruction of the work of the Association will be inevitable.

2. That the large work undertaken by the Committee on Committees should be carried forward until every committee which is covering the field of any existing department shall be made an organic part of that department, leaving of course the matter of funds allotted to them in the hands of the Representative Assembly and the Board of Directors.

3. All Departments of the Association should be strengthened to make them more productive in the line of research and more constructive in formulating principles and policies of educational procedure.

4. No more important objective is before us than a thorough-going effort to make the Representative Assembly a real, deliberate, legislative body than placing before it only definite proposals from departments and committees for their consideration, discussion and action. These proposals should be referred to committees formed within the delegate body and reported back for action. This great assembly should not be a mere passive, listening body. It should be an active, formative, legislative assembly.

5. Either the Charter should be amended so as to do away with the Board of Directors, or we should set ourselves resolutely to restore this body to its great functional place as the chief legislative authority on all the large business interests of the Association. Without any criticism on anyone, I feel that the Board of Directors has become a mere receiving, listening, approving body for the Executive Committee. If it should be decided that the interests of the Association can be transacted in a more economic and efficient way by the Executive Committee, let the Charter and the Bylaws confer upon it the powers of the Board of Directors. The educational effect on the members of the Representative Assembly and of the Board of Directors can be measured by the amount of responsibility which they feel they are to bear and the amount of power they feel they have to exercise.

6. Without abating any of the force of attention and action which it is now centering upon the Capitol at Washington, we should turn the face of our National Education Association more directly and more permanently towards the various state capitols, adding the momentum of this vast and powerful organization to those state forces which are fighting each year to secure better school conditions and opportunities for their children.

7. Without subtracting any of our interest and our sympathy for nationwide, worldwide social, civic and political affairs, we would reconcentrate and reconcentrate our attention and effort to the promotion of the great cause for which this Association was founded, namely, "To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States."

The statement met with the approval of the Committee. There was a discussion as to the powers of the committee on Committees. Attention was given to the question of salaries of the members of the headquarter's staff but no action was taken at this time.

The meeting having been in session since 10:10 o'clock in the morning except from 12:30 to 2 for lunch and 6:15 to 8 for dinner, adjourned at 10 P. M. to meet again at 10 o'clock Tuesday morning.

Tuesday, September 28, 1926

The Secretary distributed expense vouchers for the convenience of members.

Special Meeting Board of Directors—At this point Mr. Lamkin submitted the following statement as a motion: Moved that the Executive Committee advise the President of the National Education Association to call a special meeting of the Board of Directors at the Dallas meeting of the Department of Superintendence to make such appropriation of the funds of the Association, to constitute such committees and define their duties, and to transact such other business as may seem desirable by the Board of Directors.

The report of the Committee on Committees was not made to the Representative Assembly before the budget was considered by the Board of Directors.

The minutes of the Board of Directors which has the sole authority to appropriate the money of the Association shows no definite appropriation of money to the activities of the Association.

Important matters are to be undertaken by committees under plans which have the approval of the Board of Directors before the Association is committed to them.

The Executive Committee is taking such action as will maintain the work of the Association on the present basis, but the program for future development demands careful and continued consideration and definite action by the Board of Directors.

The motion was seconded.

After discussion, it carried by a unanimous vote.

It was then moved that the Executive Committee recommend that each of the various departments to which committees were referred care for the continuance and personnel of the said referred committees. Carried.

Attention was given to the committees which were to be continued under the provisions of the report on committees. *President Blair* explained that while he had appointed most of the chairmen of these committees he had not completed the list of names of the members of each one. It was decided that the Committee on Committees would be continued as a committee of the Executive Committee.

Approval committees.—*Mr. Siders* moved that the personnel of these committees as prepared by the President be accepted and recommended by the Executive Committee. Seconded by *Mr. Lamkin*. Carried. The chairman stated that he would complete the membership of these committees as rapidly as possible.

Homes for retired teachers.—It was moved that a subcommittee be appointed by the President to prepare a plan for the committee on homes for retired teachers. Seconded. Carried. The following were appointed: *Mr. Siders*, chairman, *Miss McSkimmon*, *Mr. Smith*, and *Mr. Lamkin*.

Delegates world federation.—A motion by *Mr. Lamkin*, seconded by *Mr. Siders* and carried, provided that the President of the National Education Association and the United States Commissioner of Education be elected delegates for the Toronto meeting of the world federation of education associations.

Appropriations.—A motion by *Mr. Siders* seconded by *Mr. Smith* provided that the appropriations for committees and for other activities of the Association be as of the previous year, the action to be submitted to the Board of Directors at the Dallas meeting for ratification. Carried.

Date of Seattle meeting.—After consideration of the question of the date for the Seattle meeting, a motion was passed fixing July 3-8 inclusive as the dates.

Recommendations of the secretary.—The secretary stated that the Department of Classroom Teachers requested that the printed list of delegates show the position of each. He stated that this had been done and distributed copies of what will appear in the *Proceedings*.

He asked for the transfer of the addressograph section from the Business Division to the Division of Records and Membership because its work is more largely in this division. It was agreed that the Secretary would make the change.

On his request to have a committee appointed to present the plan of organization of the headquarters staff and report back to the Executive Committee, it was decided to recommend that the Board of Directors appoint such a committee.

Mr. Siders was authorized to say in answer to a letter from the Near East Relief that the question concerning the appointment of a joint committee would be referred to the Board of Directors at the Dallas meeting with a favorable recommendation. It was understood that no recommendation for opening the schools for collecting funds would be entertained.

Salaries.—The secretary again presented the proposed schedule of salary increase for consideration. It was decided that the Executive Committee would recommend a schedule of increases to the Board of Directors. It was the opinion that certain salaries are too low but that some of the higher ones need not be increased.

Increases retroactive.—A motion was made by *Miss McSkimmon* recommending that the increases in salary when allowed be retroactive beginning with the present fiscal year. Seconded and carried. This recommendation is to be made to the Board of Directors.

All members of the committee were willing to leave matters in general at headquarters with the Secretary including the preparation of a schedule of salary increases for the Board of Directors, but the Secretary urged the wisdom of having a committee appointed, stating that the Secretary needed the judgment and backing of a committee.

A motion was then passed to appoint a committee on salaries and salary increases. *President Blair* appointed *Mr. Lamkin*, chairman, *Miss McSkimmon* and

Mr. Siders. The Secretary suggested that this committee also pay attention to the plan of organization of the headquarters staff as that had its bearing on salaries.

It was recommended that the Secretary send out expense blanks and urge a more extensive use of receipts with bills presented for payment.

Dr. Davidson, chairman of the Legislative Commission, presented plans for the coming year. He was given assurance of the fullest support from the Executive Committee.

The meeting having been in session since 10 o'clock in the morning except for an hour and a half for lunch, 12:30 to 2:00 o'clock, the meeting adjourned at 5 o'clock in the afternoon.

F. G. BLAIR, *President*

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*

Dallas, Texas, February, 1927

Saturday Forenoon, February 26, 1927

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Saturday forenoon at 10 o'clock, February 26, 1927, in room 1306 Adolphus Hotel, Dallas, Texas. It was called to order by the Chairman with all members of the Executive Committee answering to roll call: *Mr. Lamkin*, *Miss McSkimmon*, *Mr. Siders*, *Mr. Smith* and the chairman, *Mr. Blair*.

Report subcommittee on salaries.—The chairman stated that the principal business for the meeting would be the consideration of the reports of the subcommittees on salaries for the headquarters staff and on Homes for Retired Teachers. *Mr. Lamkin*, chairman of the subcommittee on salaries, then presented the report of his committee. He explained that *Miss McSkimmon* and himself had met in Washington at the time of the meeting of state secretaries and had decided on plans for a report instructing the Secretary to put the same in form for the consideration of the full subcommittee at the Dallas meeting. He stated that the committee met on Friday evening in Dallas and agreed upon the report which he was about to present. He called attention to the help which had been received from the United States Bureau of Efficiency.

Salary regulations.—*Mr. Lamkin* called attention to the following proposed regulations:

1. The general plan is for the Board of Directors to make: (1) The appropriations for salaries of members of the headquarters staff in a lump sum, leaving the distribution of the same to the Executive Committee and (2) to adopt a scheme of personnel classifications showing basic and maximum salaries.

2. The basic and maximum salary schedule is to serve as a guide to the Executive Committee in fixing salaries and in determining salary increases. The annual increase as shown in the schedule is to serve not as requirement or rule but as a suggestion. In cases of exceptional merit the increase may be much larger than that shown in the schedule or for valid reasons the annual increase may be reduced. In a particular year the whole schedule of increases may be reduced owing to income conditions.

3. The Executive Committee has the power to change the classification of any employee at any time after the adoption of the schedule.

4. Changes in the classification of members of the staff shall be by vote of the Executive Committee. Permanent members can only be elected by a vote of the committee. The Secretary may make temporary appointments to fill vacancies and to meet emergency needs between meetings on the advice of the Executive Committee. The Secretary cannot make changes in the classification of members of the staff.

5. The Secretary shall employ the temporary help and all unclassified service under the general direction of the Executive Committee reporting the names and weekly salaries as requested but at least once each year for approval.

He next read an opinion from an attorney showing that regulations one and two would be legal.

Action on salary regulations.—After reading this statement prepared by the subcommittee on salary regulations, *Mr. Lamkin* moved that the Executive Committee recommend to the Board of Directors a salary schedule with basic and maximum salaries for all employees of the central office. The motion was seconded and unanimously adopted.

Mr. Lamkin then moved that the Executive Committee recommend to the Board of Directors to make a definite appropriation to meet salaries and salary increases in a lump sum to be distributed by the Executive Committee. The motion was seconded by *Miss McSkimmon*. After discussion the motion was passed.

The salary schedule. *Mr. Lamkin* then presented the question of the schedule showing minimum and maximum salaries including annual increases having placed copies of the outline in the hands of each member.

After discussion and amendments the schedule was adopted.

(It is printed as a part of the report of the Board of Directors and in the report of the Secretary.)

Salary increases.—The Secretary was called upon for his recommendations concerning proposed increases in salary for the staff and presented a statement to each member showing in detail his recommendations. After discussing provisions of the report for some time, *Mr. Lamkin* moved that all the employees at the central office be paid not less than the minimum salary set in the schedule for the current year. *Miss McSkimmon* seconded the motion. Carried.

After going over the list reducing some proposed increases and increasing some others the report was adopted for recommendation to the Board of Directors and the Secretary was instructed to present it at the afternoon meeting.

Homes for retired teachers.—*Mr. Siders* was next called upon for the report of the subcommittee on Homes for Retired Teachers. He explained the importance of the movement and of having resolutions legally alright and the committee had called to their aid *Attorney Carrington* who had taken the items approved by the committee and put the name in proper legal form. *Mr. Carrington* who was present thereupon read the resolutions and answered questions. The resolutions are printed in the report of the Board of Directors.

Mr. Siders moved the adoption of the resolutions as read by *Attorney Carrington*. Motion seconded by *Mr. Smith*. Carried.

Mr. Siders then moved a vote of thanks for the efficient services of *Mr. Carrington*, the attorney who put the report in legal form. Seconded. Carried. Although *Mr. Carrington* offered to donate his services the committee insisted on paying him a reasonable fee. *Mr. Carrington* finally said he would accept \$50. A motion was then made, seconded, and carried to pay him \$50 for his services.

The chairman then requested *Mr. Siders* to present the report on Homes for Retired Teachers with the endorsement of the Executive Committee and to present also the recommendation for the appropriation of \$50 for *Mr. Carrington*.

Mr. Siders stated that it was necessary for the committee to have more time of the budget before taking up that item and suggested an adjournment to 5 o'clock in the afternoon.

The chairman stated that it was then after 12 o'clock and that the Board of Directors would meet at 1:30. If no objection he said *Mr. Siders'* suggestion of adjourning to 5 o'clock would be accepted. He stated that it was further understood that the Board of Directors would be requested to adjourn in time for the meeting of the Executive Committee and to hold an evening session beginning at 7:30. A motion was made to that effect. Seconded. Carried. Meeting adjourned.

Saturday Afternoon, February 26, 1927

The Executive Committee met at 5 o'clock Saturday afternoon, February 26, 1927, in Room 1305 Adolphus Hotel, Dallas, Texas, after having adjourned at noon to meet at this time and place. All members were present: *Miss McSkimmon, Mr. Smith, Mr. Lamkin, Mr. Siders, and Mr. Blair, chairman.* On calling the meeting to order the chairman announced that the committee would next take up the budget.

The Budget—The chairman called upon *Mr. Siders* to explain the budget needs using the Philadelphia report as a basis. He took it up item by item indicating the amounts to be added for salary increases and for other reasons, and the amounts to be subtracted from certain items. After prolonged discussion the following appropriations for committees were agreed upon tentatively for 1926-27:

Children's Literature	\$50.00
Foreign Relations (Publicity)	500.00
Health Education	400.00
Legislative Commission	4,000.00
Department of Classroom Teachers	7,500.00
Department of Elementary School Principals	2,000.00
Tenure	100.00
Committee on Rural Teacher Problems	100.00
Committee on Retirement Allowances	100.00
Committee on Classroom Teacher Problems	389.50
Behavior-Problem Child	100.00
Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions	1,000.00
Community Relations	50.00
Professional Ethics	800.00
Standard Requirements & Credits for Teachers	62.25
Visual Education	100.00
Reorganization of Departments	100.00
Home for Retired Teachers	500.00
Department of Adult Education	300.00
Editorial Council	50.00
Kindergarten Education	200.00
Colored Schools	200.00
Committee on Committees	100.00
Museums	50.00
Total	\$18,751.75

The following shows the amounts agreed upon for each of the items in the budget for 1926-27:

1. Board of Trustees	\$900.00
2. Board of Directors	11,000.00
2a. Executive Committee	4,200.00
3. Secretary's Office	23,252.00
4. Division of Accounts	7,502.00
5. Legislative Division	15,400.00
6. Division of Business	22,366.00
7. Division of Publications	23,851.58
8. Division of Research	29,490.07
9. Division of Classroom Service	6,470.00
10. Division of Administrative Service	4,620.00
11. Division of Records and Membership	25,048.00
12. Physical Plant	20,786.02
13. General Expense Headquarters	6,673.35

14. Annual Convention	7,024.39
15. Collection of Membership Dues and Membership Campaign.....	35,185.04
16. Journal of the N. E. A.	92,687.66
17. Research Bulletin	6,732.81
18. Financing Delegates	13,000.00
19. Special Appropriations	18,751.75
20. Office Furniture and Fixtures	9,781.12
21. Volume of Proceedings	9,126.46
22. Associations Membership Fees	1,100.00
23. Publications and Reports for General Sale	3,000.00
24. Budget Balancing Funds	
Permanent Fund	9,117.29
Reserve Fund	15,000.00
Emergency and Adjustment Fund	364.20
Total	\$422,429.74

It was then moved by Mr. Lamkin to recommend this budget to the Board of Directors for adoption. Seconded by *Miss McSkimmon*. The question was put and the motion carried by a unanimous vote.

A motion was passed authorizing Messrs. *Siders*, *Smith*, and *Lamkin* to put the report in form. Mr. *Siders* was directed to present it to the Board of Directors at the evening session with the recommendation that it be adopted as the budget for the year.

The question as to whether the Association should pay the expenses of the chairmen of committees who attend meetings of the Association was discussed at length. The sentiment was against the payment of such expenses. No action was taken, but it was thought the question should be given attention at the Seattle meeting.

Retirement Plan for Headquarters Staff—Mr. Lamkin, chairman of the committee on salaries for members of the headquarters staff, was called upon to make a report on a retirement plan for the headquarters staff. He explained that under his instruction Mr. *Norton* had gotten the aid of experts and had prepared for the committee a preliminary report. This report contains the following three plans:

Plan Number One—The Association could establish a system to be administered wholly within its own offices, independent of the service rendered by any agency offering facilities for the setting up of retirement systems. Information gained in preparing this report would indicate this to be an unwise procedure. The objections are many. (This plan was outlined and discussed.)

Plan Number Two—The Association could avail itself of the facilities of the Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America, an institution separately organized, but closely allied through an interlocking directorate, with the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

The Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association was organized in 1918 at the insistence of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and its endowment is based upon the original Andrew Carnegie foundation. (The plan was presented and discussed.)

Plan Number Three—This plan involves the working out of a retirement plan with some regular commercial insurance company. Several insurance companies offer facilities which private organizations are now utilizing for the maintenance of retirement systems. Among these are the following: The Equitable Life Insurance Association, The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, The Travelers Insurance Company, and The Aetna Life Insurance Company.

In deciding upon the particular company with which the Association might deal, the most important criterion is the matter of the willingness of the company to give the type of policies desired by the Association to accomplish the purposes for which the retirement system is being established. All companies will not offer

the same provisions. The one which writes policies of the type most desired should have the preference. The question of cost is also a factor to be considered. This will probably not differ to a significant degree if consideration is confined to the older and better established companies.

Until the Association has actually selected the company with which it is to deal and the actuary of the company has worked over certain data concerning the headquarters staff, it will be impossible to state finally and with exactness all details as to the provisions and cost of a retirement system which might be set up.

After calling attention to the need of a retirement plan, *Mr. Lamkin* suggested that *Mr. Norton* be called upon to explain the proposals, whereupon *Mr. Norton* made explanations and answered questions. It was decided not to attempt at this time to recommend a definite plan, but to place the preliminary report before the Board of Directors with the recommendation that arrangements be made for having definite proposals made by companies ready for final action at the Seattle meeting. The president instructed *Mr. Lamkin*, chairman of the committee, to present the matter to the Board of Directors and to make the recommendation which had been decided upon.

The chairman, *Mr. Blair*, read a list of rules of procedure for the Board of Directors. He asked the Executive Committee for further suggestions.

The motion of *Mr. Siders* to adjourn subject to the call of the chairman was seconded by *Mr. Smith*. Carried. Meeting adjourned.

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, *President*
J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.

Seattle, Washington, July, 1927

Friday Afternoon, July 1, 1927

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Friday afternoon, July 1, 1927, at 3:30 o'clock in President Blair's suite at the Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington. There were present, *Mr. Siders*, *Miss McSkimmon*, *Mr. Lamkin*, and *Mr. Blair*, presiding. *Mr. Smith* was absent. On invitation the following members of the Board of Trustees were present: *Mr. Gwinn*, *Miss Adair*, and *Mr. Finegan*.

The chairman directed the Secretary to distribute copies of the minutes for the meetings of the committee at Chicago, September 27-28, 1926, and at Dallas, February 26, 1927, requesting that they be read before the next meeting. He asked *Mr. Siders* to go over the minutes of the Dallas meeting carefully to see that figures are correct. He asked *Mr. Lamkin* to pay special attention to the minutes of the Chicago meeting.

On account of absence of certain members of the budget committee, action thereon was deferred.

Retirement plan for the staff—*Mr. Lamkin* then presented the Report and Recommendation Concerning Retirement plan for the headquarters staff, stating that the report was submitted to the Executive Committee to be amended and then to serve as a basis for a report to go before the Board of Directors. The following is the report:

Report and Recommendation Concerning Retirement Plan for Headquarters Staff

Proposals received—In accordance with the authorization given at Dallas, proposals have been obtained for the initiation of a retirement plan for the headquarters staff. The following organizations submitted plans:

1. Equitable Life Assurance Society
2. Metropolitan Life Insurance Company
3. The Sun Life Insurance Company of Canada

4. Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America (Carnegie Foundation)

Copies of each proposal submitted are in the hands of the Executive Committee.

Principal features of proposals—The plans submitted follow the general plan of the printed preliminary Dallas report, and provide for:

1. Retirement on life annuity at age 65.
2. Death benefits to employees' dependents when death occurs previous to retirement.
3. Protection against permanent or total disability occurring before age 65.
4. Withdrawal benefits to employees and association in event of leaving service of the Association.

Cost—The plans provide for annual deposits from the employee (the Association), amount to five percent of the present salary roll of permanent employees, which is approximately \$7000, and deductions from the salaries of the employees of five percent to provide a like amount—\$7000.

The total cost therefore is \$14,000, or ten percent of salary roll, of which one half is directly paid by the Association and one half from deductions from salaries.

Recommendations—In moving toward the final selection and initiation of one of the proposals submitted the following steps should be taken:

1. A small committee should be appointed to select one of the four proposals, and authorized to arrange for putting the selected proposal into effect.
2. An appropriation of \$4000 should be included in the budget for the year 1927-28 for the purpose of covering the costs of putting the retirement plan into effect.

This amount will be sufficient since by the time the final arrangements are made, part of the current fiscal year will have elapsed.

Future action—Once the plan is put into effect the annual cost to the Association will be five percent of salary roll, or approximately \$7000 a year. This amount, or such increase as increases in salary roll require, should be included in the budget of each fiscal year. A similar amount will be provided from salary deductions.

It was moved and seconded that the report be adopted by the Executive Committee, and sent to the Board of Directors with the recommendation that it be passed. Discussion. The motion carried.

Salary increases—The matter of recommendations concerning increases in salaries of the central office force was then discussed, followed by the statement by the chairman that the matter would be left for further consideration and discussion between the Secretary and the subcommittee on salaries, to report at the next session.

Secretary to room at headquarters—Mr. Lamkin then moved that the Secretary be housed at conventions at the headquarters hotel, near the President, for convenience in the transaction of the business of the Association. Mr. Siders seconded the motion and advised that it apply to this convention. After discussion the motion was amended, on the suggestion of Mr. Siders, to provide that other members of the staff were not to have rooms at the headquarters hotel. The Secretary was declared to be an officer of the Association. The motion was then put as amended. Carried.

Passing on bills—The chairman then presented for discussion the matter of the President of the Association and the President of the Board of Trustees and the Secretary of the Association having to underwrite and approve bills that have been contracted within the department.

A discussion followed, involving the revolving fund, the current fund, and the permanent fund, the chairman expressing the view that the revolving fund could be done away with.

Mr. Lamkin then suggested that in place of the revolving fund one warrant be

drawn to the Secretary in a lump sum and that he pay out of said fund the balance, if any, to be returned to the Association's current fund.

The chairman stated that the suggestion ought to have consideration. No action was taken further than an understanding that the Secretary would get expert advice on the question.

Mr. Lamkin then introduced the matter of payment of traveling expenses of delegates out of the Association funds, suggesting that a flat rate of so much a day be allowed.

Mr. Siders thought definite action should be taken by the Board of Directors concerning their own expenses and those of departments.

The chairman expressed the hope that a committee would look into the matter and see whether it is possible, under the Charter, for the departments to have control of what might be called a sort of a contingent fund and pay all the current bills of that department out of it, and simply report back to the Secretary of the Association so it will be a matter of record, and then return into the current fund only the balance that is on hand.

Further discussion.

Rules for board of directors—The chairman then presented and read the following Rules of the Board of Directors.

Each rule as read separately was unanimously adopted. Said rules are numbered from one to ten, as follows:

RULES OF BOARD OF DIRECTORS

1. The minutes of every meeting shall record the names of Directors present and states represented.
2. Only *bona fide* vacancies can be filled by the Board. Mere absence of a member from a meeting does not create a vacancy.
3. All portions of reports or resolutions which call for definite action or appropriations shall be made a part of the minutes with the action taken thereon.
4. The Board may refer any requests coming before it to the Executive Committee for investigation and report; may refer any plan or policy upon which it has taken definite action to the Executive Committee with power to administer or carry into effect. All actions taken by the Executive Committee under such reference to be reported back for record.
5. Before approving the budget for the current year the Board of Directors shall have a statement from the Board of Trustees that such budget comes within the available funds. The approval of such budget by the Board of Directors is not an appropriation, but when approved such budget shall become a part of the minutes.
6. In making appropriations for the current year the Board of Directors shall be guided by the budget as approved and by the report of the Board of Trustees on the amount of funds available to meet such appropriations.
7. In making appropriations for special committees the Board of Directors shall be guided by the recommendations of the Executive Committee as approved by the Representative Assembly.
8. All bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors shall be signed and presented to the Board of Trustees by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors.
9. The new members of the Council, Board of Trustees, and Executive Committee shall be elected at the first regular meeting of the Board of Directors.
10. The Board of Directors shall empower the Executive Committee to investigate in advance of each annual meeting the accommodations by the various cities asking for the next annual meeting. The Secretary of the Association and his staff shall assist the Executive Committee in making such investigations. Any selection shall not be final until approved by the President of the Association.

Mr. Lamkin offered the following addition to said Rules of Board of Directors:

"All appropriations shall be made in the following language: There is hereby appropriated out of the current funds of the Association, not otherwise appropri-

ated, the sum of dollars, for, provided that in the judgment of the Board of Trustees so much is available for such purpose."

Discussion. Action postponed to next meeting.

Adjournment was then had until the hour of 8 o'clock in the evening.

Friday Evening, July 1, 1927

An adjourned meeting of the Executive Committee was held in the President's suite at the Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington, Friday evening, July 1, 1927, at 8 o'clock, there being present: *W. R. Siders, Mary McSkimmon, Uel W. Lamkin, Henry Lester Smith, and F. G. Blair*, presiding. The following members of the Board of Trustees were present on invitation: *Thomas E. Finegan, J. M. Gwinn, and Cornelia S. Adair*.

The additional Rule of Board of Directors, No. 11, submitted by *Mr. Lamkin*, was then further discussed. It was approved as follows:

"All appropriations shall be made in the following language: There is hereby appropriated out of the current funds of the Association, not otherwise appropriated, the sum of dollars, for, provided that in the judgment of the Board of Trustees so much is available for such purpose." (The rules are a part of the minutes of the last session.)

Revision of Accounts—Discussion was then had upon the form of voucher to be used in making payments, and *Mr. Lamkin* suggested that it would be of advantage to officers for the voucher to show the amount appropriated, the amount before the voucher was drawn and the balance after the voucher is paid remaining in the fund. At this point the Secretary read a letter from the expert accountants making a number of suggestions as to changes in the system of accounts.

Dr. Finegan thought action should be taken on these recommendations. He suggested that a committee be appointed with power to act, consisting of a member of the Board of Trustees, the President elect, the Treasurer elect, and the Secretary, to be authorized to employ an accountant for the purpose of classifying the accounts and making such other adjustments as the committee considers necessary. On request he made a motion to that effect. Seconded. It was explained that this committee would make arrangements to make payments out of the contingent fund. Discussion. Carried.

After discussion it was decided that the committee was duly authorized to make necessary changes and since the action did not affect policies or appropriations the changes could be made immediately.

The chairman named *Dr. Finegan*, chairman of the committee, stating that the other members would be, the Treasurer elect, the President elect, and the Secretary. He advised the chairman to arrange for a meeting of the committee in July or August.

Mr. Siders and others spoke of the importance of looking after these matters early.

Delegates Expenses—The secretary stated that it is necessary now to make funds available for the payment of delegates' expenses. He presented the usual plan of arranging so that *Mrs. Hixson* could draw the checks on the \$20,000. The chairman asked why we should authorize a check made out to *Mrs. Hixson*. He thought the check should be made out to the Secretary of the Association and that he should be responsible for making out the checks to delegates. He considered the Secretary the responsible one and that *Mrs. Hixson* was really an agent under him.

Dr. Finegan thought it bad practice to do it in another way than through the Secretary.

Mr. Lamkin urged that the \$20,000 check be made to the Secretary and that he sign the checks for delegates. The responsibility of paying out funds should not get out of the hands of the officers of the Association.

The Secretary was then directed to change the voucher to put the \$20,000 into his hands instead of *Mrs. Hixson's* hands for checking purposes, whereupon the voucher was duly signed by the proper official.

The Chairman then stated that the Executive Committee should be instructed by the Board of Directors, to maintain a close relationship between the Executive Committee and the central office. There should be frequent visitations by the Executive Committee to the central office. (Discussion.)

A discussion was then had concerning the time spent in the field by a member of the staff and its effect on the work in the division. The view was expressed that contacts in the field were valuable and necessary, but that the work of the division would suffer from neglect if he should devote too much time to lecturing. The Secretary gave assurance that a proper balance would be maintained without action being taken.

Salaries—*Mr. Lamkin*, chairman of the subcommittee on salaries, reported as follows: *Mr. Crabtree* and the heads of divisions made recommendations to this committee to allow increases beyond the schedule, but we have decided to recommend that the Executive Committee ask the committee on the budget to include enough for the headquarters staff to pay the schedule, plus the increases that were adopted at the Dallas meeting, and we are recommending that increases in addition to that be not allowed. While some of these increases are deserved, we believe that schedule increases ought to be satisfactory especially in view of the fact that the retirement plan is recommended to the Board of Directors. We would not risk asking more now of the Board of Directors than the retirement plan and the regular schedule of increases. We promised *Mr. Crabtree* to hear any head of division who would appear here this evening. I move the adoption of the report. Seconded. *Mr. Siders* doubted the wisdom of opening the question up to directors of divisions. He thought that action should be taken and the office force told about it. After further discussion the chairman stated that he was ready to act, but if there is any desire on the part of the committee to hear from the heads of divisions, he would be willing to defer the vote until later in the evening.

But the Secretary stated he thought the vote could be taken now. He had notified heads of divisions to be here who desired to be heard and none had come. Some had sent word that they did not desire to add to their written statements. He said that while some felt strongly the need of certain increases, they would not want to be too insistent. He did not think any of them would come unless specially requested to do so by himself or the committee.

The chairman then put the motion to approve the recommendation of the subcommittee, that only schedule increases be allowed on salaries and that we ask the Board of Directors to appropriate the full amount for salaries and wages called for by the schedule as adopted at Dallas.

The Secretary expressed complete satisfaction with the action of the committee. He felt all the office force would see the wisdom of the course followed by the committee. He appreciated personally the careful attention given to staff problems, and he would say in advance that every member would join in this expression.

The chairman felt that these headquarters matters were among the important things to be considered and that he was pleased that they received the most thoughtful and sincere attention of the committee. He thanked the subcommittee for its work. There being no further business a motion was made to adjourn. Seconded. Carried.

Friday Afternoon, July 8, 1927

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held in the Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington, Friday afternoon, July 8, 1927, at 4:30 o'clock immediately following the meeting of the Board of Directors. The following members were present:

Mr. Blair, Mr. Reynolds, Mr. Siders, Mr. Smith and Miss Adair, President. Mr. Gwinn and Mr. Finegan of the Board of Trustees were present on invitation.

Location of 1928 meeting—The Chairman, *Miss Adair*, stated that if satisfactory to members of the committee in order to accommodate representatives of Minneapolis who were present the matter of locating the next meeting would next be considered. Hearing no objection *Superintendent Webster* and a Representative of the Chamber of Commerce were called upon and extended the invitation for the next meeting to be held in Minneapolis, agreeing to carry out the usual requirements.

Mr. Blair explained that knowing that Minneapolis was being favorably considered and that the invitation was to be extended and in order to facilitate matters he had asked *Mr. Allan* of the headquarters staff to make a careful survey of the situation in Minneapolis and to be ready to report at this meeting. *Mr. Allan* was then called upon for his report. He made clear that the city could provide ample meeting places, and exhibit space and that it had hotel facilities to care for the convention. He stated that the city had agreed to comply with the usual specifications. *Superintendent Webster* gave full assurance that all requirements and more than that would be met by Minneapolis.

A motion was then made by *Mr. Blair* to approve of Minneapolis as the place of meeting for the next annual convention and to authorize the President to close the matter up at her discretion provided details are met. Seconded. After discussion, carried. It was explained that the business manager is directed to make arrangements and prepare the contract for the signature of the officers of the Committee, the President and Secretary. *Mr. Allan* was directed to look after this matter immediately.

Salaries headquarter's staff—The Chairman stated that the Board of Directors had left certain matters to the Executive Committee. Among these she said was the question of salaries for members of the headquarters staff. It was suggested by *Mr. Blair* that the regular schedule increases having been tentatively decided upon only changes from this schedule need to be considered by the Committee at this time, whereupon the Secretary recommended that *Mr. Hawley's* increase be \$100 instead of the \$68 allowed by the schedule. *Mr. Gwinn* stated that he did not think it good business to recommend a salary not in conformity with the schedule. Others took the same view. The Secretary said that he realized that we ought to hold to the previous understanding and that he would recommend only this one change because of commitments. He regretted to do this without doing the same for others equally deserving. He mentioned the case of *Miss Saunders* as one of them. He stated that *Mr. Hawley* was an efficient worker and filled an important place in the work of the division. He recommended the increase in salary but did not recommend a change in classification.

Mr. Blair then moved that *Mr. Hawley's* increase be \$100 instead of \$68 and that the schedule increases in all other cases be allowed as shown on the prepared schedule. Seconded. It was explained that the schedule as presented had been gone over carefully. After discussion the motion was passed by a unanimous vote. The Chairman declared the schedule adopted with this one change. It was explained that the salaries of the temporary help would be adjusted by the Secretary as during previous years.

Borrowing funds—The Secretary asked the privilege of recording the passage of the usual motion for borrowing funds. He thought it would be necessary to borrow to tide over this vacation. There being no objection the privilege was granted.

Expenses—After remarks by *Mr. Siders* a discussion was had on expenses and the bills to be passed upon by the President. *Mr. Blair* moved that no funds appropriated by the Board of Directors should be used in paying for dinners or banquets unless authorized by the President and Secretary of the Association. Seconded. Discussion. Carried.

A motion was made not to pay to committee chairmen traveling and other personal expenses out of the allowances to committees unless the approval of the President and Secretary had been secured in advance. Seconded. In the discussion the committee took the view that the funds appropriated to committees are for stamps, stationery and for research purposes, but that instances would likely arise where traveling expenses should be allowed. The motion was voted upon and carried. The Secretary was requested to give due notice.

A motion was made by *Mr. Blair* that members of the headquarters staff shall render separate vouchers for expenses at conventions. Seconded. Carried.

A motion was made by *Mr. Siders* that a per diem of \$4.50 a day be allowed for meals on trains and at hotels for those whose expenses are paid by the Association at Conventions or at special meetings and that such items as laundry and valet service be not allowed. Seconded. Carried. It was explained that this would apply at hotels where rooms are provided. It was thought there should be a limit of \$4 a day for rooms. Other points were discussed. *Mr. Siders* and the Secretary were directed to prepare regulations satisfactory to the President pertaining to expenses in harmony with the discussion to be in effect until the Committee of the Board of Directors reports next year.

Stenographic service for president—A motion was made that the President be provided with stenographic service. It was explained that an item of \$2000 had been placed in the budget for that purpose. Seconded and carried.

Date next meeting—*Mr. Smith* moved that the date for the next annual convention be set for the first week in July beginning Monday, July 2, 1928. Seconded. Carried.

A motion to adjourn was seconded. Carried.

CORNELIA S. ADAIR, *President*.
J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS MEETINGS

Dallas, Texas, Saturday Afternoon, February 26, 1927

President Blair: The Secretary will call the roll.

Mr. Crabtree: (Calls the roll.) The following responded as their names were called: Alabama, *J. D. Williams*; California, *Anna G. Fraser*; Colorado, *W. B. Mooney*, *Jesse H. Newlon*, *Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford*; Connecticut, *John A. Young*; District of Columbia, *Harry English*, *J. W. Crabtree*, *Miss Charl Williams*; Georgia, *Fort E. Land*; Idaho, *Walter R. Siders*; Illinois, *A. L. Whittenberg*, *Francis G. Blair*, *Robert C. Moore*; Indiana, *Martha Whitacre*, *H. L. Smith*, *Robert J. Aley*; Kansas, *N. E. Pearson*; Kentucky, *R. E. Williams*; Louisiana, *Loretta R. Doerr*; Maryland, *William Burdick*; Massachusetts, *Annie C. Woodward*, *Mary McSkimmon*; Minnesota, *Effie MacGregor*; Missouri, *T. J. Walker*; Montana, *R. J. Cunningham*; Nebraska, *M. C. Lefler*; New Mexico, *Isabel L. Eckles*; New York, *Olive M. Jones*, *George D. Strayer*; North Dakota, *Minnie J. Nielson*; Ohio, *R. J. Kiefer*, *O. T. Corson*; Oklahoma, *C. K. Reiff*, *P. P. Claxton*; Oregon, *Mrs. Susanne Homes Carter*; Pennsylvania, *Charles E. Dickey*; South Carolina, *George W. Wannamaker*; South Dakota, *N. E. Steele*; Tennessee, *S. L. Smith*; Texas, *J. O. Webb*; Virginia, *Joseph H. Saunders*; Washington, *T. R. Cole*; West Virginia, *J. H. Hickman*; Wisconsin, *E. G. Doudna*, *C. G. Pearse*; Wyoming, *A. A. Slade*.

President Blair: We have a quorum. More than twenty-five states are represented. In the call for this special meeting the purpose of the meeting was set forth. There are some matters that the Executive Committee was unwilling to take the responsibility for performing, and this meeting of the Board of Directors is called in special session to consider these matters. The first to come before this meeting is one that a subcommittee has spent a great deal of time on—that of working out a schedule of salaries. At the meeting of the Executive Committee this morning that schedule was gone over with a great deal of care, and it was

approved, and *Mr. Lamkin* of the Executive Committee has been delegated to make a presentation of the scale of salaries. I shall call on *Mr. Lamkin* now.

Mr. Lamkin: I have no desire to keep you from reading all of this, I hope you will, but if you will let me guide you, I think we can expedite it at this time. At Chicago one of the first matters to come before the Executive Committee was the adjustment of salaries in the central office. *President Blair* appointed *Miss McSkimmon*, *Mr. Siders*, and myself a committee to draft for the Board of Directors a statement of the position of the Executive Committee together with recommendations. I think it is the eighth page. This subcommittee was of the opinion that good administration would demand that the Board of Directors appropriate a lump sum for the salaries of the central office at Washington. The next thing was that they should fix a minimum salary, a maximum, and a rate of increase per annum. Our next step was to ask the advice of an attorney as to whether that would be in compliance with our Bylaws. We were assured as you observe that such a plan is legal.

(*Mr. Lamkin* then read the "Recommended Salary Schedule.")

Mr. Lamkin: Now, on the basis of that plan, we are recommending to you what you will find on the third page as a salary classification schedule for the persons employed by the National Education Association. It is divided into four divisions, as you will see on page three. In the first place, we took the amended plan based on the experience of our own staff and made by Secretary Crabtree who classified our employees in the Washington office. We then went to the United States Bureau of Efficiency and got the Bureau of Efficiency, through its chief, Herbert D. Brown, to come over and make suggestions. You will find the results of the personnel classification on page three. The Executive Committee is not recommending to you either one of those. They are recommending a third plan. (This plan was then discussed in detail.)

Mr. Lamkin: We are going to ask that this Board of Directors adopt this schedule of salaries, and, in the second place, that you designate it as a guide for the Executive Committee. I shall be very glad to answer any inquiries you have to make.

Mr. Saunders: You give "Head Stenographers" much less than you give "Stenographers." Oughtn't that be changed?

Mr. Lamkins: I think not.

Voice: Yes, there it is there.

Mr. Lamkin: Well, cut out the word "Head." We will make that change.

Mr. Blair: If there is no objection, that language can be changed there. I might say in supplement to this report that no one will be appointed in the central office except upon the recommendation of the Secretary or upon the recommendation of the division head with the Secretary giving official approval. That is and should be a rule of procedure. You have before you now the recommendation of this Committee of a salary schedule covering the central office at Washington. If this salary schedule is adopted it does not become retroactive, but it covers the year that will begin July 1, 1927, that is, there will be appropriations made by the Board of Directors, the new Board for that year, under this salary schedule, and when you hear the next report on the salaries for this year you will find that we tried to make that as nearly as possible conform to this schedule which we are presenting and which we hope you will adopt.

Dr. Strayer: I move the adoption of the salary schedule as presented to the Board of Directors.

Mr. Newlon: I second the motion.

Mr. Chairman: It is moved and seconded that this salary schedule be adopted, and personally I want to say that we are under great obligation to *Miss McSkimmon*, *Mr. Lamkin*, and those at the central office for working out this fine salary schedule.

Mr. Reiff: Mr. Chairman, I want to agree with the gentleman that raised the

question awhile ago that under this schedule you are paying a person of superior responsibility less than you are giving one of less responsibility.

Mr. Chairman: I will have Mr. Crabtree make a statement on that.

Mr. Crabtree: These two classes are a good deal the same. One is for excellent clerks and stenographers with office responsibility and the other for the most expert workers, those who do not dissipate their skill in numerous other responsibilities.

Dr. Strayer: My friend, Mr. Saunders, made a very good suggestion, but I feel that as members of the Board of Directors we ought to approve this schedule in principle, recognizing the fact that the Secretary and his associates and the Executive Committee have gone into it in detail, and that is what they are employed for, and I think we ought to take their judgment. If it doesn't work out, it can be changed at any time. I feel we ought to take the judgment of the Executive Committee and the Secretary, because that is what they are for.

Mr. Saunders: Mr. President, in view of those statements I am perfectly willing to withdraw the objection, but it does seem to me that it is not exactly consistent in the scale as offered if you say the duties of these two people are practically the same, and one has office responsibility and his salary is lower than one that has no office responsibility. However, in view of the statement that this thing can be changed at Seattle, and, if it doesn't work, you will do that, I am perfectly willing to withdraw my objection.

Mr. Lamkin: I think there will be no objection on the part of the Executive Committee to making that \$1320 and \$2320.

Mr. Blair: This has been gone over with great care and it is so easy to change it and get into trouble. (There was further discussion.)

Chairman: I want to say that I don't know how it is with the rest of you Directors, but I can spend the whole week here. There's no desire on the part of the Executive Committee to hasten this report through. I say to you, challenge every part of it. We want it right. We want it satisfactory. Not having had anything to do with it myself and coming to it this morning I was deeply impressed with the fine work that had been done. That does not mean that it is perfect, and I want you to take all the time you desire to consider it.

Voice: Mr. Newlon asked Mr. Lamkin if the Executive Committee saw fit if it couldn't employ at salaries higher than these basic salaries. He answered that it could do so. Now, I want to know if the Executive Committee can exceed the maximum here, if that's part of the recommendation?

President Blair: I can state what occurred before the Executive Committee this morning. These maximums are placed there. Now, if some person during the year who makes a staff member an offer that we want to meet, it could only be upon the recommendation of the Secretary that such action would be taken. We have now in this schedule before us the situation where some of the best employees in the central office are being sought by others.

Voice: The Executive Committee would have that authority to go beyond the maximum?

Chairman: Yes, but only in a case of merit, for the whole scheme is to serve as a guide only. Still it would only be done in an emergency.

Voice: Mr. Chairman, how much is it estimated that this proposed schedule will increase the annual budget?

Chairman: I will ask Mr. Crabtree on that. How much is the increase?

Mr. Crabtree: Something like \$8000, I think; between \$8000 and \$9000. Mr. Siders is making the computation.

Mr. Siders: We didn't get time, Mr. Chairman, to finish the computation on that, but it doesn't work out very much more than the amount of money that was appropriated for increase of salaries last summer.

President Blair: I can say this schedule doesn't become operative until the 1st of next July, and the appropriation to cover this schedule will be made by the

new Board of Directors at Seattle, but your question is a very proper one. We have made increases that will reach somewhere between \$6000 and \$8000.

Mr. Siders: We appreciate that this is all going to be taken up at a deferred meeting in which we can get exact amounts, but it looks as though we will have \$7000 left.

President Blair: When this was presented to me I felt that the money to be distributed should be distributed to the people lower down in the scale, and in the next report you will see that the Executive Committee has taken care of that. The motion before you now is as to whether you adopt this schedule or not.

Mr. Crabtree: The motion carries with it minimum and maximum qualifications and duties.

Voice: Question.

Chairman: All in favor of the motion will let it be known by saying "aye." The motion is carried unanimously.

Personnel Classification for the Headquarters Staff as Recommended by the Executive Committee and Adopted by the Board of Directors, February 26, 1927

		Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
1. Directors of Divisions				
A. Directors of business, administrative and creative divisions.				
Basic	per year	\$5500	\$5500	\$5000
Maximum	per year	7500	7500	7500
Annual Increase		500	500	250
B. Directors of other divisions and the chief assistant to the Secretary.				
Basic	per year	3300	3000	2500
Maximum	per year	4500	4200	4500
Annual Increase		300	240	200
2. Assistants to Directors—Large Divisions				
A. Assistants to directors in (A) group 1 and chiefs of important sections with directive and administrative responsibilities.				
Basic	per year	2400	2100	1800
Maximum	per year	3300	3000	3000
Annual Increase		150	156	120
B. Principal clerks and stenographers with clerical and office responsibility.				
Basic	per year	1800	1644	1250
Maximum	per year	2400	2400	2250
Annual Increase		100	108	100
3. Clerks and Stenographers on the Permanent Roll.				
A. Clerks and stenographers experienced and expert in their work.				
Basic	per year	1500	1356	1320
Maximum	per year	1860	1860	2000
Annual Increase		60	84	68

B. Clerks, stenographers, expert typists,
and assistants in divisions.

Basic	per year	1200	1140	1200
Maximum	per year	1500	1500	1800
Annual Increase		60	72	60

No one on permanent roll to receive less than \$1200.

4. Unclassified Service—Clerks and Other Help on Temporary Roll.

A. Clerks, stenographers, typists, and
other help on temporary basis.

Basic per week, \$15 and above.

NOTE:

Column 1—Recommended by U. S. Bureau of Efficiency after careful investigation.

Column 2—The modifications of *Column 1* to meet present conditions—the Secretary's proposal.

Column 3—As filled in by the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors. *Column 3* was formally adopted.

Headquarters Staff—National Education Association

Classification—Duties—Qualifications

1. Directors of Divisions (administrative).

A. Heads of business, administrative, and creative divisions.

a. Duties: To serve as director of a large force in highly administrative and creative divisions; to deal with state and national agencies in the field of the special division.

b. Minimum Qualifications: Training equivalent to that represented by a degree from an institution of recognized standing; three years' graduate study or equivalent practical experience; scientific maturity and administrative ability with not less than two years' experience in administrative work. In scholarship to possess the general qualifications and abilities comparable with deputy and assistant superintendents in the largest cities.

B. Heads of smaller divisions and the chief assistant to the Secretary.

a. Duties: To direct the work of the division and to deal with state and national agencies within the particular field of the division.

b. Minimum Qualifications: Training equivalent to that represented by a degree from a teachers college of recognized standing; one year in practical experience; managing ability and general qualifications should be comparable with that of supervisors ranking next to deputy and associate superintendents in the largest city school systems.

2. Assistant to directors and section chiefs.

A. Assistants to Directors in 1A.

a. Duties: To assist the director in the management and administration of the division; to supervise creative or technical work under the direction of the head of the division of not less than five members of the staff; to be responsible to the director for the efficient performance of the work of the division, or to do important technical work on own responsibility.

b. Minimum Qualifications: Training equivalent to graduation from a recognized teachers college or technical college, with one year special study in a field related to the work in the division or the equivalent in practical experience; a pleasing personality and the ability to deal with educational leaders and with the representatives of educational agencies under the general direction of the chief, and in some cases marked ability to do work of a highly technical character largely on own responsibility.

Should have qualifications on a par with high school teachers in the largest cities. In the strictly business divisions the chiefs of sections substitute in part successful organizing or managing experience for scholastic requirements.

B. Principal clerks with group, office, or technical responsibility

- a. Duties: To perform important and responsible office work in a division of not less than three members of the staff; or to do work of a technical and scholarly type with less responsibility for the work of others. This work is performed under general direction of the director or assistants and involves little or no responsibility for the determination of policy.
- b. Minimum Qualifications: Training equivalent to that represented by graduation from a recognized teachers college or technical college or equivalent in education training and practical experience; should have qualifications on a par with those of teachers in the grades and high schools in the largest cities. Special knowledge or supervisory ability as required, and in some cases, ability to do work of a strictly technical character under general supervision.

3. Clerks, stenographers, and other expert help.

A. Clerks, stenographers, and assistants in technical lines expert in their work whose duties require less managing ability than those described in 2B.

- a. Duties: To perform under more or less direct supervision general clerical, stenographic, and technical duties arising in the division.
- b. Minimum Qualifications: High school education with an additional year in college or technical work or equivalent knowledge and practical training; two or more years of experience in office work; ability to take in shorthand at a moderate speed and to compose letters without dictation; for equal ability for handling the technical work required; general qualifications comparable with those of clerks performing similar duties in the offices of superintendents of schools in the largest cities or in departments of research in colleges.

B. General Clerks and other Assistants:

- a. Duties: To perform the clerical work of the office, under direct supervision.
- b. Minimum qualifications: High school education or equivalent knowledge and practical experience; special clerical or business training for one year or equivalent experience; must have had at least one year's experience; general qualifications comparable with those of clerks performing similar duties in the offices of principals of schools in the largest cities.

4. Unclassified Service: Clerks, Stenographers, Typists, Folders, Operators and Other Temporary Help.

- a. Duties: To serve as assistants on a temporary basis under the direction of division heads, first assistant, or under section chiefs in the various working groups of the Association.
- b. Qualifications: The equivalent of a high school or business college education; sufficient training and experience to begin the particular work to which assigned with a degree of success; must show promise of development and must possess a satisfactory personality.

The permanent assistants are drawn largely from this group. It serves as a training school for the division help. Many of the efficient assistants in divisions have had this preliminary training. Only the most promising receive promotions.

The training prepares for places in the government so that those who do well may aspire to government positions when openings do not occur in permanent staff. The fact that these young people can have the endorsement of the National Education Association enhances their chances for securing excellent positions. This produces a fine working spirit even in the most arduous and routine sections. It guarantees speed, skill, and efficiency in the permanent positions in the staff.

Salary Regulations

1. The general plan is for the Board of Directors to make: (1) The appropriations for salaries of members of the headquarters staff in a lump sum, leaving the distribution of the same to the Executive Committee, and (2) To adopt a scheme of personnel classification showing basic and maximum salaries.

2. The basic and maximum salary schedule is to serve as a guide to the Executive Committee in fixing salaries and in determining salary increases. The annual increase as shown in the schedule is to serve not as requirement or rule but as a suggestion. In cases of exceptional merit the increase may be much larger than that shown in the schedule or for valid reasons the annual increase may be reduced. In a particular year the whole schedule of increases may be reduced owing to income conditions.

3. The Executive Committee has the power to change the classification of any employee at any time after the adoption of the schedule.

4. The Secretary shall prepare a statement when desired by the Executive Committee giving names of members of the staff showing present salaries, salary increases, and the salaries recommended for the following year. In cases where the increases are above or below the schedule increases the reasons for the variations must be given.

5. Changes in the classification of members of the staff shall be by vote of the Executive Committee. Permanent members can only be elected by a vote of the Committee. The Secretary may make temporary appointments to fill vacancies and to meet emergency needs between meetings on the advice of the Executive Committee. The Secretary cannot make changes in the classification of the members of the staff.

6. The Secretary shall employ the temporary help and all unclassified service under the general direction of the Executive Committee reporting the names and weekly salaries as requested but at least once each year for approval.

Chairman: The next thing will be a report by the Secretary on the recommendations of the Executive Committee on salaries in the central office for the present year.

Mr. Crabtree: This report of the Secretary has been changed a good deal by the Executive Committee to fit into the schedule which you have just adopted. I am sorry that we do not have this report in duplicate form. We didn't have time since it was completed. The Executive Committee completed the report 20 minutes ago. I can hardly conceive of your wanting to consider the schedule name by name, but there is no other way since we have only our working copies to which to refer.

Chairman: Have you copies?

Mr. Crabtree: No, I haven't; that's the unfortunate part. The executive Committee completed the report less than an hour ago. I think it would be more satisfactory if we could put copies of the schedule into your hands. But we do not have them. I have here the list of names by divisions.

Chairman: I think, Mr. Secretary, that we couldn't spend the time more profitably than to go down the list and just speak the names out. There are people here that don't know the names of the people at the central office and I suggest that you go down the list and call the names and amounts of increases that have been recommended.

Mr. Crabtree: I shall go down the list if agreeable making explanations.

(Mr. Crabtree reads the report and makes explanations.)

Mr. Crabtree: Those are the names of all the members of the permanent staff and those recommended for it.

Miss Jones: Mr. Chairman, I see that some of the people are leaving, and I move that when this meeting adjourns it adjourn to meet at 7:30 tonight in Room 4 of this Hotel.

Mr. Chairman: You hear the motion that when we do adjourn this afternoon—and I hope no one will leave without absolute necessity—that when we do, we adjourn to meet in Room 4 of this Hotel.

Voice: I second the motion.

Chairman: It is moved and seconded that when we adjourn, we adjourn to meet at 7:30 tonight in Room 4 of this Hotel. All in favor of the motion will say "aye." The motion is carried.

I want to correct one statement raised by a gentleman over here. It was a blunder on my part. He wanted to know if the Executive Committee had authority to exceed the maximum recommended, and my answer was that if it was necessary they could. I made a very stupid blunder there.

Voice: Thank you. I was wondering what was the necessity for the schedule.

President Blair: It was my blunder. The maximums ought not be exceeded. After adopting the salary schedule and making the lump appropriation to cover all salaries the Board of Directors may ask the Executive Committee to distribute it within the fixed schedule.

Voice: Since the matter has already been gone into by the Executive Committee, I move that the schedule as read by the Secretary be adopted.

Voice: I second the motion.

Voice: What about the Secretary's salary?

Mr. Crabtree: The Board of Trustees have to do with the Secretary and not the Board of Directors or Executive Committee. My salary is now \$9000.

Mr. Reiff: You ought to have at least \$10,000.

Voice: It seems to me that the Secretary of the National Education Association ought to receive much more money than that. It ought to be \$12,000.

Voice: I see that the Secretary of the Pennsylvania Education Association has been recently reelected at a salary of \$10,000. I shouldn't think this Association should pay its Secretary less.

Miss Jones: Mr. Chairman, I move that the Board of Directors recommend that to the Board of Trustees. I am sure the Board of Directors has no power to raise the salary, but it can recommend that to the Board of Trustees, and I move that the Board of Directors recommend to the Board of Trustees that the salary of the Secretary be fixed at \$10,000.

Mr. Reiff: I second the motion.

President Blair: I want to say to Mr. Crabtree that we really couldn't express in money our appreciation of his services—(applause.)

Voice: I fully concur, Mr. Chairman, that the Secretary should have the \$10,000. However, it is not the function of the Board of Directors to fix that salary. The Constitution and Bylaws definitely state that the Board of Trustees shall do that. However, this Board of Directors can appropriate the salary, and I think we ought to appropriate \$10,000 so that they can fix his salary at \$10,000 or above that figure.

Chairman: The Board of Trustees fixes the Secretary's salary.

Voice: He will get it, Mr. Chairman, if we appropriate it.

Chairman: Yes. The motion is that this schedule of salaries for the present year, beginning July 1, 1926, and ending June 30, 1927, shall be approved as presented to us by the Secretary, with the addition of his own name—

Voice: And the money appropriated to carry that salary. We wish to be certain of that.

Chairman: When we approve this we appropriate that money.

Voice: I want it definitely stated that we appropriate that money, appropriate a sum of money to pay that salary. It ought to be more than that.

Chairman: Yes.

Voice: That's what I wish to add to the motion.

Chairman: The motion is that these salaries shall be fixed and that the schedule is hereby approved and appropriation of that money made. All in favor of the motion will say "aye."

VOICES: Aye.

Chairman: The motion is carried unanimously.

Voice: I have a little difference of opinion about the salary of the Secretary. We all think that the Board of Trustees fixes that salary; we have made an appropriation to cover it, but we have not made a recommendation that the Board of Trustees fix the salary of the Secretary to that.

Mr. Rieff: Mr. Chairman, that was *Miss Jones'* motion, seconded by myself.

President Blair: It is moved and seconded that we recommend to the Board of Trustees that they pay *Mr. Crabtree* the money which we have just voted to him. All in favor of that say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

Chairman: The motion is carried.

Voice: Mr. Chairman, wouldn't a speech be in order?

(Secretary bows but makes no speech.)

President Blair: No, it's just as I thought, he refuses to make a speech until the Board of Trustees has paid him the money. (Applause.)

Miss Jones: Mr. Chairman, let it be noted that the girls aren't the only ones that can blush. (Applause.)

President Blair: Now, gentlemen, another matter of large importance that came before the Board of Directors at Chicago was the matter of Homes for Retired Teachers. It captured our hearts entirely and completely, but the question came up of formulating a plan as to how the moneys might be collected and disbursed and at Chicago I appointed a subcommittee of *Mr. Siders*, *Dean Smith*, and *Miss McSkimmon* to make a study of the whole question of Homes for Retired Teachers and to make a report to the Board of Directors at this time. I shall now call upon *Mr. Siders* to make that report for the Executive Committee.

Mr. Siders: This Committee, having formulated a plan of what they thought should be done in the way of authorizing the collection of money and the acceptance of gifts and determining who should handle it and how it should be administered, thought it wise to consult an attorney to see if this was drawn up in accordance with the Charter and Bylaws, and that's the reason it is in legal phraseology. We thought that we should accept only unconditional gifts, bequests, and devises of money or real property to establish homes, for buying lands, or building thereon, or buying furniture or equipment, or that the money might be accepted for endowments, or moneys might be accepted for maintenance, or moneys might be accepted which could be used in part for the maintenance of institutions of state or some other institution might in part be maintained. The Board of Trustees is the body in whose hands the bequeaths or gifts go and they safeguard the funds, just as they do the general funds. The question came up as to who should administer these funds or these grants or trusts, and the attorney held that if the Board of Trustees are the ones into whose charge it is given, they are the ones who must be responsible for the disbursement of this money. One more point: The Board of Trustees didn't want, and I don't believe the Board of Directors want, to have charge of the teachers' homes, that is, the direct management of them all over the country, so it was thought that the Board of Trustees should be authorized to incorporate these institutions under the laws of some state, not necessarily the one in which the home is, because the incorporation might not be suitable, but to be incorporated in accordance with the laws of some state, and have a board of managers, which board of managers are to be governed by the Articles of Incorporation, and the Board of Trustees of the National Education Association would have the right, if those Articles of Incorporation are violated, or if the institution should cease to be used for the purpose for which

it was designated, to take back this property and put it into the Homes for Retired Teachers. With that explanation, I will read this Resolution.

(*Mr. Siders* then read the resolution down to and including,

"To be known as the Olive M. Jones Fund for Homes for Retired Teachers."

The substance of the Attorney's opinion is in *Mr. Siders'* statement.)

Mr. Siders: They say that a rose to the living is more than sumptuous wreaths to the dead. (Applause.) Miss Jones undoubtedly deserves this honor, having originated and furthered this idea. The following is the resolution prepared by the Board of Trustees:

IT IS HEREBY RESOLVED by the Board of Directors of National Education Association of the United States, that:

The National Education Association of the United States does hereby establish a trust fund to be known as *The Olive M. Jones Fund for Homes for Retired Teachers*, and does hereby authorize its Board of Trustees in its discretion to accept unconditional gifts, bequests and devises of any real or personal estate in trust for any one or all of the following purposes:

1. The establishment of homes for retired teachers and the purchase of land, buildings, or equipment therefor.
2. The building, furnishing, and equipping of homes for retired teachers.
3. The endowment of homes for retired teachers.
4. The maintenance, in whole or in part, of homes for retired teachers, including all or any expenses of supervision, management, operation, upkeep, repair, and improvement.

The Board of Trustees is further authorized in its discretion to hold, invest, reinvest, grant, convey, encumber or lease all assets of every character which shall hereafter become a part of such fund, and in its discretion to use or to deliver to a board of managers of an established home, for use by such managers, any assets comprising a part of such fund or any income or accruals therefrom, for all or any of the above mentioned purposes.

The Board of Trustees is authorized in its discretion to establish homes for retired teachers from time to time, to name the locations therefor, or to provide how the location of any home shall be determined upon; to incorporate or otherwise to establish a governing and managing body for each home; to establish by Charter and Bylaws or otherwise a board of managers for each home, a majority of whom at all times shall be residents of the state, territory or District of Columbia, in which the home is located, and to provide for the manner of selection and reelection of members of such board of managers; to vest in such board of managers so much as it shall see fit of the management, operation and control of the home and all properties of whatever character which shall be used, or the accruals or income from which shall be used, for the acquisition, completion, endowment or maintenance of such home; and generally, to establish such rules for the operation and management of the home and its continuity and for reversion of all assets to the Board of Trustees on its discontinuance, all as in its discretion it may see fit, with or without reservation to itself of the right to amend any such rules from time to time.

Mr. Siders: That is the Committee's report.

President Blair: You have heard the Committee's report. I hope you will take all the time for its consideration which you care to.

Mr. English: If you want to ever establish a home in the District of Columbia, you will have to insert the words "District of Columbia" in that Resolution.

Voice: Just insert "D. C." in it.

Miss McSkimmon: Mr. President, wouldn't it be possible for us to have enough of these mimeographed or printed, if necessary, so that everyone can have a copy?

President Blair: We will ask the Secretary, now that his salary has been in-

creased, to have enough printed to be placed in the hands of everyone.—I will say that one question I asked of the attorney presenting this resolution, the charter gives the Board of Trustees the power to keep the Permanent Fund and to see that it is invested, but the disposal of the proceeds of the funds seems to be in the hands of the Board of Directors according to the Charter. Now, here's the proposition: I have no doubts at all about the Trustees being the most competent body to handle the funds, there is no doubt about that, but the only doubt I did have about was whether the Board of Trustees could receive gifts and then go out and spend them. This attorney said they did, because this was in the nature of a trust fund that was being created under special conditions. That was the question I had in my mind and the young man didn't have any doubt along that line.

Voice: Mr. President, it is moved that the resolution as presented be adopted.

Voice: I second the motion.

President Blair: It is moved and seconded that the resolution presented to the Board of Directors, authorizing the Board of Trustees to accept gifts, donations, devises and bequeaths for the establishment and maintenance of Homes for Retired Teachers under the general conditions set forth be adopted. That's the motion before us now. Any questions?

Voice: I would like to ask what action, if any, was taken by the Representative Assembly on the establishment of teachers' homes?

President Blair: They left it to the Executive Committee, and the Executive Committee felt they didn't care to assume the responsibility, so you have seen what a farflung proposition it is. Now, if this is adopted, we have the machinery established whereby philanthropic people will begin, I believe, very shortly to make donations. In fact, I have an offer here. I don't know whether it would be in the nature of a real asset or not, but it is in the nature of some land down in Florida. (Laughter.) All those in favor of adopting the resolution will say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

President Blair: The resolution is adopted.

Miss Jones: Mr. President, may I express my keen appreciation. This is a dream come true. (Applause.)

President Blair: In order to have it made a matter of record, the young gentleman who gave us the legal advice on this agreed to accept \$50 as a fee for his services.

Voice: I move the appropriation be made.

Voice: I second the motion.

President Blair: It is moved and seconded that Mr. Carrington, who gave the legal advice, be given \$50. All in favor say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

President Blair: The motion is carried. The matter of the budget, including the recommendations of the committee, which recommendations are to be made to you, is not ready. We had to adjourn this morning before that was completed, and, if there is no other business to be suggested from the floor (and I feel there may be business to come from the floor), we are ready to recess. I wish Mrs. Jessie Fink of Grand Rapids, Michigan, were here. I haven't seen her. She made allusion to this dream that has now become at least on the way to be realized, about the teachers' homes, and one of the men said he would donate a spot and they have been after me to accept this gift of land and I told them I would refer it to the Board of Directors, and I feel under necessity now to have a record made that this was presented and referred to the Board of Trustees.

Voice: I move it be so referred.

Voice: I second the motion.

President Blair: It is moved that this proposal to donate 20 acres of land in Florida be referred to the Board of Trustees with power to act.

Voice: Mr. Chairman, could you state what is before the meeting tonight at this time so we might have an idea?

President Blair: Well, the matter of apportioning the \$36,900 for the various Committees we have at work, and the report of the committee on a retirement allowance plan for members of the central office. There will be several other important matters.

Voice: Would it be suitable, Mr. Chairman, at this time to propose a revision of budget items? We have gone about half through the year and we can tell where we are. Knowing where we are, would that be a suitable thing to propose tonight?

President Blair: Yes, I think so. And there is another request for a \$10,000 appropriation. I don't know now what it is. Do you, Mr. Secretary?

Mr. Crabtree: Well, there will be requests for appropriations.

President Blair: There will be at least three items after we have found out what the expenses of the Board of Directors will be. We will have to make an estimate of what that will be, and decide upon the request for \$10,000 for another matter, and we will have to make appropriation for each one of the committees. We will have to do those three things tonight.

Voice: Is there a committee to take into consideration this which you have just suggested, or how is that to be handled?

Voice: I offer a motion that the committee be appointed to consider this matter and to make a report at tonight's meeting.

Voice: I second the motion.

President Blair: A motion is made by Mr. Saunders that a committee be appointed to confer with the Secretary and the President of the Board of Trustees in estimating the amount of money needed to pay the expenses of the delegates. All in favor of the motion will let it be known by saying "aye."

Voices: Aye.

Chairman: The motion is carried. I will appoint *Mr. Saunders* chairman of that Committee, and *Mrs. Bradford* of Colorado, and *Mr. Pearson* of Kansas. *Mr. Siders* and *Mr. Crabtree* may assist the committee. Is there any other business?

Mr. Siders: May I inquire, since this resolution was adopted and directed to the Board of Trustees, when did you wish this appropriation you are making to go into effect? Are you thinking of appropriating money for Mr. Crabtree's salary for the current year, ensuing year or what?

Miss Jones: I made that motion, and it was intended to cover the present year, just like the rest of the salaries we were discussing.

Chairman: Any other matters to come before us? If not, we will stand adjourned until 7:30 tonight.

Dallas, Texas, Saturday Evening, February 26, 1927

The meeting was called to order by *President Blair* with all members present, who responded to roll call at the afternoon session.

President Blair: The meeting will come to order, please. We sent Secretary Crabtree over early with the distinct understanding that he might make his speech on the increase of salary before we got here (laughter), but we haven't had any record made of it up to this time. The items on the program for tonight are, first, the adoption of the budget for the current year, the year beginning June 1, 1926, and ending May 31, 1927. A number of the items in the budget are the same as approved at Philadelphia, but some at any rate it was necessary to make changes in. The other question that will be presented will be the appropriation of \$1000 for the World Federation, and then the presentation of a Retirement System for the members of the central office force, which has been worked over and will be presented later on in the evening; then I want to read at the conclusion of the business some rules governing the proceedings of the Board of

Directors after adoption by them at the Seattle meeting. I think while we are in the best frame of mind and fresh that we had better take up the budget, which is always a difficult matter for consideration. Mr. Siders has given more attention to it than any other one member of the Executive Committee, and I have asked him to present it. I think you have in your hands a copy of it.

The Association has adopted a regulation making the fiscal year from June 1st to May 31st so that the accounts may be audited and the reports presented to the annual meeting, but our action this afternoon, I think, should stand just as taken, that the salaries which we established were retroactive to July 1st. You don't see anything wrong with that?

Mr. Crabtree: No, I think that was in the report made this afternoon. All increases are to begin July 1, 1926.

President Blair: We have the anomalous situation of a fiscal year that begins June 1st and ends May 31st, and then we have a collection year that begins with September, does it? or is it the school year? It straddles the year, and our income year doesn't correspond with our outgoing year. I have appointed a committee to look into that and to make a report at the Seattle meeting.

Now, you have copies of the budget as presented at Philadelphia, and I have asked Mr. Siders if he would explain to the Board of Directors what the Executive Committee is recommending to you in the way of appropriations for the current year.

Mr. Siders: The report you have in your hands is a report that was presented at Philadelphia and as modified today in the light of several months of experience with this particular budget. I believe it is a custom of most institutions to revise their budget at midyear or oftener. We have a budget here that started on the 1st day of June and now has about four months to run, and we have had eight months of experience with it. There were some parts of that budget that were not appropriated at Philadelphia. There were no tabulations for the work of departments and committees. You see there that the report of Committee on Committees had not been made, and that the Department requests were not in. They are now in and are here incorporated. Do you desire that I should go into this budget in full or merely comment on the changes proposed?

President Blair: I suggest you read just the changes.

Mr. Siders then explained the budget item by item as it appears in the minutes of the Executive Committee elsewhere in the *Proceedings*.

Mr. Siders: Schedule 22 carries a request of payment of a fee of \$1000 to the World Federation of Education Associations. I don't know how much you know about this; perhaps you don't need to know any more. This was started by the National Education Association, and held its first meeting in San Francisco, the next in Edinburgh, Scotland, and the next will be in Toronto and the one following that may be in the Orient. It was decided at the Edinburgh meeting that the members should pay on the basis of membership. Now, we had a compromise with the English people. Their Association and our own are the only ones in the world carrying over a hundred thousand membership, and they were willing to come into this Association on the basis of one hundred thousand if we would. So that accounts for that. The other Associations, including the English Association, have paid their fees. If anyone is interested, I can give you more information about it, as I have a complete report in my hands.

Publications and Reports for Sale, Schedule 23, is all right.

Now, Schedule 24, the "Permanent Fund" increase for 1926-1927 over 25-26, \$9117.29, we feel that money is pledged and ought not be disturbed. If the Directors agree with the Executive Committee neither would they disturb this \$15,000 Reserve Fund, but there is an emergency or Adjustment Fund of \$9967.95 which has never been used for any purpose and which is available at this time for the purpose you have in view.

Now, going back over this, you will find that if we set up as demand against these credits, where there is money available or where money may be taken out, like in the Board of Directors \$11,000 in the Secretary's office \$1552, as has been previously explained—if you want me to read them through I think you will get what I mean. Those of the Executive Committee who worked on this know that these appropriations for the Departments and Committees are in every way ample to take care of the needs, and I think, Mr. Chairman, that covers it.

President Blair: You have heard the report of the Executive Committee on this Budget as prepared for the Philadelphia meeting, to be presented to the Board of Directors and adopted by the Board of Directors, but inasmuch as the Committee on Committees recommended changes in Committees the appropriation for the remaining Committees was not made by the Board of Directors. Perhaps before we begin our discussion of it—and we want the most general inquiry and discussion—it would be well to make a motion for the adoption of the report as made. That will put it before us.

Voice: I move the adoption of the report as read.

Voice: Second the motion.

President Blair: It is moved and seconded that the report with the changes recommended be adopted by the Board of Directors and appropriations made to carry it out, because the adoption of the budget is not an appropriation.

Now, to start the discussion, on the last page but one—there are a number of questions that the members of the Committee are not as one on—the question of the Reserve Fund of \$15,000. I do not question as a working thing that that is a good thing, but I do question whether, according to the Charter, we have a right to set aside a reserve fund, and, while I believe that the Budget Committee acted wisely at Philadelphia, and believe that the Board of Directors approved that thing in good faith, I do not believe, and I am going to take the steps myself, if necessary, to see whether we have the legal right to set aside a reserve fund of \$15,000. I think that before we build up a large reserve fund we ought to get a legal opinion on that, and, if the attorney gives the opinion that this Board of Directors has the disposition of all the surplus funds, if it has the right to create a reserve fund, then we will be on safe ground.

Now, the full report is open to you.

Voice: Do I understand that \$15,000 in reserve is included in the amount for appropriation?

President Blair: Yes, that's what I understand. When I inquired of *Mr. Crabtree*, it doesn't appear that we have that \$15,000 on hand now.

Mr. Crabtree: Well, no, but it is in the estimated income of the year. At the end of the year we ought to have a great deal more than that as a balance.

Voice: I might have misunderstood, but I understood *Mr. Siders*, when he made that report and commented on that \$15,000, I understood him to say that if we made these additions which are proposed by the Committee, and in some cases some subtractions, all of that \$15,000 except \$360 would be eaten up. Is that right?

Mr. Siders: No, no; I meant this \$9000 in the Emergency Fund and one other item that is eaten up. I can throw this little light on that \$15,000: The Executive Committee and the Budget Committee had a feeling that there should be an Emergency Fund, that was finally worked out at \$9000. It was what was left after certain other things were done, and you have appropriated that fund, or are about to do it. It was felt that the Association ought to get into the position where there would be a balance at the end of each year, and if we are to get in that position that we ought to plan for it, so the reserve fund was recommended for it, which would be set aside for any emergency which might arise, but set aside definitely with a pledge to ourselves, if we want to put it that way, that we wouldn't touch that part of the income. Of course, the money wasn't available to appropriate in July, wasn't in the bank, but we promised ourselves we

wouldn't spend that \$15,000, that we would have that much at the end of the year. Now, it might be continued as a reserve fund, it might at the end of the year be put into the Permanent Fund if the Board of Directors think best. Now, the budget is made on this basis; it is practically the income for last year, and if our membership grows as it has in preceding years the estimated income should be somewhat larger than stated in the budget, but this is the estimate for the year 1926-27 and is practically the amount of the income for the previous year from all sources.

Mr. Crabtree: It is the actual income for last year plus the small balance we had on May 31.

Mr. Siders: I personally think at this stage of the game it is very important to keep that reserve fund intact.

President Blair: And if there is no legal objection to it, I am sure it should be continued. But I wouldn't want the reserve fund so tied up that you couldn't use it and have to go down to the bank and pay interest. That would be an unfortunate thing.

Now, it is still open on any phase on any of its pages that are given to you.

Mr. Dickey: Mr. Chairman, I would like to question, in 18, the financing of delegates. I notice your expenditures last year was \$9979 and this year you have appropriated, or budgeted, \$10,000, and with a very largely increased enrolment in the National Education Association—

Voice: He added \$3000 to that; that will make it \$13,000.

Mr. Dickey: Well, I will take the \$13,000 and still am raising the question. I wonder if in our form of representation now that shouldn't discourage attendance of the teachers at the National Education Association? I will use a concrete example: I represent Pennsylvania. We have the second largest enrolment in the National Education Association now; 17,260 I think was about our last enrolment, and we are anticipating a further enrolment. Pennsylvania, however, is sending 36 delegates this year, largely classroom teachers, to the National Education Association, but we are doing so, or we made our budget, with the prospect in view that the National Education Association would pay about \$35 of that expense. Now after that budget has been made and the money appropriated, we find that the latest calculations are about \$12.50. That isn't going to go back to our people with much enthusiasm. And, furthermore, we have this year adopted, by our Executive Council, the plan of using coupons. As you know, in the State of Pennsylvania, we have our institutes, county and districts, and we propose at our meetings this year to give out at the same time an invitation to join the National Education Association as we do to join the Pennsylvania Education Institution, and we believe that plan will probably double our membership. But, if we are to go back to our people and say that the amount of money voted by the National Education Association to finance this expense has been reduced to almost nothing, it means a pretty hard situation to overcome. Our people have gone to Indianapolis, they have gone to Washington, have gone to Philadelphia, but so far we have never received a cent for our delegates. Now, for the good of the cause, I feel that it might be well to enlarge upon that appropriation, and I invite comment along that line.

President Blair: Has it been increased any?

Voice: \$3000.

Mr. Siders: I will say that the budget we are contemplating now is for the year that ends the 31 of May, and provisions for the summer or anything in the future would necessarily come up in the new budget. And, in regard to that \$3000, we have just the reverse of the situation which you bring up, because you remember the \$10,000 we thought would take care of the situation was thrown out of balance by a very large delegation from California. Now, here's Pennsylvania going across the continent the other way, and if they should bring a very large group it would do the same thing. I think you are manifestly right that

this thing needs to be figured out on a different basis, and perhaps on a larger basis, but I make the point that this is for the current year and not for the Seattle meeting.

Voice: This budget is made then to take care of a shortage?

Mr. Siders: Yes, that's right. We thought it would run \$5000 but it only ran \$3000. Do we still have a Committee on Financing Delegates?

President Blair: I'm not sure, but I want to ask this question, because I have been going around in circles myself. If this budget which we are approving now does not cover the expenses of the delegates to Seattle, then I don't know what we are making this budget for. If this budget reaches up only to the 31 of May, and then we make another budget, that other budget cannot be approved until we get to Seattle. Is it your idea, *Mr. Siders*, that out of that budget appropriated at Seattle will be taken the expenses of the delegates?

Mr. Siders: Exactly. Certainly we have a right to look that far ahead.

Miss Jones: I was a member of that Committee to Finance Delegates, and *Miss Adair* was Chairman. It is always hard to estimate the expenses. The calculations for the expenses of delegates were based upon the distance the various delegates had to travel, and a proportion of the expenses was paid according to zones. All delegates that came from certain zones received the same expense allowance. Now we couldn't estimate the expense of delegates from any zone, so to make appropriation for delegates for the year we had to make arrangements that they would be provided for in the budget of next year. The sum of \$10,000 was the sum we agreed upon because the first year the Committee work covered \$10,000, so we fixed \$10,000 as the minimum, realizing that every year the amount would increase as the size of the Representative Assembly increased, and also depending on the place selected for the convention. Those are the principles that governed the Committee on Financing Delegates expenses. That Committee has met every summer. *Miss Adair* has always been Chairman of that Committee. I think, however, I am the only other member here tonight. This \$13,000 is to cover the expense of delegates to the Philadelphia meeting?

Mr. Siders: Yes, sir.

Mr. Crabtree: That amount has all been spent. It was paid out at the Philadelphia meeting.

President Blair: Oh, I see. So the budget that will control the delegates for Seattle, that budget will be in the appropriations at Seattle.

Miss Jones: The understanding is, Mr. Chairman, the minimum is \$10,000, and the Board of Directors at Seattle will have the right to extend over that \$10,000 so far as financial ability allows, depending on the centers from which the delegates come and the expense incurred. That \$10,000 minimum was agreed upon in 1923. That figure, \$10,000, was based upon the fact that the first year expenses of delegates was paid, \$10,000 covered it, and the Representative Assembly and the Executive Committee at that time took the position that if \$10,000 would cover it that year it wasn't likely that \$10,000 would cover it in succeeding years; therefore it was felt that \$10,000 should be considered the minimum.

President Blair: Well, if that's the minimum you can see how easy it is to take care of it, but my difficulty has been in determining the fiscal year. If I could have the bounds of the fiscal year, then a good many of these things that are fogged up in my mind would be clear. Whatever this budget covers it will cover it to the 1st of June instead of 1st of July.

Mr. Siders: Now, if there is a feeling here that this ought to be larger, it is certainly within the province of this Board of Directors to determine that it will be for the next fiscal year and figure it out so that the different states will know. If you want to do anything, now is the time to do it.

President Blair: Well, the adoption of a budget is not an appropriation.

Mr. Crabtree: Couldn't we get through with the budget and then come back to the Financing of Delegates?

Voice: I withdraw my objection on that basis.

Voice: There is a Committee on Financing Delegates to the meeting and you have appropriated \$10,000 for that purpose, is that right?

Chairman: Yes.

Voice: That Committee would undertake to say what the expenses are, and then, Mr. President, there is just one other question: I understood that all these Committees had been passed upon by the Committee on Committees with the exception of the two new ones named—

Chairman: Three.

Voice: One of the Committees is the Committee on Committees itself?

Chairman: Yes.

Voice: Well, naturally, I am speaking of the other two—Committee on Problems of Colored Schools and Committee on Children's Literature. Now, wouldn't it be proper to refer those Committees to the Committee on Committees to see the necessity for them? I don't see any more reason why we should have a Committee on Problems of Colored Schools than we should have a committee on problems of white schools.

President Blair: Well, this very Committee was created by the Board of Directors in Philadelphia. It was proposed by people who were considering the question of colored schools and was brought up by the Board of Directors and was passed by the Board of Directors at Philadelphia. So, I feel it is one of the Committees created by the Board of Directors.

Voice: Then I misunderstood your original statement. I understood your statement to say that these committees were now being created. Of course, if the committees have already been created, then my statement is out of order.

Voice: May I explain that it was referred to the Board of Directors and unanimously passed at Philadelphia.

President Blair: The Committees which the Committee on Committees considered did not include this Committee on Colored Schools, because that was created at Philadelphia. Now, this other committee, Committee on Literature for Children, has been created.

At Philadelphia I was amazed when I come to find that California had something like 190 delegates. I added up the delegates from Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and I think Ohio, and all these states didn't have but a few more delegates than California, and California didn't have one that it wasn't entitled to under the Bylaws as they now exist. A Committee had had under consideration for a year the question of providing for a more equitable delegate representation. At Philadelphia upon the recommendation of *Secretary Crabtree* a new Committee was created with an enlarged scope called the Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Subjects. I have asked *Dr. Claxton*, who went through the war and all that, to head this Committee—

Voice: Does it involve war?

President Blair: Yes, domestic and foreign. There's another thing I have become convinced of, without any reflection upon anybody, that many of our Bylaws are contradictory to the provisions of the Charter, at least they are out of harmony with it, and there needs to be a thorough revision of the Bylaws to make them responsive to the Charter, and that's another little package we are handing over to *Mr. Claxton's* committee, and to that end we have to get an attorney to work with him in harmonizing the Charter and Bylaws. This Committee has a big job to perform. They need our support, our prayers, but I hope not our tears, in carrying forward their work. Any other statement?

Voice: I think we will all admit that was a good speech, but it didn't touch one thing in our minds. Who is to consider what the appropriation shall be for the Seattle delegates? Shall it be this Committee which you mentioned, of which

Dr. Claxton is the head, or shall it be by the Committee of which *Miss Adair* is the head?

President Blair: It will be the Board of Directors in Seattle.

Voice: Usually we tell our delegates about how much of their expenses are going to be paid. How are we going to tell them? We don't know that there will be anything. We will have to keep quiet.

Miss Jones: I move the Chairman appoint a committee, or reappoint the old Committee. This is really serious. It is affecting us in the east more than for a good many years. In 1924-25 the meetings were both held in Washington and Philadelphia, but now the meeting is traveling to the West, and I think the best way we can settle it will be for us to have the same committee or a new committee, just as the Board of Directors see fit.

President Blair: Well, that will be a proper motion to make after we have adopted this budget. These appropriations are for delegates in years gone by, and after we have appropriated it I will then entertain a motion to appoint a committee to speak for the Association.

Voices: Question.

President Blair: All in favor of adopting this budget presented to you this evening will say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

President Blair: To the contrary, "no." It is unanimously carried, and the money is appropriated for the schedules outlined in this plan.

Voice: Is there a motion before the house? It not, I want to make one.

Chairman: *Miss Jones* has made one.

Mr. Crabtree: May I make an explanation?

Chairman: Yes.

Mr. Crabtree: I foresaw this question would come up, hence, I had the office prepare a scheme based on a \$10,000 appropriation, and I think, Mr. President, this ought to be distributed to that each member can see what it does for his state. I want to say that our office, in order to satisfy the states, must do something like this or else the state director and state secretary wouldn't know what to tell their people and be at a great disadvantage. Now, then, when we come to prepare this we figured it on the same plan that we prepared it for Pennsylvania. We found that delegates from Pennsylvania going to the west coast will get less than half those from the west coast got in coming to Philadelphia. The reason is that Philadelphia is in the center of population, and no one received anything unless his expenses exceed \$50. So striking that circle, you will have a great many delegates going out to the west coast, and striking the circle in the center of population you will not have so many delegates to receive expenses.

Voice: What's the number of delegates that will attend the Seattle meeting?

Mr. Crabtree: Eleven hundred, but that's a guess based on the enrolment and attendance of delegates at other meetings. It is just an estimate. We missed it for the Philadelphia meeting.

Chairman: Well, I know, but I would be perfectly willing that this Board of Directors recommend that the appropriation be \$20,000.

Voice: In view of the situation that great expense entails in going I move that instead of that minimum it be raised for this particular instance to \$20,000.

Voice: Second the motion.

Mr. Crabtree: That can only be a recommendation?

Voice: Yes.

Chairman: You have heard the motion that the amount be raised from the minimum of \$10,000 to \$20,000.

Voice: Question.

Chairman: All in favor say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

Chairman: Contrary, "no." It is carried and stands as a recommendation.

Voice: Mr. Chairman, do you want to make this a minimum of \$20,000?

Chairman: What was your motion?

Voice: Whereas you previously worked on a basis of \$10,000, that you work on a basis of \$20,000. That is a recommendation to the Board of Directors at Seattle. If they see fit to change it, they may do so.

Voice: It seems that it ought to be on the same basis as last year so that the people from the east to the west will not get less than the people from the west to the east. That may take more than \$20,000.

President Blair: Well, I think this \$20,000 is a recommendation to the Board of Directors in figuring out the amounts.

Voice: I am wondering whether or not this basis of representation will be worked out so it will apply to the Seattle convention or whether that number of delegates will be distributed as formerly?

Chairman: If there is no motion necessary, I will recommend, or suggest, to the Secretary that he make out a statement based on \$20,000 for the expenses of delegates and that he furnish that list to the various secretaries of the Associations.

Voice: I don't think you understood my question, Mr. Chairman. I understand a Committee has been appointed to figure out a basis of representation whereby a state like California couldn't send in so many delegates and another state with a larger membership, perhaps, would send in a smaller number of delegates, not that I am opposed to California having a larger number of delegates, but there ought to be some basis—

Chairman: Dr. Claxton will work that out.

Dr. Claxton: Impossible to do that before the meeting at Seattle, because it will have to be done there.

Mr. Newlon: I feel that I am going to sound a very unpopular note, but I want to call your attention to the fact that we spent about \$10,000 in about a second. There is no way we could dissipate the funds of this Association faster than by paying the expenses of hundreds of delegates. I think, Mr. Blair, in determining how many delegates are to be, or what the Association is to pay on their expenses, ought to be considered carefully. I feel that we ought to discourage that just as much as possible. I didn't vote "no" on this proposition, but I feel it would be too bad if somebody didn't say something about this thing. Here two years ago we had a deficit, actual deficit, in our Association of over \$20,000. We lacked \$50,000 of income sufficient to make a budget. We can spend \$10,000 in a second tonight because we have financed very carefully in the past two and a half years, and, at the risk of being unpopular with some, I am going to sound this note tonight.

President Blair: Well, I have seen these funds paid out for printing reports and paying expenses of some who are here on large salaries, and I should say that I would count the \$10,000 well spent.

Miss Fraser: I am one of a large delegation here from California, and we are going to send a larger one to Seattle. I fail to see the connection between that deficit and the delegates. I think no delegation present at Philadelphia had as many delegates present financed by the state as we did. The city I represent tonight wrote a check for \$250 to every delegate who went from that city, and I am chairman of the budget committee and we have already set aside an appropriation for that expense. Nothing has brought California towards the National Education Association faster than the fact that we had 150 people who came home full of enthusiasm from the National Education Association convention, and I have never heard a protest in paying demands. And I would like to say something in support of the man who represents Philadelphia, that I would like to see Pennsylvania have a chance to send to California a delegation as large as ours.

Miss Jones: I daresay California would have had as many delegates had they received no money from the National Education Association. I believe they would have sent as many people. I believe as many would have come from Oklahoma.

I believe personally as *Mr. Newlon* does, that if we begin to finance the delegates there is no end to expense, and the best way to create a great National Education Association is to have each city and each district become so interested that they will gladly pay their expenses, and I just want to say O. K. to *Mr. Newlon*.

Mr. Newlon: I would like to say two more things. In the first place, there are two sides to this question. No one could serve as President of the Association for two years and not know that. Another thing I want to say is this: I have seen classroom teachers in Denver raise money each year to finance all expenses of its delegates to the Association, and I don't think it has done anything that has been of more value to it and to the N. E. A. than to send its delegates to the National Education Association. There are two sides to every question.

Chairman: Unless there's a motion.

Voice: Was that motion passed?

Chairman: Why, yes, it was passed unanimously and *Mr. Newlon* said that he didn't vote against it or that he didn't vote at all.

Voice: The vote was never declared.

Chairman: Was never declared?

Voice: No, sir.

Chairman: I will take a vote on the question again. All those in favor of increasing the appropriation minimum of \$10,000 for financing delegates to \$20,000 will say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

Chairman: Contrary, "no."

One Voice: No.

President Blair: The motion is carried. Now, we have another important matter—I know how tired you are, and the ventilation in this room is something fierce, but there has been suggested for establishment in the headquarters office at Washington a scheme for retirement of employees, and *Mr. Lamkin*, at the head of the Committee, has worked out a plan, which the Executive Committee is not ready to approve, and I have asked *Mr. Lamkin* to present that report.

Mr. Lamkin: I will ask *Mr. Crabtree* to have these reports distributed, please, and then I will ask you to not stop and read them now. I will get through with my part right quickly, then you can take all the time you want to read them.

This report was prepared by *Mr. Norton* at the request of the Committee. At the Philadelphia meeting, you will remember, the Representative Assembly passed a motion that the Executive Committee be authorized to put into effect a Retirement System for the headquarters staff. Now, *Mr. Norton* reports to us three possible plans for the establishment of such a system.

(*Mr. Lamkin* reads the first plan.) He passes that over with the statement that we couldn't do that; couldn't tie up the funds.

The second plan is—(Second plan read by *Mr. Lamkin*.) That brings up the question as to whether the Association is ready or willing to enter into any kind of a contract, even for a retirement system, with an organization that is financed by a foundation.

And the third plan is that, neither of these two being feasible, we shall ask the Equitable or New York Life or some other of the standard insurance organizations that will furnish annuities for our employees to make us a proposition on the basis of a retirement system for employees of our office. Now, the question comes up as to whether the Association wants to include in such retirement all employees of the headquarters office, that is, whether those that are getting more than \$3,000, or whether they want to include only those getting less than \$3,000. We will be able to make a report to the Seattle meeting, and our thought is now that we shall report what we can do with the teachers insurance and annuity association, then it is a matter for the Association to determine whether the association wants to enter into a contract with that organization which is certainly connected with the foundation. We shall also be ready to report on propositions

we can get from some of the standard insurance companies for inclusion of all our employees in Washington, and for inclusion of part of our employees, and then you can reach your own conclusion at Seattle as to what you want to do with it. That's as far as we have gone with it.

President Blair: What is your pleasure. We have spent an hour and a half on it as an Executive Committee and we are not agreed. The data has been collected with great care as to facts, we haven't a doubt. It's a question of policy of entering into retirements of employees in the central office.

Mr. Lamkin: My only recommendation would be that this Board of Directors request that the Executive Committee study the matter further and make a definite recommendation at the Seattle meeting.

Voice: I make that motion.

Voice: Second the motion.

Chairman: It is moved and seconded that the Executive Committee be asked to study further this matter and make a definite recommendation to the Board of Directors at Seattle. Any discussion? If not, all in favor will say "aye."

Voice: Aye.

Chairman: The motion is carried. I beg your pardon, *Mr. Saunders* was on a committee which is to report tonight. We will now have that report.

Mr. Saunders: Mr. Chairman, your Committee that was appointed this afternoon in regard to expenses for this meeting took into consideration two propositions, one as to this particular meeting, and the other as to the financing of the Board of Directors' meetings in the future, and the report—I will ask *Mr. Crabtree* to distribute some forms we are going to ask you to use, and they are to be modified, and I will ask you to use your pencils as we go along. Your committee begs leave to report as follows:

I. That for this meeting expenses of directors be allowed as follows:

A. Railroad fare from the home city to Dallas and return.

B. Pullman fare for standard lower berth from home to Dallas and return.

C. Meals en route, including tips at ten percent.

D. Taxi to and from home and station and to and from hotel to station in Dallas.

E. Tips to pullman porter at 25 cents per day while traveling, and tips to porters for handling baggage.

F. Local expenses at \$10 per day for four days.

Receipts should be provided where possible.

II. Your Committee recommends that the sum of \$11,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, be and the same is hereby appropriated to carry out the foregoing recommendations.

III. Your Committee further recommends the appointment of a Committee to recommend at the next meeting of the Board of Directors rules and regulations for the payment of expenses of directors and others, except delegates to the Respective Assembly, traveling at the expense of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed) JOSEPH SAUNDERS, *Chm.*,
MARY C. C. BRADFORD,
M. E. PEARSON,
WALTER R. SIDERS,
J. W. CRABTREE.

Voice: May I ask the Chairman of the Committee if the Committee is willing to change that \$12,000 to \$11,000?

Mr. Saunders: Yes, I am sure all the members of the Committee are willing to agree to change that to \$11,000.

Chairman: You hear this report. What action will you take on it?

Voice: I move its adoption.

Voice: Were the meals en route to Dallas included in that?

Mr. Saunders: No, the meals en route to Dallas are to be included at actual cost. The meals while in Dallas are included in the \$10 a day. I will give it to you again (which is read).

Voice: You don't have to make any reports for that \$10?

Mr. Saunders: No, the Committee thought it was best to set a definite per diem and let everybody live then as best he could.

Voice: The footnote here—

Mr. Saunders: I beg your pardon, this was another foresight of our perfect Secretary, and he has given us this form to be changed. The footnote has nothing to do with it.

Chairman: You hear the motion to adopt this report. All in favor say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

Chairman: The motion is carried.

Mr. Crabtree: May I explain this? As soon as you have made out your bills, if you will present them to me, or leave them at the Baker Hotel for me, I will take them to the Audit Committee and have them attended to as soon as possible and have them ready not later than Tuesday morning. If you have them in sooner you will be able, by seeing *Mrs. Hixson* at the Registrar's Desk, to get the funds from her.

Voice: Bills can be sent in from home?

Mr. Crabtree: Yes, some of you may prefer to send them in.

Voice: Does this Committee that has just reported report to the present Board of Directors or to the new Board of Directors at Seattle?

Chairman: Present Board of Directors.

Voice: Then why wouldn't we be able to send before the new Board of Directors this report so they could give it some study before arriving there? *Mr. Newlon* called attention to the fact that we may possibly have made a mistake in doubling the \$10,000. We have to pass quick judgment without very much consideration, and I would suggest that if possible at the future meetings of the Board of Directors all these reports be placed in the hands of the Board a few days before they will be considered so that we may at least become acquainted with the proceedings.

President Blair: That's a very good suggestion, and I am going to ask *Mr. Saunders* to take the responsibility of seeing that the reports are sent out in advance before we meet at Seattle.

Voice: May I have 30 seconds to say one thing?

Chairman: Yes.

Voice: I know the machinery is made up of small units, and I represent them. I agree entirely with what *Mr. Newlon* and *Mr. Moore* have said about financing delegates, but this is not setting a precedent in paying the expenses of delegates. My expenses, I feel safe in saying, will be paid by my Association—

Chairman: I say this in answer to the gentleman's statement, that we are not setting a new precedent at this meeting, the precedent for paying expenses of delegates was set several years ago.

Voice: I am speaking of the expenses of the directors to Seattle. If they happen not to be delegates, don't you understand, then the matter of directors' expense is called in Seattle and these directors go there in anticipation of their expenses being paid.

Mr. Crabtree: Mr. Chairman, there were a good many of these directors wrote me to know whether their expenses were to be paid and I couldn't say. It seems to me that we should be able to say something to them one way or another.

Miss Jones: I opposed for a great many years the question of paying the expenses of delegates. I spoke on the floor of the assembly whenever the question was raised, and it was not until the Boston meeting of 1922 that I yielded on that point. *Miss Adair* had labored with me many times before that and I wouldn't give in, but it was because of the interest it aroused in the Association and the state and local associations. However, I don't think that quite applies to the directors. We are supposed to meet at the summer meetings. If we accept the office of director, then we accept as part of that the obligation to be there. If we don't expect to do it, we shouldn't accept the office of director. When we

attend a winter meeting, however, to do such important work of the Association as the President has called upon us to do this year, then that is a different proposition. The fact that the expenses of directors are paid for this meeting does not in any way constitute a precedent for the summer meetings. They are different meetings in every way. This has been an important special meeting for important business. While I also voted for the \$20,000, and voted for it because I felt there are involved the best interest of the National Education Association, yet I do think it is well for us to remember that every dollar spent for expenses is a dollar withdrawn from research work. I don't think the National Education Association ought to run the risk of being convention attenders and not doing any real work, and, therefore, we ought to go slow, and this action that we have taken should not be regarded as a precedent.

Miss McGregor: I came from Minnesota, and I would like to speak in behalf of *Mr. Newlon's* statement. I do think *Mr. Newlon* had an important opinion. It is an important thing for teachers or any local officers whenever they take upon themselves the necessary interest that they will have to have if they are going to raise funds to send delegates. We have done just what *Mr. Newlon* says the teachers of Denver have done, and we have a tremendous obligation. When you are talking about paying the expenses of the delegates, it won't be the small amount of money which you gave to the Minnesota delegates last year that will appeal to them. That doesn't mean very much to us; that had a very limited meaning to us. But you elect a classroom teacher as a state director from the state of Minnesota and she will not be in a position, nine times out of ten, to pay her way to the annual meeting, but we do need classroom teachers to take care of these responsible positions; therefore, I would like very much to say—and I happen to be a director, and I am not speaking personally to the gentlemen from North Carolina—that these people who have these important executive positions are about in the same financial class, and that the classroom teacher will take her place even though she doesn't have the salary to take care of it herself.

(There was further discussion of the problem of financing the expenses of directors and delegates to the Representative Assembly.)

Chairman: I will entertain a motion to continue this committee that acted for us in studying the relation of expenses of directors.

Voice: What motion is before the house, please, sir?

Chairman: A motion was made by *Mr. Saunders*, who headed the Committee, to appoint a Committee with a view of inquiring into the whole matter of expenses.

Mr. Saunders: You have added one function that we did not have, that's the matter of paying directors' expenses to the meeting. We simply recommended that rules be worked out governing what expenses be paid in the event the Board of Directors paid the expenses. We are also to determine the amount of what should be recommended to this Board of Directors.

Chairman: I want it to be continued for the purposes you suggest. There is a motion to continue that committee for the purposes suggested.

Voice: It seems to me that as we work in administrative positions the better we can interest more people, and while \$9 may not seem to interest people, still it does interest them, and the only criticism we encounter in the National Education Association is that it is not democratic, that it is run by a few. You hear that again and again and again. I believe it is our duty to smother it out, and I believe it is necessary to pay the directors' expenses, for just as we interest some one in every state of the union, he will go back and interest others. I have seen it work in other national institutions.

Chairman: A motion was made. Do I hear a second?

Voice: Second the motion.

Chairman: It is moved and seconded that the Committee headed by *Mr. Saunders* and *Mr. Siders* with power to investigate and harmonize the expenses, and also

to consider the larger question of the advisability of a policy of this Association undertaking to pay all the expense of the directors.

Voice: I want to raise a question here. When is that committee to make its report?

Chairman: At the Seattle meeting. I don't see how it could make it sooner.

Voice: Well, the same question will come up before us again of paying the delegates, and maybe some directors will want to know in advance whether any expense money will be forthcoming.

Voice: I move the state directors have their expenses paid to Seattle.

Voice: I second that as a substitute motion, if the chair will accept it as a substitute motion.

Voice: Mr. Chairman, would it be in order to ask, if this passes, whether it creates a deficit?

Chairman: I was just going to say that if you pass this we will have to refer it to the Board of Trustees. We have passed a resolution or recommendation for \$11,000 for the expenses to the meeting. I don't think it will go beyond \$8,000.

Voice: Mr. Chairman, this is my first directors' meeting to attend, and I am not as familiar as I ought to be or would like to be with it, and some of these discussions are not exactly clear to me. I don't know whether I would be in order or not, but I feel this thing very keenly and I think we ought to reconsider that \$10,000 and measure the motion that the lady made over here, that the directors be paid. I don't know if a dollar of my expenses to Dallas will be paid by the state, but it seems to me, and I know my state association is a great deal more interested in having that state represented here than they would be in saving \$50 or \$100. The same proportion in that big association would be saved as it would in the small state, such as mine, and it seems to me that it is wise for the association to save \$200 or \$300 when it comes to the matter of our consideration of a matter such as this. I am opposed personally and officially to paying twice this amount on delegates expenses to the meeting, because I think it means practically nothing to the state associations.

Miss Jones: I think I am on the unpopular side, but I am going to speak in protest to paying the expenses of directors, especially if there is any intention of paying them in full. I have never had my expenses paid except during the time I held office in the National Education Association, and that was all. Any one that goes to a convention from New York City goes and pays his own expenses, and consequently we have always paid our own bills, but that is not the reason I am speaking in protest against this motion. I was President of the National Education Association the year we stopped and took account of our books, and I know the degree of courage that it took for me to advise the National Education Representative Assembly that we had this deficit to face, and I know, furthermore, what it took on the part of *Mr. Siders* and those who worked with him to devise a way out, and I know also that, while no blame is attached to anybody, because nobody intended to do wrong, this was caused by spending the money anticipated instead of the money we got, and that's what I am afraid we are going to do again. Because we have a large membership we are anticipating spending money that we haven't yet got. I am very strongly opposed to using money that tends to precipitate us into a deficit or shortage, and I earnestly hope this Board of Directors will not pass this motion, and I am asking them to remember the summer meeting of 1924, when *Mr. Siders*, acting as Chairman of the Budget Committee and acting for the Executive Committee, had to face that Representative Assembly and tell them we had a deficit and to present a plan to meet that deficit.

President Blair: The question before us is of course in the form of a motion which would have to be withdrawn or voted upon. I seriously doubt whether on this question of increasing the amount to \$20,000 we could do more than appoint a committee to consider this question and related questions. If this motion should be withdrawn at this time, a motion to continue this committee, endowed with power to make a study—

Mr. Wannamaker: Just a minute. If you can pass those others increasing the \$10,000 for delegates, that also, under your ruling, would have to be rescinded, because it is in the same category, and I think what this gentleman said awhile ago is one of the most pertinent things that has been said about representing the states. He is a real representative of that state. I think we have the cart before the horse. I feel like my friend *Miss Jones* says over there, that I sometimes sound a very unpopular note, but the hour is growing late and I offer as a substitute for everything that is before the house the motion that we reconsider our motion of increasing the delegates expense from \$10,000 to \$20,000.

Chairman: You hear the motion. It is moved as a substitute for all motions pending before the body that we reconsider increasing the expense for delegates from \$10,000 to \$20,000. Any second?

Mr. Bond of Georgia: I second that motion.

(After considerable discussion President Blair put the substitute motion to reconsider.)

Chairman: The substitute motion before us is that we reconsider increasing the expenses for delegates from \$10,000 to \$20,000. All in favor of the motion will say "aye."

(No response.)

Chairman: To the contrary, "no."

Voices: No.

Chairman: The substitute motion is lost. Now, the motion before the Board is to continue the committee to study and harmonize the expenses of directors, and also the larger question of whether this Association desires to establish the policy of undertaking to pay all the expenses of the directors. Are you ready for the question?

Voices: Question.

Chairman: All in favor of the motion let it be known by saying "aye."

Voices: Aye.

Chairman: The motion is carried. Now, there are one or two vacancies here, and *Mr. Siders* has called my attention to it half a dozen times. The great state of Idaho hasn't had a delegate here, and *Mr. Siders* wants to nominate a director, is that right?

Mr. Siders: Idaho is vacant, and there may be other states vacant. I believe it is the prerogative of the Chairman of the Board to appoint directors?

President Blair: It is the prerogative of the Chairman, and if *Mr. Siders* is ready to make a recommendation we will fill that vacancy.

Mr. Siders: I desire to recommend City Superintendent of Schools Charles Dienst, Boise, Idaho.

Chairman: You hear the recommendation of *Mr. Siders* that *Mr. Charles Dienst* be appointed a director. All in favor will say "aye."

Voices: Aye.

Chairman: The motion is carried. I want to thank you all for coming and sitting in this room and listening through the meeting. The meeting is now through.

Voice: I do not like the idea of letting this meeting adjourn without some reference to what I have heard here this evening in appreciation of the fairness and efficiency of *Dr. Blair* as the presiding officer of these meetings. I am sure we would all like to show in some way this appreciation which is being expressed by members over the room. (Applause and calls to make a motion.) It gives me great pleasure therefore to move a vote of pride in our Chairman and an appreciation of the able and courteous manner in which he has presided at the meetings of the Board of Directors. (Applause.)

Voices: Second the motion.

Mr. Lamkin: (Stepping to the front.) Let me put this motion. All those who favor the motion to express appreciation to our Chairman, *Dr. Blair*, for courteous

treatment and efficient presiding, say "aye." (Applause and all saying "aye.") The motion was carried unanimously.

The Chairman: This action pleases one very much. It has been a great pleasure I assure you to serve as chairman of this fine body of directors. I thank you for this expression of confidence. It will serve as an inspiration to me in preparing for the meetings to be held at Seattle. I thank you. (Applause.) The session is adjourned to meet on call of the Chairman.

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, *President.*

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary.*

Seattle, Washington, Saturday Forenoon, July 2, 1927

A meeting of the Board of Directors was called to order by the President, *Francis G. Blair*, July 2, 1927, at 10 A. M., Parlor A, Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington. The call for the meeting had been announced in the program.

The Secretary called the roll. The following were present:

P. P. Claxton, Oklahoma; *Frederick M. Hunter*, California; *Mary McSkimmon*, Massachusetts; *Jesse H. Newlon*, Colorado; *Robert C. Moore*, Illinois; *George D. Strayer*, New York; *J. D. Williams*, Alabama; *A. B. Hill*, Arkansas; *Anna Graeme Fraser*, California; *W. B. Mooney*, Colorado; *John A. Young*, Connecticut; *Harry English*, Washington, D. C.; *W. S. Cawthon*, Florida; *Martha A. Whitacre*, Indiana; *A. L. Whittenberg*, Illinois; *Fred W. Burrill*, Maine; *William Burdick*, Maryland; *Annie C. Woodward*, Massachusetts; *Effie MacGregor*, Minnesota; *Thomas J. Walker*, Missouri; *R. J. Cunningham*, Montana; *M. C. Lefler*, Nebraska; *Charles B. Dyke*, New Jersey; *Minnie J. Nielson*, North Dakota; *R. J. Kiefer*, Ohio; *Mrs. Susanne Homes Carter*, Oregon; *George W. Wannamaker*, South Carolina; *J. O. Webb*, Texas; *D. W. Parratt*, Utah; *Joseph H. Saunders*, Virginia; *T. R. Cole*, Washington; *E. G. Doudna*, Wisconsin.

Elected to vacancies—*Joseph Rosier* was elected to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of *J. H. Hickman* of West Virginia. *Mr. Harned* was elected to fill vacancy by resignation of *S. L. Smith* of Tennessee. *Miss Oliver* was elected to fill vacancy by resignation of *C. K. Reiff* of Oklahoma. *Mr. Gault* was elected to fill vacancy by resignation of *Florence H. Hewitt* of New Hampshire. *Miss Caroline Woodruff* was elected to fill vacancy by resignation of *Clarence H. Dempsey* of Vermont. *Chairman Blair* declared a quorum present and called for the distribution of the minutes of the three previous meetings. These were distributed to members, and without objection the chairman in order to give ample time for each one to go over the minutes postponed action on them to a later meeting.

Chairman Blair then read the following rules of Board of Directors numbered from one to eleven, copies having previously been sent to members:

Rules of Board of Directors

1. The minutes of every meeting shall record the names of directors present and states represented.
2. Only *bona fide* vacancies can be filled by the Board. Mere absence of a member from a meeting does not create a vacancy.
3. All portions of reports or resolutions which call for definite action or appropriations shall be made a part of the minutes with the action taken thereon.
4. The Board may refer any requests coming before it to the Executive Committee for investigation and report; may refer any plan or policy upon which it has taken definite action to the Executive Committee with power to administer or carry into effect. All actions taken by the Executive Committee under such reference to be reported back for record.
5. Before approving the budget for the current year the Board of Directors shall have a statement from the Board of Trustees that such budget comes within the available funds. The approval of such budget by the Board of Directors is not an appropriation, but when approved such budget shall become a part of the minutes.

6. In making appropriations for the current year the Board of Directors shall be guided by the budget as approved and by the report of the Board of Trustees on the amount of funds available to meet such appropriations.
7. In making appropriations for special committees the Board of Directors shall be guided by the recommendations of the Executive Committee as approved by the Representative Assembly.
8. All bills approved for payment by the Board of Directors shall be signed and presented to the Board of Trustees by the President and Secretary of the Association acting under the authority of the Board of Directors.
9. The new Board of Directors shall at its first regular meeting appropriate the money necessary to meet the requirements of the salary schedule of the central office.
10. The Board of Directors shall empower the Executive Committee to investigate in advance of each annual meeting the accommodations offered by the various cities asking for the next annual meeting. The Secretary of the Association and his staff shall assist the Executive Committee in making such investigations. Any selection shall not be final until approved by the President of the Association.
11. All appropriations shall be made in the following language:
There is hereby appropriated out of the current funds of the Association, not otherwise appropriated the sum of.....dollars for , provided that in judgment of the Board of Trustees so much is available for such purpose.

It was moved and seconded that said rules from 1 to 11 be adopted. There was discussion on rule No. 11.

The chairman then announced that in order to have more time to deliberate on this rule No. 11, if no objection, he would appoint a committee, consisting of *Mr. Lamkin, Dr. Claxton, and Mr. Saunders*, to take this rule over for further consideration and report back at the next meeting of the board. No objection. The committee was appointed. On request of *Mr. Lamkin, Dr. Claxton* was made the chairman.

The adoption of rules 1 to 10 was unanimously carried.

The chairman then called for the Secretary's report. Following the presentation of the report Chairman Blair stated: You have heard the splendid report of the Secretary, and before action is taken upon it, it has occurred to me the most appropriate way would be to appoint a committee to which to assign the recommendations. Is there objection to that procedure? There being none I shall appoint the following committee: *Dr. Strayer, Mr. Wannamaker, and Miss Nielson*, making a committee of three, who with the Secretary will go through the report and assign the various bodies who should have these recommendations referred to them. I feel the Secretary is to be complimented on that very fine report, and in his modest way he has made some great, big suggestions. The committee was appointed.

Mr. Lamkin then made the following report and recommendations concerning retirement plan for headquarters staff:

Report and Recommendation Concerning Retirement Plan for Headquarters Staff

Proposals Received—In accordance with the authorization given at Dallas, proposals have been obtained for the initiation of a retirement plan for the headquarters staff. The following organizations submitted plans:

1. Equitable Life Insurance Society
2. Metropolitan Life Insurance Company
3. The Sun Life Insurance Company of Canada
4. Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association of America (Carnegie Foundation)

Copies of each proposal submitted are in the hands of the Executive Committee.

Principal features of proposals—The plans submitted follow the general plan of the printed preliminary report submitted at Dallas and provide for:

1. Retirement on life annuity at age 65.
2. Death benefits to employees' dependents when death occurs previous to retirement.
3. Protection against permanent and total disability occurring before age 65.
4. Withdrawal benefits to employees and Association in event of leaving service with Association.

Cost—The plans provide for annual deposits from the employer (the Association), amounting to five percent of the present salary roll of permanent employees, which is approximately \$7000, and deductions from the salaries of the employees of five percent to provide a like amount—\$7000.

The total cost therefore is \$14,000, or ten percent of salary roll, of which one half is directly paid by the Association and one half from deductions from salaries.

Recommendations—In moving toward the final selection and initiation of one of the proposals submitted the following steps should be taken:

1. A small committee should be appointed to select one of the four proposals, and authorized to arrange for putting the selected proposal into effect.
2. An appropriation of \$4000 should be included in the budget for the year 1927-28 for the purpose of covering the costs of putting the retirement plan into effect.

This amount will be sufficient since by the time the final arrangements are made part of the current fiscal year will have elapsed.

Future action—Once the plan is put into effect the annual cost to the Association will be five percent of salary roll, or approximately \$7000 a year. This amount, or such increase as increases in salary roll require, should be included in the budget of each fiscal year. A similar amount will be provided from salary deductions.

It was moved and seconded that the report be adopted, including the provision to appoint a committee with full power to complete arrangements and to put the plan into effect.

Discussion followed.

Mr. Lamkin stated that the Board of Directors might well determine certain things included in this plan, whether it should be permissible or compulsory retirement, and other matters of that kind. (Discussion.) It was suggested that a committee of the Board of Directors recommend instructions. *Mr. Lamkin* accepted this as a part of the motion.

The chairman said: "The motion is to adopt the general plan as presented by the Executive Committee with its recommendation of the establishment of a plan of retirement allowances for the headquarters office with a small committee clothed with power to put the plan into effect. The motion carries with it that another committee be appointed by the Board of Directors to study these general provisions of the plan, and report back any detailed recommendations it sees fit to make." The motion was put and unanimously carried.

The chairman appointed the committee to consider this plan, and to report back not later than the meeting of the Board of Directors on Friday morning at 9 o'clock, as follows: *Miss Pyrtle*, chairman of the retirement allowance committee; *Mr. Hill* of Arkansas, *Mr. Dyke* of New Jersey, *Mr. Hunter* of California, and *Miss McSkimmon* of Massachusetts. He requested *Mr. Lamkin* to serve with this committee and give it the benefit of his investigations.

Mr. Siders, chairman of the budget committee, was requested to put in the budget for the plan, four thousand dollars for this year.

Miss Muir then presented Report of Committee on Ethics. A motion was passed to accept the report and to continue the committee.

On motion the Board of Directors adjourned to meet at 2 o'clock in the afternoon.

Seattle, Washington, Saturday Afternoon, July 2, 1927

The meeting was called to order by the chairman, *Francis G. Blair*, at 2:30 o'clock, same place as morning session. The following members answered to roll call:

Mary McSkimmon, Massachusetts; *Jesse H. Newlon*, Colorado; *George D. Strayer*, New York; *A. B. Hill*, Arkansas; *W. B. Mooney*, Colorado; *John A. Young*, Connecticut; *H. V. Holloway*, Delaware; *W. S. Cawthon*, Florida; *Martha A. Whitacre*, Indiana; *Annie C. Woodward*, Massachusetts; *Effie MacGregor*, Minnesota; *M. C. Lefler*, Nebraska; *John Gault*, New Hampshire; *Charles B. Dyke*, New Jersey; *Minnie J. Nielson*, North Dakota; *Majorie Oliver*, Oklahoma; *Mrs. Susanne Homes Carter*, Oregon; *George W. Wannamaker*, South Carolina; *J. O. Webb*, Texas; *P. L. Harned*, Tennessee; *D. W. Parratt*, Utah; *Caroline Woodruff*, Vermont; *Joseph H. Saunders*, Virginia; *E. G. Doudna*, Wisconsin.

Audit Committee—The chairman announced the appointment of the following audit committee: *Mr. Lamkin*, chairman; *Florence M. Hale*, and *James H. Kelley*. The report of the Treasurer and Board of Trustees was referred to the committee.

At this point *Director Strayer* read the following recommendations on the Secretary's Report:

American Education Week—The officers of the Association are authorized to express to the President of the United States the appreciation of 170,000 members for the proclamation which he has issued for the observation of American Education Week and they are requested to invite him to issue a special proclamation, preferably in September, for the observation of the week, November 7-13, for the year 1927.

The Secretary, with the cooperation of the chairman of the Committee on International Relations, is authorized to correspond with the National Education Association and with the educational authorities of other nations on the advantages of arranging to have an education week in every nation when particular attention shall be given to acquainting the public with the work which the schools are doing and with their pressing needs.

Salaries of College Professors—The Secretary is instructed to cooperate with the officers of state and local associations in acquainting the public and the college authorities with the importance of retaining an efficient faculty in the college and with the necessity of paying better salaries to instructors, assistant professors, and to professors to accomplish that end.

He is further authorized to use the Research Division in collecting information on the question of salaries in colleges as such information is needed by state and local associations in promoting better pay for members of college faculties.

The report was then unanimously adopted and the committee discharged.

Mr. Jesse H. Newlon, chairman of Committee on Committees, stated that the committee was not ready to report, but would probably be ready to report later in the week, perhaps Friday afternoon.

Revision of Departments—*Chairman Blair* said: The next item in the order of business is the report from *Randall J. Condon*, chairman of the Committee on Revision of Departments. His report is prepared in his thorough and methodical way, and has been sent in by him. I have glanced it through and it might be well to read it, but it is rather extended.

On motion the report was received and placed on file. On motion it was decided to accept the Department of Secondary Principals with three sections, principals of senior high schools, principals of junior high schools, and principals of junior colleges.

Retirement Allowances—*E. Ruth Pyrtle* then presented the report of Committee on Retirement Allowances. The report was accepted and a motion was passed to continue the committee. (Report printed in *Proceedings*.)

Dr. P. P. Claxton, Tulsa, Oklahoma, then made a report of the Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions of which he is chairman.

He submitted in printed form the changes recommended by the Committee explaining item by item and stating that notice would be given now and the changes would be voted on at the next annual convention. The report will be printed in the manual and in the *Proceedings*.

Dr. Claxton's Report—Dr. Claxton then read the following report of the special Committee appointed to report on Rule 11 of Board of Directors, as follows:

Before making any appropriations for any fiscal year, the Board of Directors shall have in hand and shall have considered all requests for appropriations for the year, and shall also have in hand an estimate from the Secretary and the Board of Trustees of the probable income for the year.

Appropriations shall not be made in excess of this estimate—nor shall subsequent or supplemental appropriations be made unless the income of the Association for the year is sufficient to pay the same.

All appropriations shall be made in the following language:

There is hereby appropriated out of the current funds of the Association, not otherwise appropriated the sum ofDollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary for.....

(Discussion.)

The acceptance of the report and the adoption of rule 11 as amended was duly moved, seconded and unanimously carried.

Mr. Siders read a letter from *Dr. David Starr Jordan*, who was unable to attend the convention. It was moved, seconded and carried that the Secretary of the Association be instructed to send a letter of goodwill to *Dr. Jordan*.

An adjournment was then taken.

On adjourning the chairman announced the next meeting of the Board of Directors for Monday evening, 8 o'clock, July 4, in the same place.

Seattle, Washington, Monday Evening, July 4, 1927

The meeting was called to order by the president at 8 P. M., in Parlor A of the Olympic Hotel. The following directors were present:

Henry Lester Smith, Indiana; *Walter R. Siders*, Idaho; *P. P. Claxton*, Oklahoma; *Frederick M. Hunter*, California; *Olive M. Jones*, New York; *Mary McSkimmon*, Massachusetts; *Jesse H. Newlon*, Colorado; *Mrs. Josephine Corliss Preston*, Washington; *George D. Strayer*, New York; *Charl O. Williams*, District of Columbia; *J. D. Williams*, Alabama; *J. A. Sexson*, Arizona; *A. B. Hill*, Arkansas; *Anna Graeme Fraser*, California; *W. B. Mooney*, Colorado; *John A. Young*, Connecticut; *H. V. Holloway*, Delaware; *Harry English*, District of Columbia; *W. S. Cawthon*, Florida; *Fort E. Land*, Georgia; *Charles F. Deinst*, Idaho; *Martha A. Whitacre*, Indiana; *Thomas R. Roberts*, Iowa; *M. E. Pearson*, Kansas; *Loretta R. Doerr*, Louisiana; *William Burdick*, Maryland; *Annie C. Woodward*, Massachusetts; *Effe MacGregor*, Minnesota; *H. V. Cooper*, Mississippi; *Thomas J. Walker*, Missouri; *R. J. Cunningham*, Montana; *M. C. Lefler*, Nebraska; *John Gault*, New Hampshire; *W. H. Holmes*, New York; *R. J. Kiefer*, Ohio; *Majorie Oliver*, Oklahoma; *Mrs. Susanne Homes Carter*, Oregon; *Charles E. Dickey*, Pennsylvania; *Francisco Vizcarrondo*, Porto Rico; *George W. Wannamaker*, South Carolina; *N. E. Steele*, South Dakota; *P. L. Harned*, Tennessee; *J. O. Webb*, Texas; *D. W. Parratt*, Utah; *Caroline Woodruff*, Vermont; *Joseph H. Saunders*, Virginia; *W. A. Rosier*, West Virginia; *E. G. Doudna*, Wisconsin.

At the request of the chairman, *Dr. P. P. Claxton* then made a statement of the important features of the Report of Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions, which report is being printed and will be ready for distribution on Wednesday.

A general discussion followed in which the following participated: *Mr. Hunter* of California, *Mr. Kiefer* of Ohio, *Mr. Rosier* of West Virginia, *Mr. Newlon* of Colorado, *Mr. Mooney* of Colorado, and *Mr. Wannamaker* of South Carolina.

Chairman Blair then stated that owing to the lateness of the hour the debate would have to be closed, and stating that the printed report of the committee headed by *Mr. Claxton* would later be distributed to all delegates and time given for consideration before any action is taken.

On invitation of *Chairman Blair, Dr. Walter R. Siders*, Chairman, Board of Trustees, then discussed briefly the Report of the Board of Trustees and the Budget Committee, stating the reports were being printed, and would be presented later.

Homes for Retired Teachers—On invitation of *Chairman Blair, Miss Jones* of New York made a report on Plans for Homes for Retired Teachers.

After outlining plans in detail *Miss Jones* moved that the Board of Directors authorize the request of the Community Trust of New York that they undertake this investigation for the committee.

Chairman Blair stated that at the Dallas meeting this was put under the Board of Trustees, and that the motion would properly come before the Board of Trustees,

Committee on Elections—The Chairman then appointed as a Committee on Elections: *William J. Sanders* of Massachusetts; *Frank E. Reynolds* of Ohio; and *Mrs. Armsbruster* of Illinois; to meet at 8 o'clock Tuesday morning.

Teacher Tenure—At the invitation of the Chairman, *Mr. Fred M. Hunter*, Chairman, presented the committee report on Teacher Tenure in the United States. Discussion followed.

The Chairman stated he thought the Committee on Teacher Tenure should be a continuing committee, stressing the importance of the committee and complimenting it upon its work. (This report will be printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Retirement Allowances for Staff—On invitation of the Chairman, *Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle* presented the following report of the Special Committee on Retirement Allowances for the headquarters staff, explaining that the other members of the committee were responsible for the use of *Mr. Lamkin's* name and her own in No. 1:

Report of Special Committee of Retirement Allowances for the Headquarters Staff—In consideration of *Mr. Lamkin's* report for the committee appointed at the Dallas meeting, the special committee desires to approve that report and in addition to its approval, make the following recommendations:

1. That a committee to consist of the following: *Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle*, Chairman of Committee of One Hundred on Retirement, and *Mr. Uel W. Lamkin*, Chairman of Subcommittee of Executive Committee of the N. E. A., be appointed with power to carry out the recommendations of the Dallas Report and the following supplementary provisions.
2. That an American life insurance or commercial company such as The Equitable Assurance Society be selected for the annuity plan.
3. That retirement for both men and women be optional by the employee after sixty years of age and that retirement become compulsory for both men and women after seventy years of age.
4. Membership in the fund shall be compulsory and in case employment is discontinued, withdrawal from the fund will be automatic and the withdrawal of cash benefits to such employee be limited to the amount of the investment of such employee together with its earnings.
5. The plan shall include favorable options to the insured at the time of retirement.

Respectfully submitted,

MARY MCSKIMMON, *Massachusetts*
CHARLES B. DYKE, *New Jersey*
A. B. HILL, *Arkansas*
E. RUTH PYRTLE, *Chairman.*

The adoption of the report was then duly moved, and seconded.

A discussion was then had in which certain members objected to compulsory retirement at any age.

The motion for adoption of the plan authorizing the special committee to let the contract and put the plan into operation. Seconded. Carried.

Expenses of Directors—At the invitation of the Chairman *Mr. Joseph H. Saunders* then read the following report of the Committee on Expenses of Directors:

Your Committee on Expenses of Directors desires to report as follows:

Your Committee believes that if the Board of Directors of the National Education Association is to function as it is evident that the charter intends it to function, it will be necessary for the Association to pay the traveling expenses of the members of the Board when called to meet in annual or special session.

This committee further believes that it is essential to the welfare of the Association that the Board of Directors should function largely in directing its operations and the committee believes that the cost of transportation necessary to secure full meetings of the Board will be funds wisely invested by the Association.

We have made a careful study of the plans of payment of traveling expenses used by the United States Government for those in its employ or those traveling in its interests. The Government has a very elaborate system of rules imposing many restrictions, going into minute details, with an involved procedure that is difficult of administration. We believe that such a cumbersome procedure should not be imposed upon the officers of the Association to administer. We, therefore, propose a very simple scheme for the payment of expenses of directors in attendance upon the meetings of the Association as follows:

The Association should pay:

First: Railroad fare for the round trip by the most economical, usually traveled route, at the reduced rate given the Association, or by tourist rate where such rate is less. Where no special rate is given, at the fixed rate for such travel.

Second: Pullman fare for one standard lower berth for round trip.

Third: Subsistence at \$8 per diem for such number of days as the Board is required to be in attendance. A receipt for transportation purchased should be submitted on a form prescribed by the Association.

Your Committee has not included in this recommendation allowance for taxicab fares, or meals en route for the reason that the Committee believes that the directors should pay some part of the expense themselves for the privilege of attending the general meetings of the Association and because the items numerated greatly vary in character and are difficult to check by the disbursing officer.

Your Committee recommends that the above action apply to the meeting in Seattle in 1927 and that the sum of the ten thousand dollars (\$10,000) or so much thereof as may be necessary, be, and the same is hereby appropriated out of the current funds of the Association for the purpose of carrying out this recommendation.

Respectfully submitted, JOSEPH H. SAUNDERS; MARY C. C. BRADFORD; M. E. PEARSON.

It was moved and seconded that the Board adopt the report. Discussion.

The Chairman then stated since there was a difference of opinion on the report, if no objection, he would put the matter over until tomorrow at 2 o'clock. There was no objection.

The Chairman then called on *Dr. Davidson* to report for the Legislative Commission and the work it has contemplated and accomplished. The report of progress and the new interest in the New Education Bill were features of the report.

The Chairman then called upon *Dr. Russell*, chairman of the Committee on International Relations for a report. *Dr. Russell* said that the Committee reports progress. He outlined plans for the Toronto meeting. The chairman expressed the appreciation of the directors for the report and for Chairman Russell's leadership.

A motion was then passed to adjourn to meet Tuesday afternoon, 3 o'clock.

Seattle, Washington, Tuesday Afternoon, July 5, 1927

President, *Francis G. Blair* called the meeting to order at 3 o'clock Tuesday afternoon, July 5, 1927, in Parlor A, Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington.

The following members reported to roll call:

Mary McSkimmon, Massachusetts; *Walter R. Siders*, Idaho; *P. P. Claxton*, Oklahoma; *Frederick M. Hunter*, California; *Olive M. Jones*, New York; *George D. Strayer*, New York; *J. A. Sexson*, Arizona; *A. B. Hill*, Arkansas; *Anna G. Fraser*, California; *W. B. Mooney*, Colorado; *John A. Young*, Connecticut; *H. V. Holloway*, Delaware; *Harry English*, District of Columbia; *W. S. Cawthon*, Florida; *Charles F. Dienst*, Idaho; *A. L. Whittenberg*, Illinois; *Martha A. Whitacre*, Indiana; *Thomas R. Roberts*, Iowa; *M. E. Pearson*, Kansas; *Loretta R. Doerr*, Louisiana; *William Burdick*, Maryland; *Annie C. Woodward*, Massachusetts; *Effie MacGregor*, Minnesota; *H. V. Cooper*, Mississippi; *Thomas J. Walker*, Missouri; *R. J. Cunningham*, Montana; *M. C. Lefler*, Nebraska; *H. A. Whiteneck*, Nevada; *John Gault*, New Hampshire; *Charles B. Dyke*, New Jersey; *W. H. Holmes*, New York; *Minnie J. Nielson*, North Dakota; *R. J. Kiefer*, Ohio; *Majorie Oliver*, Oklahoma; *Charles E. Dickey*, Pennsylvania; *Francisco Vizcarrondo*, Porto Rico; *George W. Wannamaker*, South Carolina; *N. E. Steele*, South Dakota; *P. L. Harned*, Tennessee; *J. O. Webb*, Texas; *D. W. Parratt*, Utah; *Caroline Woodruff*, Vermont; *Joseph H. Saunders*, Virginia; *Joseph Rosier*, West Virginia; *E. G. Doudna*, Wisconsin.

The Treasurer, *Dean Smith*, presented his report for 1926-27 in printed form and moved its adoption. The motion was seconded and after discussion it was adopted.

The chairman of the Board of Trustees presented the auditor's report covering all transactions of the Board of Trustees and of the Secretary's office. The report was approved.

Budget Committee Report—The chairman of the Budget Committee presented the budget requests and asked for instructions as to whether the budget should be scaled to \$412,000, the amount of the income for 1926-27. Discussion followed.

Mr. Newlon stated he did not think the delegates should be financed for these conventions, and that it is more important to finance the Board of Directors in their expenses than the delegates to the Representative Assembly. He doubted whether income is sufficient to do so. He also thought it might be wise for the directors to defer paying their expenses to prevent an overlarge budget.

Mr. Saunders made a motion to scale it to bring the total within the \$412,000. The motion was seconded by *Miss Jones*. Discussion followed. *Mr. Hunter* moved to amend by providing that sufficient funds to balance this budget be taken out of the surplus.

Mr. Saunders withdrew his motion to second *Mr. Hunter's* motion.

Miss Jones, however, refused to withdraw her second because she wanted to be recorded in the negative as to "dipping into the surplus."

Mr. Saunders then seconded *Mr. Hunter's* amendment.

The following participated in the discussion: *Mr. Newlon*, *Miss Jones*, *Dr. Siders*, *Mr. Saunders*, *Mr. Wannamaker*, *Mr. Burdick*, and *Mr. Parratt*.

The chairman explained that the amendment provides that we adopt this budget which calls for the amount set down in the report with the understanding that when the Board of Directors come to appropriate the money to meet these needs, if the amount appropriated exceeds the income for the year, that the excess only should be taken out of the surplus. The question was then put to a vote. Carried. The motion was then put as amended. Carried.

The chairman instructed the committee to have the report printed in pamphlet form as last year.

Expenses of Directors—*Mr. Saunders* was called upon for the report of the committee appointed at Dallas in reference to the directors' expenses. He ex-

plained that the report provided for the payment of expenses for the railroad fare by the nearest traveled route at the reduced rate given to the National Education Association, or by tourist rates where such rates were less, or by the regular rates where no special rate was given, for a standard lower berth for the round trip, and for a per diem of \$8 for each of the days the Board was required to be in attendance upon this meeting, and that would be seven days, or \$56. He moved the adoption of the report as presented yesterday. The motion was seconded. Discussion.

The chairman then put the motion and declared that it carried and stated that the plan was adopted and should be made a matter of the minutes. (The rules are in the minutes of yesterday's meeting.)

A motion was then passed to continue the committee for the purpose of making an explicit expense account for the use of the directors. The chairman announced that the committee would be appointed by the new president.

Miss McSkimmon, chairman of the Committee on Colored Schools, next presented the report of her committee. It was a report of progress. The chairman stated that he believed the committee ought to be continued. *Mr. Hunter* moved that the committee be continued. Seconded. Carried. It was stated that the new president would appoint the committee.

The Secretary then moved that the minutes of the Philadelphia and of the two Dallas meetings previously presented be approved. Seconded. Carried.

The Secretary then made the following statement: "I believe it will be absolutely impossible for us to make funds available here in Seattle to pay the expenses of the Board of Directors, so that if it is agreeable, I would like to send blanks to the directors to have the bills paid in the usual way."

The chairman asked whether any one would be embarrassed if the expenses are not paid at this time. (No response.) The Secretary was instructed to carry out the plan as mentioned.

A motion was passed by a unanimous vote expressing appreciation of the fine, painstaking and able work of *President Blair* for the year.

Chairman Blair said: "I thank you very much for the kind expression. The pleasure has been my own in working with this fine group of men and women." He then declared the meeting adjourned.

F. G. BLAIR, *President*.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF NEW BOARD OF DIRECTORS

Seattle, Washington, Friday Afternoon, July 8, 1927

A meeting of the new Board of Directors of the National Education Association was held at 2 o'clock Friday afternoon, July 8, 1927, at the Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington, the newly elected president, *Miss Cornelia S. Adair*, presiding. Roll call showed the following directors present; *J. D. Williams*, Alabama; *J. A. Sexson*, Arizona; *J. P. Womack*, Arkansas; *A. R. Clifton*, California; *John Young*, Connecticut; *Harry English*, District of Columbia; *Oren E. Long*, Hawaii; *C. F. Dienst*, Idaho; *A. L. Whittenberg*, Illinois; *Charles F. Miller*, Indiana; *Thomas R. Roberts*, Iowa; *M. E. Pearson*, Kansas; *R. E. Williams*, Kentucky; *William B. Jack*, Maine; *Annie C. Woodward*, Massachusetts; *Thomas J. Walker*, Missouri; *R. J. Cunningham*, Montana; *M. C. Lefler*, Nebraska; *Charles B. Dyke*, New Jersey; *Perley L. Horne*, New Hampshire; *Bertha Knemeyer*, Nevada; *Marie Balling*, New Mexico; *Minnie J. Nielson*, North Dakota; *A. C. Eldredge*, Ohio; *Francisco Vixcarrondo*, Porto Rico; *George W. Wannamaker*, South Carolina; *P. L. Harned*, Tennessee; *B. A. Fowler*, Utah; *C. H. Dempsey*, Vermont; *Joseph H. Saunders*, Virginia; *T. R. Cole*, Washington; *Joseph Rosier*, West Virginia; *E. G. Doudna*, Wisconsin; *David A. Ward*, Delaware; *T. W. Andrews*, North Carolina; *Effie MacGregor*, Minnesota; *W. B. Mooney*, Colorado. Ex-officio directors present: *George D. Strayer*, New York; *Jesse H. Newlon*, Colorado;

Olive M. Jones, New York; *Charles O. Williams*, Washington, D. C.; *Francis G. Blair*, Illinois; *P. P. Claxton*, Oklahoma; *Walter R. Siders*, Idaho.

On suggestion of the chairman it was moved by *Miss Jones* that the usual order of business be suspended to permit those who desired, to extend invitations to the Association for the 1928 convention. Seconded. Carried.

Location of the Next Convention—*Miss MacGregor* extended an invitation to the Association to hold the 1928 convention at Minneapolis. *Mr. Webster* spoke in favor of Minneapolis.

Mr. Dyke extended an invitation to the Association to hold the 1928 convention at Atlantic City. *Miss Catherine E. C. Carrigan* also spoke in favor of Atlantic City for 1928, and if the Association decided to hold its convention at Minneapolis for 1928 she desired to extend the invitation for Atlantic City for 1929.

Mr. A. R. Clifton invited the Association to hold its convention for 1932 at Los Angeles.

Mr. F. E. Reynolds of Ohio, asked for the 1929 convention at Columbus, Ohio, promising ample hotel advantages and guaranteeing the best provisions for meetings and for exhibits that could be made in the United States.

Marie Gugle, assistant superintendent of schools at Columbus, Ohio, spoke for that city, for the 1929 convention.

Mr. Saunders of Virginia stated that any city inviting the Association to hold its convention, should guarantee that there would be no boosting of hotel rates during the convention week, and desired assurance that that should be done.

Miss MacGregor stated she could say quite confidently that there would be no boosting of rates at Minneapolis. *Mr. Reynolds* gave similar assurances for Columbus.

Mr. Newlon moved that the question of location be referred to the Executive Committee. Seconded.

Mr. Blair stated that the Board of Directors could express its preference as to the convention city for 1928, and leave it to the Executive Committee to determine such points as hotel rates.

Mr. Newlon stated he was talking only about hotel rates and not about the place of meeting. The motion that the Board leave the matter of hotel rates and other details to the Executive Committee was then put and carried. The Secretary presented other requests that were not considered because there was no personal representative present.

Location—Minneapolis—It was then moved that the sense of this Board is that the convention be held in Minneapolis next summer, provided the proper arrangements can be made concerning hotel rates, etc. Seconded. Carried.

Budget again—The chairman called upon *Dr. Siders* to present the matter of appropriations for 1927-28.

Mr. Wannamaker stated that having heard the budget matter many times he would move that the budget be adopted as presented. Seconded.

Mr. English asked whether any changes should be made in the budget; and *Dr. Siders* explained that there were changes to be made whereupon *Mr. Wannamaker* stated he would include the changes in his motion. The motion was carried.

The chairman explained that the budget as a whole had been adopted to stand except where changes are made and called upon *Dr. Siders* to indicate the changes to be made. *Dr. Siders* recommended a larger salary increase for one of the employees.

Mr. Newlon raised the question as to whether the Executive Committee should not make such adjustments as this and moved to refer the question to the Executive Committee with power to act. Seconded. Carried.

Dr. Claxton asked whether a number of the committees had not been discontinued.

Dr. Siders requested *Mr. Newlon*, chairman of the Committee on Committees, to go over the list of committees and see whether any committees in the list for

appropriations had been dropped. He explained that the Budget Committee had formulated its report without knowing the recommendations on committees.

Mr. Newlon stated that certain committees had been referred to the departments but that amounts allowed should stand for the use of the department committee. The departments concerned were without funds. He said the Editorial Council, for which \$50 had been put in the budget, had been dropped.

The chairman asked whether *Mr. Newlon* desired to make a motion to remove the \$50 from the budget and that the amount for department committees go to the departments concerned. He then made the motion. Seconded. Carried.

A motion was made by *Mr. Blair* to appropriate from the current funds a sum of money to meet the salary schedule in the central office referring the details of the adjustment to the Executive Committee. Seconded. Carried. *Mr. Blair* in answer to a question explained that a separate motion for each division was not necessary the main point here being to give the Executive Committee power to make adjustments. The Secretary stated that the proper amounts could be included in the general appropriation to comply with the motion just passed.

Mr. English moved to formally appropriate the amounts in the budget committee's report in harmony with the action taken. *Dr. Siders* called attention to the form of motion required, which was accepted and the Secretary was requested to put the motion in form showing the amount for each item and the total amount for all expenses. The Secretary then recorded the motion in the following form:

Adoption of Budget—Moved by *Mr. English* that there is hereby appropriated out of the current funds of the Association, not otherwise appropriated, the total amount under each item in the budget or so much as may be necessary for the purposes as indicated which is as follows:

Payment of delegates' expenses	\$20,000.00
Expenses of directors	12,000.00
Executive Committee	6,000.00
Board of Trustees	412.53
General Secretary's Office	22,505.62
Division of Accounts	8,425.00
Business Division	15,101.47
Physical Plant	20,837.69
General Office expenses	7,236.78
Furniture and Fixtures	5,900.00
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership	34,000.00
Division of Records and Membership	32,952.00
Field Division	17,789.00
Division of Publications	27,378.45
Division of Research	38,701.00
Division of Classroom Service	7,022.00
Division of Administrative Service	6,900.00
Journal of the N. E. A.	96,769.44
Research Bulletin	7,750.00
Proceedings	9,191.81
Publications and Reports	2,100.00
Annual Convention	6,330.19
Membership in World Federation and American Council of Education..	1,100.00
Special Appropriations (Committees)	32,979.90

Total appropriations for all purposes \$439,432.88

The motion was seconded. Carried.

The chairman requested that the records show the action in due form and that it show committee appropriations.

The following is the distribution of the special appropriations:

Special Appropriations:

American Education Week	\$400.00
Children's Literature	50.00
Foreign Relations (Publicity)	800.00
Health Education (Department of Health)	400.00
Legislative Commission	12,329.90
Department of Classroom Teachers	8,500.00
Department Elementary School Principals	2,000.00
Tenure	100.00
Committee on Retirement Allowances	100.00
Behavior Problem—Child	100.00
Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions	1,000.00
Professional Ethics	800.00
Visual Education (Department)	100.00
Reorganization of Departments	100.00
Home for Retired Teachers	500.00
Department of Adult Education	500.00
Kindergarten Education	200.00
Colored Schools	200.00
Committee on Committees	100.00
Museums	50.00
National Council Education	500.00
Retirement Allowances	4,000.00
Total	\$32,829.90

Members Executive Committee—The chairman stated that the next order of business was the election of the members of the Executive Committee.

Miss Jones nominated *Frank E. Reynolds* of Columbus, Ohio. Seconded by *Mr. Mooney*.

Miss Hammond of Portland nominated *Julia Spooner* of Portland, Oregon. Seconded.

Mr. Blair was called to the chair, and *Miss Adair* resigned as a member of the Board of Trustees. It was moved that the resignation be accepted. Seconded. Carried. *Miss Adair* then again took the chair. Ballots were distributed for the vote on the election of a member of the Executive Committee. The chairman stated that while the ballots were being marked and collected, nominations were in order for vacancies in the Board of Trustees.

Members, Board of Trustees—*Mr. Saunders* of Virginia nominated for the four-year term as trustee, *Walter R. Siders* of Idaho. Seconded by *C. F. Dienst* of Idaho. Seconded by others. *Dr. Strayer* moved that nominations be closed, and the Secretary be instructed to cast the unanimous ballot for *Dr. Siders* as trustee for the four-year term. Seconded. Carried. The Secretary then cast the unanimous ballot of the Board of Directors for *Dr. Walter R. Siders* of Idaho as trustee, and he was declared elected for the four-year term.

Miss MacGregor nominated *Miss Sullivan* of Massachusetts for the unexpired term of three years as trustee. Seconded by other states.

Mr. English nominated *Miss Woodruff* of Massachusetts. Seconded by other states.

Mr. Wannamaker nominated *Kate V. Wofford* of South Carolina. Seconded.

Ballots were passed around among the Board of Directors for the unexpired term of three years as trustee for these nominees.

The chairman announced the results of the vote for Executive Committee: *Mr. Reynolds* 41, *Miss Spooner*, 7; stating that it became her duty to announce the election of *Mr. Reynolds* the member-elect of the Executive Committee.

Mr. Smith was called upon to report for the Committee on Council Membership. He made the following report:

The Council—You understand the National Council of Education is composed

of two bodies as far as membership is concerned, three as a matter of fact, but ten members each year are elected by the Board of Directors, and the committee would like to place in nomination the names to fill those ten vacancies, and two others which have been declared vacant because of resignations. The ten whose terms expired in 1927 are: *W. C. Bagley*, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; *Milton Bennion*, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah; *J. C. Churchill*, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Salem, Oregon; *Agnes E. Doherty*, 2078 Summit Avenue, St. Paul, Minnesota; *Isabel Lancaster Eckles*, Superintendent of Schools, Santa Fe, New Mexico; *Anna Laura Force*, Principal, Lincoln School, Denver, Colorado; *J. W. Searson*, State University, Lincoln, Nebraska; *Walter R. Siders*, Superintendent of Schools, Pocatello, Idaho; *H. B. Wilson*, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California; *Robert H. Wright*, President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, North Carolina.

Mr. Searson's place is vacated by his death, and the committee is recommending the reelection of all those members whose names have just been read, with the exception of *Mr. Searson*, and has suggested the name of *William F. Russell*, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, be placed in his stead.

There are two resignations, one by *Will C. Wood*, whose term expires in 1929, and we are recommending *May Trumper*, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana, be elected for that; and the other by *Thomas A. Mott*, and we are recommending for that position *Mr. Joseph H. Saunders*, Superintendent of schools, Newport News, Virginia.

Mr. Smith moved the adoption of the report, and the election of these members. Seconded. Carried.

Regulating Expenses.—*Mr. Blair* made the following statement: I want to bring up another matter. One of the most delicate and embarrassing situations I have had to face as president is the signing of the bills for traveling expenses, and the difficulty is in this, we never have adopted any kind of a definite schedule by which those traveling under the authority of the Association could be guided, and individual bills constantly come up to *Mr. Allan* and *Mr. Crabtree* and to the President and the President of the Board of Trustees about which there is some doubt, and I therefore move that the President appoint from the Board of Directors a committee of three that shall go into this matter and make out a definite schedule of items which this Association will meet for those traveling under the auspices of the Association. It is very embarrassing to hold out certain items, because the person contracting them is acting in good faith, and I think we should clear up the matter, so you will not have some of the embarrassments I have had. Seconded.

The Secretary suggested the motion be broad enough to include such matters as dinners, to be paid out of Association funds.

Mr. Blair accepted the suggestion.

Dr. Siders asked whether the committee would determine who should incur expenses.

After remarks by *Miss Jones* and others the motion was put to a vote. Carried.

The chairman stated that she understood there was a committee of the directors that took these matters under consideration at the Dallas meeting, but this is perhaps a much broader committee. She said she would appoint a committee in a few moments.

Dr. Siders then said: This cannot be settled until the new Board of Directors meets again. Would it be out of order to suggest that this Board of Directors authorize some one to set up a temporary arrangement until they can mature this permanent arrangement? I would like to urge prompt attention and an immediate determination upon something that can be printed and disseminated so there will be at least a temporary arrangement.

Mr. Newlon moved that the matter be referred to the Executive Committee with power to act until the special committee makes its report. Seconded. Carried.

The chairman then announced the committee of the Board of Directors as follows: *Miss Woodruff* of Massachusetts, *Dr. Siders* of Idaho, and *Mr. Lefler* of Nebraska.

The vote on the election of a trustee was given: *Miss Sullivan* 18 votes, *Miss Woodruff* 11 and *Miss Wofford* 16, so it was necessary to vote again.

Miss Woodruff withdrew her name as a candidate for trustee, and ballots were again distributed.

As *Dr. Siders* could not serve on the committee just appointed, the chairman appointed *Mr. Saunders* of Virginia in his place, but requested *Dr. Siders* to serve as consultant member.

The vote on trustee was then announced—*Miss Wofford* 24 votes, and *Miss Sullivan* 21. *Miss Wofford* of South Carolina was therefore declared elected to fill the unexpired term of three years on the Board of Trustees.

Mr. Mooney said: Did anything come up on *Mr. Saunders'* committee? I understood that committee was not continued. I wish to make a motion that the committee be continued and its work be extended to the matter of referring a recommendation with reference to the attendance of delegates to the Delegate Assembly of the Representative Assembly, so we will all get on somewhat of a uniform basis.

The chairman, with the permission of *Mr. Mooney*, referred the suggestion to the committee just appointed of which *Miss Woodruff* is chairman, consisting of *Miss Woodruff*, *Mr. Saunders*, and *Mr. Lefler*. *Dr. Siders* acting as consultant.

The secretary here read a resignation by *Joseph Rosier*, as follows: "July 8, 1927, Board of Directors, National Education Association. I hereby tender my resignation as a member of this board to take effect August 1, 1927, and recommend the appointment of *J. H. Hickman*, Superintendent of Schools, Hinton, West Virginia, to my place. Signed, *Joseph Rosier*."

Mr. Saunders moved that the resignation be accepted and that *Mr. Hickman* be elected in his stead. Seconded. Carried.

The following report was presented by the Secretary in the absence of the chairman of the committee and referred to the department on visual education and to the committee on the revision of departments to be reported upon in 1928:

The Joint Committee on Museums relations now recommends (1) That the National Education Association approve of the resolutions adopted by the American Association of Museums. (2) That the present Joint Committee be discharged. (3) That a Visual Education Commission be appointed, as suggested in the first resolution. (4) That that Commission be empowered to appoint a paid Secretary. (5) That steps be taken at once to secure a fund of at least \$8000 to make these resolutions effective in promoting Visual Education throughout the United States.

For the Joint Committee,

HENRY TURNER BAILEY, *Chairman*.

The chairman announced that since the business for the session had been completed, a motion to adjourn would be in order. A motion to adjourn was made. Seconded. Carried.

CORNELIA S. ADAIR, *President*.

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES MEETINGS

Dallas, Texas, February 27, 1927

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association met pursuant to call at 11 A. M., February 27, 1927, in Room 1306, Adolphus Hotel, Dallas, Texas. Present: *Chairman Siders*, *Trustees Blair*, *McSkimmon*, and *Adair*.

Absent: *Trustee Gwinn*.

Adjourned to meet at 3 P. M., in place above mentioned.

February 27, 1927, at 3 P. M.

Members present: *Chairman Walter R. Siders, Francis G. Blair, President, National Education Association, Thomas E. Finegan, and Cornelia S. Adair.*

Members absent: *J. M. Gwinn.*

The following resolution of the Executive Committee and of the Board of Directors was ordered spread on the minutes:

IT IS HEREBY RESOLVED by the Board of Directors of National Education Association of the United States, that:

The National Education Association of the United States does hereby establish a trust fund to be known as The Olive M. Jones Fund for Homes for Retired Teachers, and does hereby authorize its Board of Trustees in its discretion to accept unconditional gifts, bequests and devises of any real or personal estate in trust for any one or all of the following purposes:

1. The establishment of homes for retired teachers and the purchase of land, buildings, or equipment therefor.
2. The building, furnishing and equipping of homes for retired teachers.
3. The endowment of homes for retired teachers.
4. The maintenance in whole or in part of homes for retired teachers, including all or any expenses of supervision, management, operation, upkeep, repair, and improvement.

The Board of Trustees is further authorized in its discretion to hold, invest, reinvest, grant, convey, encumber or lease all assets of every character which shall hereafter become a part of such fund, and in its discretion to use or to deliver to a board of managers of an established home, for use by such managers, any assets comprising a part of such fund or any income or accruals therefrom, for all or any of the above mentioned purposes.

The Board of Trustees is authorized in its discretion to establish homes for retired teachers from time to time; to name the locations therefor, or to provide how the location of any home shall be determined upon; to incorporate or otherwise to establish a governing and managing body for each home; to establish by charter and bylaws or otherwise a board of managers for each home, a majority of whom at all times shall be residents of the state or the federal district in which the home is located and to provide for the manner of selection and reselection of members of such board of managers; to vest in such board of managers so much as it shall see fit of the management, operation and control of the home and all properties of whatever character which shall be used, or the accruals or income from which shall be used, for the acquisition, completion, endowment or maintenance of such home; and generally, to establish such rules for the operation and management of the home and its continuity and for reversion of all assets to the Board of Trustees on its discontinuance, all as in its discretion it may see fit, with or without reservation to itself of the right to amend any such rules from time to time.

(Signed) WALTER R. SIDERS,
UEL W. LAMKIN,
MARY MCSKIMMON,
H. L. SMITH,
Committee.

It was ordered that *Trustees Finegan and Adair* gather information for this Board on the maintenance of teachers' homes.

Chairman Siders was requested to investigate the receipts for homes for the aged, and to procure the commercial and legal forms necessary to be used in setting up the work of homes for retired teachers.

The Board decided to ask the Research Division to secure and tabulate data on the number and conditions of superannuated teachers throughout the United States.

Trustees Siders and *Gwinn* were appointed a committee to determine what subcommittees the Board would need to appoint to carry into effect complete plans for homes for retired teachers.

It was ordered that *Chairman Siders* and *H. A. Allan*, Business Manager of the National Education Association, shall investigate proposed gifts of land for homes for retired teachers, avoiding travel expense whenever possible.

It was moved by *Trustee Adair*, and seconded by *Trustee Blair*, that the salary of *J. W. Crabtree* as Secretary of the National Education Association be made \$10,000 effective with July 1, 1926, said salary increase having been appropriated by the Board of Directors at their meeting on February 26, 1927. The motion was unanimously carried.

On motion of *Trustee Blair*, and seconded by *Trustee Adair*, *Chairman Siders* was authorized to request the trust officers to transfer the income of the permanent fund to the current funds of the National Education Association. Motion carried.

It was moved by *Trustee Adair*, and seconded by *Trustee Finegan*, that this Board determine a proper and legal method of sustaining the current fund during July and August when receipts are not sufficient for current purposes.

The Board adjourned subject to the call of *Chairman Siders*.

Seattle, Washington, July 1, 1927, 2 P. M.

The Board of Trustees of the National Education Association met in regular session in the President's suite, Olympic Hotel, Seattle, Washington, July 1, 1927, at 2 P. M.

All members of the Board were present with *President Francis G. Blair* of the National Education Association, *Secretary Crabtree*, and *Director John K. Norton* of the Division of Research of the National Education Association.

Chairman Siders and *President Blair* made statements giving information concerning the activities since the Dallas meeting of the Board of Trustees in the matter of homes for retired teachers. A statement from *Miss Olive Jones* was read. *John K. Norton* reported on the activities of the Research Division in collecting information concerning homes operated by fraternal and other organizations. There was a general discussion concerning ways and means to employ in the development of a plan for ascertaining the needs of homes for retired teachers, the method of establishing and operating and financing such homes. Following the discussion the matter was referred to the subcommittee of the Board of Trustees appointed at the Dallas meeting.

No further business appearing the Board adjourned to meet Friday, July 8, 1927, at 4:30 P. M.

Seattle, Washington, July 8, 1927, 5 P. M.

President Cornelia S. Adair: Since the chairmanship of the Board of Trustees is vacant, I am going to preside for a few moments.

Mr. J. M. Gwinn: I would like to nominate *Dr. Siders* as Chairman of the Board of Trustees.

Mr. Thomas E. Finegan: I second the nomination.

(*President Adair* then put said nomination, and *Dr. Walter R. Siders*, of Pocatello, Idaho, was unanimously elected Chairman of the Board of Trustees.)

President Adair: *Dr. Siders* is elected Chairman, and I hereby resign as Chairman.

Dr. Siders: I thank you for the honor.

Mr. Finegan: I nominate *Mr. Gwinn* of San Francisco, Secretary of the Board.

Mr. Blair: I second the nomination.

(*Chairman Siders* then put said nomination, and *Joseph M. Gwinn* of San Francisco, California, was unanimously elected Secretary of the Board of Trustees.)

(*Miss Jones* presented the matter of raising money for homes for retired teachers to the Board, following which there was a lengthy discussion.)

Mr. Finegan: I move this matter be referred to the Chairman of the Board with power to act, after obtaining a written statement of the proposition.

Mr. Gwinn: I second the motion.

(Said motion was unanimously carried.)

Chairman Siders: If there is no objection we will constitute *Miss Jones* the Chairman of this committee. And what do you suggest about the size of this committee, shall it be a large or a small committee?

Miss Jones: I would not make it a large committee.

Chairman Siders: *Miss Jones* and I will work this thing out.

(There being no further business, the Board of Trustees then adjourned.)

REPORT OF RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

GEORGE D. STRAYER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

We propose as an American Program of Education the provision of opportunities through education which will enable each individual to achieve his highest development in order that he may most completely fill his place in the society in which he is a member.

1. The achievement of this ideal requires that the following provisions for education be made:

1. That teachers, who are prepared for their work by a generous liberal education, and by sound professional training, shall be provided for all schools. We believe that the minimum of training for teaching should be not less than four years beyond high school graduation.

That salaries be paid to teachers commensurate with the investment which must be made in preparing for teaching and with the importance of the service rendered.

That after a probationary period during which they demonstrate their acceptability for the service, teachers should enjoy tenure during continued efficiency, and that provision for retirement allowances based upon sound actuarial evidence, and involving contributions by teachers as well as by the public, be established on a state wide basis.

2. That curricula and courses of study be made available which are adapted to individual needs. That the reestablishment of individual pupil-teacher relationships be considered as an essential of education.

3. That in their work in our schools, all who attend them whether in nursery school, kindergarten, elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, vocational school, continuation school, night school, opportunity school, college, university or professional school shall be placed in groups of such size and flexibility, as to provide for their regular and continuous progress. That failure and repetition be considered abnormal. That educational and vocational guidance be considered a primary obligation of organized education. That special classes and special opportunities be provided for the subnormal, the physically handicapped and delinquent and that provision be made for meeting the constantly changing interests of all children. That opportunities for general culture for vocational training, for the cultivation of special talents, or for the removal of deficiencies be provided for those young people who are engaged in productive activities and for adults.

4. That the administrative and supervisory local unit of control be made large enough to justify the employment of men and women with special training in

educational leadership, administration, and supervision of instruction. It is understood that outside of the urban areas it generally will be necessary to make such unit larger than the district or township.

5. That all administrative officers, state, county, and city be selected for their positions on the basis of their professional qualifications and attainment by lay boards of education.

6. That state, county, city, and other boards of education be elected on non-partisan ballots, chosen at large from the area which the board is to serve, for relatively long terms, and that the terms of office of members be so arranged as to make it impossible to select a majority of the members of the board at any one election.

7. That the distinction between the lay control of public education and the professional administration of schools be acknowledged in the law and in the rules of boards of education. That appointment of teachers and all other employees be only upon nomination of the superintendent of schools. That courses of study and curricula, the adoption of textbooks and the provision for educational supplies be proposed by the superintendent of schools in cooperation with the members of the supervisory teaching staff for the consideration of the board of education. That the annual budget showing unit costs for each item of the educational program be prepared by the superintendent and his staff and submitted to the board of education for consideration. That the recommendations for buildings and equipment based upon an evaluation of the present plan and a forecast of future needs be presented to the board of education by the superintendent of schools. That a report of the achievement of the schools based upon scientific inquiry be required of the superintendent of schools and that he ask for further support only upon the basis of such proved efficiency.

8. That our schools be financed upon a state-wide basis. That it be recognized that it is the prime duty of each state to guarantee to each individual a satisfactory minimum program of education in each of the several areas for taxation and for the administration of schools throughout the state.

9. That it be recognized as an obligation of each state, to provide a department of education equipped to certify as to the adequacy of all local programs of education in meeting state standards. That this state department of education through research, through experimentation and through personal leadership stimulate local communities to provide more adequate programs of education than the state can require, to the end that the state's minimum acceptable program may from time to time be advanced.

10. That the federal government which has long accepted responsibility for conducting inquiries and disseminating information concerning the public schools of the nation enlarge the scope of its scientific inquiry with respect to education and increase its support of this undertaking. That this most important function of the national government can be best carried out by the establishment of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. We pledge our aggressive support to the Curtis-Reed Bill which provides for the establishment of a Department of Education and for the more adequate support of scientific research in education under the direction of a Secretary of education.

II. We recommend that the program of physical and health education already provided in many centers be extended to all of the schools of the nation. In the development of this program we urge that reemphasis be given to the teaching of the evil effects of narcotic drugs and of alcoholic beverages.

III. In order that even a minimum program of education may be provided for the boys and girls in the sections of the United States suffering from the devastation of the flood it is necessary that support be provided

from other than local and state sources. We therefore urge the Congress of the United States to make appropriations sufficient to meet this educational emergency.

IV. The growing tendency of state legislatures to pass laws compelling or forbidding the teaching of particular subjects or topics in the public schools is an unwise and dangerous practice which if continued will transform our educational institutions, now consecrated to the teaching of the truth, into prejudiced schools devoted to the interests of special propaganda.

Legislatures have no disposition to take over the making of the courses of study as a whole. They would shrink from such an undertaking as an expert matter beyond their province and ability. But in response to the agitations and pressures of various social blocs and groups they are doing a far worse thing without so intending. They are making a partial and inflexible course of study which hampers the schools in their effort to serve wholesomely and in a balanced and proportionate way all the needs of the child and all the interests of society.

This Association deprecates and condemns this tendency as contrary to the more fundamental intentions of legislatures and as frustrative of society's basic desires to keep schools wholesome and democratic.

V. The National Education Association in recognition of the personality, the military genius, the unequalled courage and great leadership in the west during the War of the Revolution, of George Rogers Clark endorses the movement to build a great permanent memorial at Vincennes, Indiana, the site of Clark's greatest achievement, as a perpetual inspiration to all Americans of unselfish, patriotic service.

VI. For the generous hospitality and efficient management which have contributed so largely to the notable success of this, the sixty-fifth annual meeting of the National Education Association, we wish to express our most sincere appreciation to the people of the State of Washington and the City of Seattle, to the schools, their officials, teachers and pupils, to the churches, musicians, Boy Scouts and other organizations and to the public press.

VII. This nation whose destiny depends upon popular participation in the government cannot afford to tolerate less than a full functioning literacy.

Be it Resolved that: The Secretary of Commerce be requested to secure in the 1930 census, more useful information as to the extent of ability to read English with understanding in the United States.

VIII. The Association reaffirms its oft repeated pronouncement in the favor of every legitimate means for promoting world peace and understanding among the peoples of the earth.

IX. We desire to express to Mrs. Evangeline A. Lindbergh the congratulations of this body for the noble achievements of her son Col. Charles A. Lindbergh, and our joy and pride that the youth whom the nations delight to honor is the son of a fellow worker of our own profession.

TREASURER'S REPORT

FROM JUNE 1, 1926, TO MAY 31, 1927

Henry Lester Smith

Balance Brought Forward from Treasurer's Report for Year ended May 31, 1926.....	\$58,875.47
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Receipts:

From Annual Meetings:	
Philadelphia Meeting.....	\$2,165.00
Dallas Meeting	3,703.00
	<u>\$5,868.00</u>

For Account:

May 31, 1926 May 31, 1927

Department of Superintendence (Net) ..	\$5,160.98	\$2,989.95	
Department of Elementary School Principals (Net)	1,748.22	1,063.86	
Department of Adult Education (Net) ..	633.99	438.71	
Department of Rural Education (Net) ..		157.68	
Department of Lip Reading (Net)		42.81	
	<u>\$7,543.19</u>	<u>\$4,693.01</u>	2,850.18
			<u>\$3,017.82</u>

From Secretary's Office during Year:

Membership Fees	\$150,734.00
Subscriptions to N. E. A. Journal.....	135,041.00
Subscriptions to Research Bulletins.....	4,586.00
Sale of Volumes of Proceedings.....	953.53
Sale of Special Reports	5,199.48
Sale of Research Bulletins.....	2,830.65
Special Investigations (Research).....	246.50
Sale of N. E. A. Journals.....	248.42
Sale of Dr. Harris' Book.....	14.99
Sale of Pageant Leaflets.....	292.30
Cash Sales of Reports and Pamphlets.....	1,388.17
	<u>\$301,535.04</u>

From Income on Permanent Fund	11,069.18	
From Commercial Exhibits (Net).....	8,517.65	
From Advertising—N. E. A. Journal (Net).....	75,056.42	
From Interest and Discounts Earned.....	919.13	
From Rentals Received.....	2,570.00	
From Honorariums (Field Work).....	1,633.73	
From Sesqui-centennial Committee.....	9,323.64	
From Sundry Income—Exchange, Etc.....	207.19	410,831.98
		<u>\$413,849.80</u>

Disbursements:

Board of Trustees—Expenses.....	\$412.53	
Board of Directors—Expenses.....	5,490.96	
Executive Committee:		
President (Dr. Blair).....	\$1,775.08	
(Miss McSkimmon).....	705.67	
First Vicepresident (Miss McSkimmon).....	364.94	
(Mr. Newlon).....	306.77	
Treasurer (Dr. Smith).....	252.73	
Chairman, Board of Trustees (Mr. Siders).....	889.97	
Member by Election (Mr. Lamkin).....	281.04	
(Miss Adair).....	59.61	4,635.81

Office of General Secretary:

General Expense (Salaries, Stationery, Etc.).....	23,513.29	
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General Expense—Headquarters:

General Expense	\$1,085.70	
Express, Freight and Parcel Post.....	1,243.75	
Telephone Service	1,919.87	
Telegrams (General)	28.51	
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	328.74	
Interest and Discounts Allowed.....	1,309.43	
Surety Bonds	210.00	
Insurance	482.32	
Auditing Accounts of Association.....	813.03	
Physical Plant—Rents, Light, Heat, Power and Janitor	20,837.69	28,259.04

Institutional Expense:

Annual Conventions:

Departmental Expenses.....	\$816.57	
State Directors	626.97	
Registration Bureau	547.46	
Stenographic Service	203.00	
Publicity	664.61	

Printing:

Programs	\$2,347.47	
Miscellaneous	722.75	3,070.22

Express and Freight.....	380.03	
Miscellaneous Expense (Speakers, Etc.).....	633.32	
Representative Assembly Expense.....	965.78	
Badges	108.24	
Sesqui-centennial Pageant Expense.....	56.74	

\$8,072.94

Expense in Collecting Membership Dues.....	11,873.03	
Publicity in Anticipation of Membership.....	25,959.92	
Special Committee Appointed by President.....	30.00	
Membership—World Conference on Education.....	1,000.00	
Membership—American Council on Education.....	100.00	
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution).....	96,769.44	

Carried Forward	\$143,805.33	\$62,311.63
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Disbursements, Continued:

Brought Forward		\$62,311.63
Institutional Expense, Continued:		
Brought Forward	\$143,805.33	
Volume of Proceedings (1926)	9,191.81	
Research Bulletin (Printing and Distribution)	7,493.03	
Publications and Reports for General Sale	2,637.31	163,127.48

Special Appropriations for the Year 1926-27:

Committee on Health Education	\$359.25	
Legislative Commission	3,961.91	
Committee on Tenure	223.91	
Department of Classroom Teachers	6,071.07	
Committee on Museums	32.81	
Financing Delegates (1926 Convention)	12,977.50	
American Education Week	392.12	
Kindergarten Education	151.79	
Department of Elementary School Principals	2,000.00	
Department of Adult Education	300.00	
Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Subjects	290.12	
Committee of One Hundred on Rural Teacher Problems	78.00	
Committee on Pupil Personnel in Part Time Schools	375.00	
Committee of One Hundred on Retirement Al- lowances	730.32	
Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teacher Problems	389.50	
Committee on Behavior Problem—Child	103.50	
Committee on Co-inclusive Membership	1.32	
Committee on Community Relations	49.25	
Committee on Professional Ethics	762.07	
Committee on Standard Requirements and Credits for Teachers	62.25	
Committee on Visual Education	37.50	
Committee on Reorganization of Departments	142.13	
Committee on Home for Retired Teachers	407.96	
Committee on Foreign Relations	24.46	29,923.74

Division of Accounts:

(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	\$7,434.53
Field Division (Legislative):	
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	15,393.50
Division of Business:	
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	14,231.97
Division of Publications:	
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	23,366.27

Carried Forward	\$315,789.12
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Disbursements, Continued:

Brought Forward	\$315,789.12
Division of Research:	
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	29,476.60
Division of Classroom Service:	
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	6,495.36
Division of Administrative Service:	
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	4,555.89
Division of Records and Memberships:	
(Salaries, Stationery, Etc.)	31,311.87
Purchase of Office Furniture and Fixtures	9,465.82
	<u>\$397,094.66</u>

Cash Summary

Balance as per Treasurer's Report as at May 31, 1926	\$58,875.47
Receipts for the year ended May 31, 1927:	
Total as per page 1	\$413,849.80
Deduct:	
Bad Debts Written Off	\$1,532.96
Less Decrease in Accounts Receivable....	603.94 929.02
	<u>412,920.78</u>
Deduct Time Checks Receivable	613.91
	<u>412,306.87</u>
Total Receipts	<u>471,182.34</u>

Disbursements for Year:

Total as above	\$397,094.66
Deduct:	
Unpaid Vouchers at May 31, 1927.....	\$19,159.06
Decrease in Inventory of Stationery and	
Supplies	564.11 19,723.17
	<u>377,371.49</u>
Add Unpaid Vouchers at May 31, 1926, paid during	
current year	19,248.37
	<u>\$396,619.86</u>
Total Disbursements	<u>\$74,562.48</u>
Cash Balance as at May 31, 1927	<u>\$74,562.48</u>

The auditors have examined the report and have attached the following statement thereto:

To the President of the National Education Association:

We have audited the accounts of the National Education Association, and of the Secretary, for the year ended May 31, 1927, and certify that the foregoing Treasurer's statement of Receipts and Disbursements is correct and is in accordance with the books of the Association. The Secretary's Revolving Fund of \$30,000.00 has also been verified by us.

Washington, D. C.,

June 18, 1927.

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & Co.

This report is presented for your acceptance.

Very truly,

HENRY LESTER SMITH,
Treasurer.

*REPORT OF THE AUDITORS*Covering the Financial Statements of the Board of Trustees and
of the Secretary

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.

Accountants and Auditors
Metropolitan Bank Building

Washington, D. C., June 18, 1927.

Mr. Francis G. Blair, President,

National Education Association of the United States,
Washington, D. C.

Dear Sir:

In accordance with your instructions, we have made an examination of the accounts of the National Education Association of the United States for the year ended May 31, 1927, and now submit our report thereon.

Our examination embraced the verification, as hereinafter described, of the assets and liabilities of the Association as at May 31, 1927, as well as an audit of the expenses and a review of the income for the year then ended. In that connection, and in order to satisfy ourselves regarding the general accuracy of the accounts, we made a series of tests relating to the cash receipts and disbursements, and other matters of detail.

INCOME AND EXPENSES

There was an excess of income over expenses of \$21,021.96 for the year ended May 31, 1927. The following is a condensed comparative statement of the income and expenses for the two years ended May 31, 1927 and 1926:

CONDENSED COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES

Income:

	Year ended May 31 1927	1926	Increase Decrease
Memberships from Secretary's Office.....	\$150,734.00	\$138,481.00	\$12,253.00
Memberships from Annual Conventions.....	5,868.00	5,772.00	96.00
N. E. A. Journal—Subscriptions and Advertising, etc.	210,345.84	195,674.73	14,671.11
Sales of Proceedings	953.53	1,140.52	186.99
Sales of Special Reports	5,199.48	4,213.99	985.49
Commercial Exhibits	8,517.65	4,563.03	3,954.62
Research Bulletin	7,663.15	10,204.83	2,541.68
Honorariums	1,633.73	837.54	796.19
Rentals	2,570.00	2,723.75	153.75
Interest and Discount Earned	919.13	297.01	622.12
Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, etc.	1,388.17	2,387.74	999.57
Net Income transferred from Permanent Fund..	8,025.46	12,198.10	4,172.64
Sundry Income	207.19	822.87	615.68
Sales of Dr. Harris' Book	14.99	210.04	195.05
Sales of Pageant Leaflets	292.30	2,017.75	1,725.45
Sesqui-Centennial Fund	9,323.64		9,323.64
	<u>\$413,656.26</u>	<u>\$381,544.90</u>	<u>\$32,111.36</u>

CONDENSED COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES
Continued.

	Year ended 1927	May 31 1926	Increase Decrease
Expenses:			
Board of Trustees	412.53	768.79	356.26
Board of Directors	5,490.96		5,490.96
Executive Committee	4,635.81	3,904.91	730.90
General Secretary's Office	23,513.29	19,845.15	3,668.14
Institutional Expenses—Annual Convention...	8,072.94	8,372.29	299.35
Institutional Expenses—Annual Convention...	8,072.94	8,372.29	299.35
World Conference on Education	1,000.00	1,000.00	
Expense in Collecting Membership Dues.....	11,873.03	10,556.86	1,316.17
Publicity in Anticipation of Membership.....	25,959.92	15,364.56	10,595.36
Special Committee appointed by the President..	30.00	130.16	100.16
Membership—American Council on Education	100.00	100.00	
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution)..	96,769.44	92,687.66	4,081.78
Volumes of Proceedings (Printing and Distribution)	9,191.81	8,458.22	733.59
Research Bulletins (Printing and Distribution)	7,493.03	6,867.12	625.91
Publications and Reports (Printing and Distribution)	2,637.31		2,637.31
Special Appropriations	29,923.74	24,658.75	5,264.99
Division of Accounts	7,434.53	5,643.87	1,790.66
Division of Records and Membership.....	31,311.87	20,519.06	*10,792.81
Field Division (Legislative)	15,393.50	16,532.55	1,139.05
Division of Business	14,231.97	20,058.64	*5,826.67
Division of Publications	23,366.27	17,170.45	6,195.82
Division of Research	29,476.60	22,454.53	7,022.07
Division of Classroom Service	6,495.36	6,088.77	406.59
Division of Administrative Service	4,555.89	2,994.55	1,561.34
Bad Debts Written Off	1,532.96	1,346.73	186.23
	<u>392,634.30</u>	<u>335,917.05</u>	<u>56,717.25</u>
Surplus for Year	<u>\$21,021.96</u>	<u>\$45,627.85</u>	<u>\$24,605.89</u>

As in former years, prepaid subscriptions, memberships, etc., have been treated as income of the current year.

Further particulars of the income and expenses for the year ended May 31, 1927, are submitted in Exhibit "A," appended hereto.

The following is a transcript of the Surplus Account for the year ended May 31, 1927:

Surplus as at May 31, 1926.....	\$70,340.95
Add:	
Surplus for year ended May 31, 1927 as per Income and Expense Statement	21,021.96
Surplus as at May 31, 1927	<u>\$91,362.91</u>

It will be noted that while there was an increase in the income of \$32,111.36, there was an increase in the expenses of \$56,717.25. Expressed in percentages, the expenses for the year just ended were 95 per cent of the income as compared with 88 per cent for the preceding year.

*Note: During the year the Addressograph Section of the Division of Business was transferred to the Division of Records and Membership. \$11,862.90.

RECEIPTS AND DISBURSEMENTS

The following is a summary of the cash receipts and disbursements as per Treasurer's Report for the year:

Cash Balance as at May 31, 1926	\$ 56,875.47
Add Receipts	412,306.87
	<u>471,182.34</u>
Deduct Disbursements	396,619.86
	<u>74,562.48</u>

Accounted for as follows:

Revolving Fund	\$30,000.00	
General Account—Continental Trust Co.....	44,562.48	74,562.48

The total income for the year may be reconciled with the cash receipts as follows:
Income as per Income and Expense Statement..... \$413,656.26

Deduct:

Net increase in accounts receivable after taking into account bad debts written off	929.02	
Time checks receivable	613.91	
Decrease in deferred income of Departments of Su- perintendents, Elementary School Principals, etc....	2,850.18	4,393.11
		<u>409,263.15</u>

Add:

Balance of Income from Permanent Fund for preced- ing year not transferred until March, 1927.....		3,043.72
Cash Receipts for Year		<u>\$412,306.87</u>

The total expenses for the year may be reconciled with the cash disbursements as follows:

Expenses as per Income and Expense Statement.....		\$392,634.30
Deduct:		
Bad Debts Written Off	\$ 1,532.96	
Bills unpaid as at May 31, 1927	19,159.06	
Depreciation—Office Furniture	3,472.50	
Decrease in Stationery and Office Supplies.....	564.11	24,728.63
		<u>367,905.67</u>

Add:

Bills of previous year paid during current year..	19,248.37	
Expenditures for Furniture and Fixtures.....	9,465.82	28,714.19
		<u>\$396,619.86</u>

We examined the cash receipts after making an investigation of the methods of accounting for the income derived from memberships, subscriptions to the N. E. A.

Journal, advertising and sundry income, and so far as the system permitted us to do so, within the expenditure of a reasonable amount of time, we satisfied ourselves that all the funds received had been properly accounted for.

All vouchers supporting cash disbursements were examined and found in order with the exception of twenty-seven recent vouchers, aggregating \$31,364.65, which have not yet been returned to the Association. These can be inspected during the course of the next audit.

ASSETS AND LIABILITIES

The following is a statement of the assets and liabilities as at May 31, 1927, as shown by the books:

Assets

Cash:

Secretary's Fund—In Bank, on Hand and to be reimbursed from the regular account.....		\$30,000.00
Regular Account—In Bank		44,562.48
Permanent Fund—In Bank		157.38

74,719.86

Accounts Receivable	\$11,539.57	
Less Reserve for Doubtful Accounts.....	1,000.00	10,539.57

Time Checks Receivable		613.91
Notes Receivable, Life Members		51,420.00
Stationery, Supplies, Stamped Envelopes, etc....		728.80
Old Volumes of Proceedings and Other Publications		500.00
Securities at Book Value (Schedule "1").....		100,928.80
Real Estate Notes		33,000.00

Real Estate:

Purchase Price	\$153,000.00	
Less Mortgages	66,000.00	87,000.00

Improvements and Alterations to M Street Property	17,566.13	104,566.13
---	-----------	------------

Office Furniture, Fixtures and Equipment.....	44,190.78	
Less Reserve for Depreciation	15,920.56	28,270.22

\$405,287.29

Liabilities

Accounts Payable	\$19,159.06
Department of Superintendence	2,989.95
Department of Elementary School Principals	1,063.86
Department of Adult Education	438.71
Department of Rural Education	157.68
Department of Lip Reading	42.81
Permanent Investment—Trust Fund	290,072.31
Surplus	91,362.91

\$405,287.29

We verified the Secretary's Fund partly by count and partly by certificate obtained from the depository, and the Regular Account was verified by certificate from the same source. We also verified the balance in the Permanent Fund by the certified report of the Trustee.

We checked the accounts receivable, which were in agreement with the General Ledger, control account. We analyzed them as to age and condition, and from our discussion with the business manager we are of the opinion that the reserve of \$1,000.00 previously set up is adequate.

The notes receivable (life members) on hand were examined by us and found in order. These notes are payable in installments, and at the date of our audit payments amounting to \$680.00 were in arrears.

The stationery, supplies, stamped envelopes, etc., on hand are book figures supported by lists which we inspected. The values are stated at cost and we obtained a certificate from the business manager as to the quantities and values.

As in previous years, the old volumes of Proceedings and other publications are carried at a value of \$500.00, which we believe is conservative. This asset now includes the following:

	Copies
Volumes of Proceedings	17,901
Health Education	5,440
School House Planning	8,000
Harris' Book	3,850
Miscellaneous Pamphlets	Uncounted

We inspected vouchers for the additions to the furniture, fixtures and equipment during the year, amounting to \$9,465.82, and found the amounts to be proper capital charges.

We made a sufficient check to satisfy ourselves that all known liabilities are shown on the books, and obtained a certificate to this effect from the business manager.

The accounts of the Department of Elementary School Principals were examined by us and found to be correct. The balance of \$2,989.95 standing to the credit of the Department of Superintendence was compared with the books of that Department and found to be in agreement therewith.

Permanent Fund

We have audited the receipts and disbursements of the Permanent Fund and have inspected the securities in the custody of the Continental Trust Co., Washington, D. C. A detailed list is attached hereto as Schedule "1," showing their par and book values. There was no change in the investments during the year, and all income therefrom was received.

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

Balance as at May 31, 1926 as per last report.....			\$227,321.31
Added during Year:			
Cash Received from Life Members' Fees.....	\$18,250.00		
Cash Received from Teachers' Fund	86.00		
		<u>18,336.00</u>	
Notes for Life Members' Fees:			
Amount as at May 31, 1926	\$7,005.00		
Amount as at May 31, 1927	51,420.00	44,415.00	62,751.00
		<u>44,415.00</u>	
Balance as at May 31, 1927			<u>\$290,072.31</u>
Made up as follows:			
Cash	\$157.38		
Notes Receivable—Life Members	51,420.00		
Real Estate 6% Notes Secured by Mortgage on 1201 16th Street, Washington, D. C....	33,000.00		
Securities	100,928.80		
Real Estate, less Mortgage Loans thereon...	87,000.00		
Improvements at M St., Washington, D. C.	17,566.13		
		<u>290,072.31</u>	

The following is a summary of the income from investments and the disbursements for the year:

Receipts:

Income from Securities Owned (Schedule "1").....	\$4,375.00
Rent charged to Home Office	15,000.00
Interest from Real Estate Notes	1,186.34
	<u>20,561.34</u>

Disbursements:

Interest on Mortgage, etc.	\$3,960.00
Repairs, etc.	7,587.51
Insurance	482.34
Trustee's Commission	497.13
Sundry	8.90
	<u>12,535.88</u>
Net Income transferred to the Association	<u>\$8,025.46</u>

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

Yours truly,

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.

EXHIBIT "A"

INCOME AND EXPENSES

For the Year ended May 31, 1927

Income:

Memberships from Secretary's Office		\$150,734.00
Memberships from Annual Conventions		5,868.00
N. E. A. Journal:		
Subscriptions (Part of Membership Dues)	\$135,041.00	
Advertising	75,056.42	
Sales	248.42	210,345.84
Sales of Proceedings		953.53
Sales of Special Reports		5,199.48
Commercial Exhibits		8,517.65
Research Bulletin:		
Subscriptions	\$4,586.00	
Sales	2,830.65	
Special Investigations	246.50	7,663.15
Honorariums		1,633.73
Rentals		2,570.00
Sales of Pageant Leaflets		292.30
Interest and Discount Earned		919.13
Cash Sales, Reports, Pamphlets, etc.		1,388.17
Net Income transferred from Permanent Fund		8,025.46
Sundry Income		207.19
Sesquicentennial Fund		9,323.64
Sales of Harris' Book		14.99
		\$413,656.26

Expenses:

Board of Trustees	\$412.53	
Board of Directors	5,490.96	
Executive Committee:		
President (Miss McSkimmon) 1925-1926....	\$705.67	
President (Dr. Blair) 1926-27.....	1,775.08	
First Vicepresident (Mr. Newlon) 1925-26..	306.77	
First Vicepresident (Miss McSkimmon)....	364.94	
Treasurer (Dr. Smith) 1925-26.....	252.73	
Chairman, Board of Trustees (Mr. Siders)	889.97	
Member by Election (Miss Adair) 1925-26..	59.61	
Member by Election (Mr. Lamkin) 1926-27..	281.04	4,635.81

General Secretary's Office:

Salary of Secretary	\$9,916.66	
Clerical Services	10,991.01	
Traveling Expenses	938.97	
Stationery and Office Supplies	387.93	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	883.65	
Telegrams	278.97	
General Expenses	116.10	23,513.29

Carried Forward \$34,052.59 \$413,656.26

Income and Expenses, Continued:

Total Income, Brought Forward \$413,656.26

Expenses, Continued:

Brought Forward \$34,052.59

Home Office:

General Expenses, etc.	\$1,085.70
Express and Freight	757.18
Telephone Service	1,919.87
Telegrams	28.51
Postage—Miscellaneous Reports, Pamphlets	486.57
Repairs—Office Fixtures and Equipment....	328.74
Depreciation—Office Fixtures and Equipment	3,472.50
Interest and Discounts Allowed.....	1,309.43
Surety Bonds	210.00
Insurance	482.32
Audit Fee, etc.	813.03

Physical Plant Expenses:

Rent	\$15,000.00		
Light and Power	936.39		
Heat	1,032.65		
Janitor Service	2,139.83		
Maintenance, etc	1,728.82	20,837.69	31,731.54

Institutional Expenses:

Annual Conventions:

Department Expenses	\$816.57
State Directors	626.97
Registration	547.46
Stenographic Service	203.00
Publicity	664.61
Printing—Programs	2,347.47
Printing—Miscellaneous	722.75
Express and Freight	380.03
Representative Assembly Expenses	965.78
Badges	108.24
Misc. Expenses (Speakers, etc.)	633.32
Sesquicentennial Pageant, Philadelphia ...	56.74

8,072.94

Expense in Collecting Membership Dues....	11,873.03
Publicity in Anticipation of Membership....	25,959.92
Special Committee appointed by President...	30.00
World Conference on Education—Members- ship	1,000.00
American Council on Education—Membership	100.00
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution)	96,769.44

Carried Forward\$143,805.33 \$65,784.13 \$413,656.26

Income and Expenses, Continued:

Total Income, Brought Forward \$413,656.26

Expenses, Continued:

Brought Forward \$65,784.13

Institutional Expenses:

Brought Forward	\$143,805.33	
Volume of Proceedings (1926)	9,191.81	
Publications and Reports—Printing, etc.	2,637.31	
Research Bulletin—Printing, etc.	7,493.03	163,127.48

Special Appropriations for the Year:

Committee on Health Education	359.25	
Legislative Commission	3,961.91	
Committee on Tenure	223.91	
Department of Classroom Teachers	6,071.07	
Committee on Museums	32.81	
Financing of Delegates	12,977.50	
Committee on Kindergarten Education	151.79	
American Education Week	392.12	
Department of Elementary School Principals	2,000.00	
Committee on Delegates Representation and Kindred Questions	290.12	
Committee of One Hundred on Rural Prob- lems	78.00	
Committee on Pupil Personnel in Part-time Schools	375.00	
Committee of One Hundred on Retirement Allowances	730.32	
Committee of One Hundred on Classroom Teacher Problems	389.50	
Committee on Behavior Problem—Child	103.50	
Committee on Coinclusive Membership	1.32	
Committee on Community Relations	49.25	
Committee on Professional Ethics	762.07	
Committee on Standard Requirements and Credits for Teachers	62.25	
Committee on Visual Education	37.50	
Committee on Reorganization of Departments	142.13	
Committee on Home for Retired Teachers...	407.96	
Department of Adult Education	300.00	
Committee on Foreign Relations	24.46	29,923.74

Division of Accounts:

Clerical Services	6,687.86	
Traveling	221.46	
Stationery and Office Supplies	411.90	
Postage, Stamped Envelopes, etc.	113.31	7,434.53

Carried Forward \$266,269.88 \$413,656.26

Income and Expenses, Continued:

Total Income, Brought Forward..... \$413,656.26

Expenses, Continued:

Brought Forward \$266,269.88

Field Division—(Legislative):

Clerical Services	\$12,048.87
Traveling	2,296.21
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	213.72
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	615.64
Telegrams	109.68
General	109.38

15,393.50

Division of Business:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	9,623.57
Traveling	1,258.20
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	206.41
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	307.53
Telegrams	34.53
Mailing Section	2,792.17
Typing Section	9.56

14,231.97

Division of Publications:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	19,816.19
Traveling	1,463.27
Stationery and Office Supplies	496.01
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	549.74
Telegrams	84.32
Reprints	226.00
Photographs and Prints.....	583.73
General	147.01

23,366.27

Division of Research:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	25,689.03
Traveling	733.42
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	624.68
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	935.04
Telegrams	56.14
Books—Pamphlets	240.35
General Expense	1,197.94

29,476.60

Division of Classroom Service:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	5,895.68
Traveling	330.85
Stationery and Office Supplies	756.64
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	172.71
Telegrams, Etc.	19.48

6,495.36

Carried Forward \$355,233.58 \$413,656.26

Income and Expenses, Continued:

Total Income, Brought Forward.....	\$413,656.26
Expenses, Continued:	
Brought Forward	\$355,233.58
Division of Administrative Service:	
Salaries and Clerical Service	\$4,341.27
Traveling Expense	120.58
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	68.26
Postage	25.78
	<u>4,555.89</u>
Division of Records and Membership:	
Salaries and Clerical Services.....	18,130.30
Traveling	628.59
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	441.78
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	223.79
Addressograph Section	11,862.90
General Expenses, Etc.....	24.51
	<u>31,311.87</u>
Bad Debts Written Off	<u>1,532.96</u>
Total Expenses	<u>392,634.30</u>
Surplus for the Year.....	<u>\$21,021.96</u>

SECURITIES ON HAND

As at May 31, 1927

	Schedule "I"		
Municipal and School Bonds:			
Clearwater, Kansas, Water Works 5%	—Value—		
Bonds due:	Par	Book	Income
1930—No. 18	\$1,000.00	\$1,000.00	\$50.00
1931—Nos. 19-20	2,000.00	2,000.00	100.00
1932—Nos. 21-22-23	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:	26,000.00	26,266.30	1,200.00
Atlantic Coast Line R. R. Co., 1st Cons. Mtge. Bonds 4% due 1952—Nos. 5130, 6494, 11638, 11639, 14335, 14339, 17579, 24601, 37565, and 50251.....	10,000.00	9,600.00	400.00
Baltimore and 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
Chicago, Indiana & Southern Ry. Co., 4% due 1956—Nos. 11386 to 11394 and 13786.....	10,000.00	9,500.00	400.00

	—Value—		Income
	Par	Book	
Manhattan Railway Co., Cons. Mtge. Gold Bonds, 4% due 1990—Nos. 2843, 6522, 16083, 16087	4,000.00	3,900.00	160.00
Oregon Short Line R. R. Co. Ref. Gold Bonds, 4% due 1929—Nos. 4013 to 4017, 4025 to 4027, 4975, 13810	10,000.00	8,895.00	400.00
St. Louis & San Francisco R. R. Co. Adjustment Bonds, 6% due 1955—Nos. M14552, D845, Y1033	1,750.00	1,443.75	105.00
St. Louis & San Francisco R. R. Co. Prior Lien Mtge. Bonds, 4% due 1950—Nos. M56051 to 56055, Y1527.....	5,250.00	4,331.25	210.00
Terminal R. R. Association of St. Louis, Con. Ref. Sinking Fund Gold Bonds, 4% due 1953—Nos. 16311 to 16325	15,000.00	15,050.00	600.00
	<u>\$76,000.00</u>	<u>\$72,662.50</u>	<u>\$3,075.00</u>
Corporation Bonds:			
Maine Real Estate Title Co., 1st Mtge. Gold 5%, due 1932—Nos. 151 to 152.....	2,000.00	2,000.00	100.00
Total	<u>\$104,000.00</u>	<u>\$100,928.80</u>	<u>\$4,375.00</u>

THE BUDGET

Prepared by the Budget Committee, amended and submitted by the Executive Committee and the Board of Directors to the Representative Assembly and approved by it. The New Board of Directors then appropriated the funds as shown herein.

Budget for June 1, 1927 to May 31, 1928

FROM THE AUDITOR'S REPORT

Cash Balance as at May 31, 1926	\$58,875.47
Cash Receipts for the year	412,306.87
	<u>471,182.34</u>
Deduct Cash Disbursements	396,619.86
Cash Balance as at May 31, 1927	<u>\$74,562.48</u>

SURPLUS ACCOUNT

Surplus as at May 31, 1926	\$70,340.95
Surplus for year ended May 31, 1927	21,021.96
Surplus as at May 31, 1927	<u>\$91,362.91</u>

For a complete statement of Income and Expense, Receipts and Disbursements, Assets and Liabilities, and the Permanent Fund, see the Report of the Auditors as presented at the Seattle meeting.

From page 5 of Auditor's Report:

The total expenses for the year may be reconciled with the cash disbursements as follows:

Expenses as per Income and Expense Statement		\$392,634.30
Deduct:		
Bad Debts Written Off	\$1,532.96	
Bills unpaid as at May 31, 1927	19,159.06	
Depreciation—Office Furniture	3,472.50	
Decrease in Stationery and Office Supplies	564.11	24,728.63
		<u>\$367,905.67</u>
Add:		
Bills of previous year paid during current year....	19,248.37	
Expenditures for Furniture and Fixtures	9,465.82	28,714.19
		<u>\$396,619.86</u>

CONDENSED SCHEDULE OF EXPENSES

	Expended 1926-27	Budget 1927-28	Per Cent of Total
I. General Control:			
Delegates	\$12,977.50	\$20,000.00	4.551
Directors	5,490.96	12,000.00	2.730
Executive Committee	4,635.81	6,000.00	1.365
Trustees	412.53	412.53	.093
Total	<u>\$23,516.80</u>	<u>\$38,412.53</u> *	<u>8.739</u>
Secretary's Office	23,513.29	22,505.62	5.121
Division of Accounts	7,434.53	8,425.00	1.917
Business Division (25%)	3,557.99	3,775.36	.859
Total ..	<u>\$34,505.81</u>	<u>\$34,705.98</u>	<u>7.897</u>
Total General Control	<u>\$58,022.61</u>	<u>\$73,118.51</u>	<u>16.636</u>
II. Operation and Maintenance:			
Physical Plant	\$20,837.69	\$20,837.69	4.742
General Office Expense	7,421.35	7,236.78	1.646
Furniture and Fixtures	 (a)	5,900.00	1.342
Business Division (25%)	3,557.99	3,775.37	.859
Total	<u>\$31,817.03</u>	<u>\$37,749.84</u>	<u>8.589</u>
III. Promotion and Maintenance			
Membership:	\$37,832.95	\$34,000.00	7.737
IV. Division Records and			
Membership	\$31,311.87	\$32,952.00	7.498
V. Association Objectives:			
Field Division (Legislative) ...	\$15,393.50	\$17,789.00	4.048
Business Division (50%)	7,115.99	7,550.74	1.718
Publications Division	23,366.27	27,378.45	6.230
Research Division	29,476.60	38,701.00	8.807
Classroom Service	6,495.36	7,022.00	1.598
Administrative Service	4,555.89	6,900.00	1.570
Journal N. E. A.	96,769.44	96,769.44	22.021
Research Bulletin	7,493.03	7,750.00	1.763
Volume Proceedings	9,191.81	9,191.81	2.091
Publications and Reports			
for Sale	2,637.31	2,100.00	.477
Annual Convention	8,102.94	6,330.19	1.440
Special Appropriations	16,946.24	32,829.90	7.516
Total	<u>\$227,544.38</u>	<u>\$260,312.53</u>	<u>59.279</u>

	Expended 1926-1927	Budget 1927-1928
VI. Membership in		
World Federation E. A.	\$1,000.00	\$1,000.00 .227
American Council Education ...	100.00	100.00 .022
Total	\$1,100.00	\$1,100.00 .249
VII. Depreciation	\$3,472.50	
Bad Debts written off	1,532.96	
Total	\$5,005.46	
Grand Total	\$392,634.30	\$439,232.88 99.988
Financing Delegates	\$12,977.50	\$20,000.00
Totals	\$12,977.50	\$20,000.00

The appropriation for financing delegates was recommended by the Board of Directors at the Dallas meeting.

Board of Directors	\$6,117.93	\$12,000.00
Totals	\$6,117.93	\$12,000.00

This covers convention expenses of Seattle meeting and an additional meeting if same is determined upon. The state expenses of Directors is included.

Executive Committee	\$4,635.81	\$4,000.00
Contingent fund for President		2,000.00
Totals	\$4,635.81	\$6,000.00

The Executive Committee plans to hold one less meeting of the entire committee than last year, but to hold an additional sub-committee meeting.

President (1925-26)	\$705.67	
President (1926-27)	1,775.08	
First Vicepresident (1925-26)	306.77	
First Vicepresident (1926-27)	364.94	
Treasurer (1926-27)	252.73	
Chairman Board Trustees (1926-27)	889.97	
Member by Election (1925-26)	59.61	
Member by Election (1926-27)	281.04	
Totals	\$4,635.81	\$6,000.00
Board of Trustees	\$412.53	\$412.53
Totals	\$412.53	\$412.53

The 1927-1928 appropriation for the Board of Trustees is the same as the amount used in 1926-1927. The expenses of the Chairman of the Board of Trustees are covered by the appropriation for the Executive Committee.

	Expended 1926-1927	Budget A 1927-1928
General Secretary's Office:		
Salary of the Secretary	\$10,000.00	\$10,000.00
Salaries and Clerical Service (a)	10,907.67	10,000.00
Traveling Expenses	938.97	838.97
Stationery and Office Supplies	387.93	387.93
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	883.65	883.65
Telegrams	278.97	278.97
General Expense	116.10	116.10
Totals	\$23,513.29	\$22,505.62

(a) This item includes the salaries of the Assistant to the Secretary, three stenographers and about \$1,800.00 for additional clerical service. It is believed that the office can get along with \$10,000.00 for this item.

Division of Accounts:

Salaries, Director and two Assistants.....	\$6,687.86	\$7,120.00
Traveling Expense	221.46	400.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	411.90	700.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	112.73	200.00
Telegrams	.58	5.00
Totals	\$7,434.53	\$8,425.00

The increase over last year is to cover the increase in salaries and to care for additional work in the division.

Division of Business:

Salaries and Clerical Expense	\$9,623.57	\$12,672.00
Traveling Expense	1,258.20	1,100.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	206.41	206.41
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	307.53	307.53
Telegrams	34.53	34.53
Typing Section	9.56	20.00
Mailing Section	2,792.17	741.00
Multigraph Section		20.00
Totals	\$14,231.97	\$15,101.47

The pay roll includes the Director and three Assistants with a small allowance for temporary stenographers. Twenty-five percent of this is charged to General Control, twenty-five percent to Operation and Maintenance, and fifty percent to Association Objectives.

	Expended 1926-1927	Budget A 1927-1928
Physical Plant:		
Rent	\$15,000.00	\$15,000.00
Lights and Power	936.39	936.39
Heat	1,032.65	1,032.65
Janitor Service	2,139.83	2,139.83
Maintenance	1,728.82	1,728.82
Totals	\$20,837.69	\$20,837.69

(a) The building is owned by the Permanent Fund. Rent is charged to account for the earnings of the Permanent Fund. The income from the Permanent Fund goes into the General Fund to help maintain the work of the Association.

(b) Includes all janitors and maintenance, supplies, extra cleaning, elevator upkeep, minor repairs, and service material.

General Office Expense:

Telephone Service	\$1,919.87	\$2,165.91
Telegrams	28.51	28.51
Repairs—Office Furniture and Equipment..	328.74	328.74
Insurance	482.32	90.57
General Expense	849.50	750.00
Subscriptions to Journals	9.40	9.40
Purchase of Books and Pamphlets	70.00	70.00
Refunds of Membership	148.26	148.26
Purchase of back Volumes	8.54	8.54
Express and Freight	757.18	757.18
Interest and Discount Allowed	1,309.43	1,309.43
Surety Bonds	210.00	210.00
Auditing Account of Association	813.03	813.03
Mailing—Reports and Pamphlets	486.57	486.57
Totals	\$7,421.35	\$7,236.78

Furniture and Fixtures	\$9,465.82	(a) \$5,900.00
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Totals	\$9,465.82	\$5,900.00
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Office furniture and fixtures purchased under this head become a part of fixed assets of the Association. The appropriation requested is for additions and normal replacements of multigraph equipment, addressograph equipment, typewriters, membership files and equipment, correspondence filing cabinets, duplicating machines, library equipment, furniture and general office equipment of a permanent nature. The appropriation of 1926-1927 was sufficient to provide much greatly needed equipment, hence a lesser appropriation will serve needs for the year 1927-1928.

(a) This item is accounted for in reconciliation account of Auditor.

	Expended 1926-1927	Budget A 1927-1928
Promotion and Maintenance of		
Membership	\$11,873.03	\$34,000.00
	25,959.92	
Totals	\$37,832.95	\$34,000.00

This account has been kept in two items—one to show expense of collection of dues, the other to cover promotion work. As these are so closely related the attempts to differentiate are not satisfactory, hence a single appropriation is recommended. It should be noted that this is work upon which the maintenance and growth of the Association depends. The increased expenditures of 1926-1927 over the previous year are in part due to the active work of promoting life memberships. Owing to the intensive work of last year and owing to the larger help coming from State Secretaries and State Directors, it is believed that an allowance of \$34,000.00 will be sufficient for the year 1927-1928.

Division of Records and Membership:

Salaries	\$28,650.73	\$29,952.00
Traveling Expenses	628.59	750.00
Stationery and Supplies	441.78	350.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	223.79	300.00
Telegrams	3.22	50.00
General Expense	21.29	50.00
Stock, supplies and Machine Upkeep	1,342.47	1,500.00
Totals	\$31,311.87	\$32,952.00

This appropriation includes the salaries for the Director, assistant director, one stenographer and the necessary clerks to record memberships and to operate addressograph machines. The number of clerks employed varies. The peak load is in November, December, and January.

Field Division (Legislative):

Salaries	\$12,048.87	\$13,564.00
Traveling Expenses	2,296.21	2,800.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	213.72	250.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	615.64	750.00
Telegrams	109.68	300.00
General Expense	109.38	125.00
Totals	\$15,393.50	\$17,789.00

The increase in salaries results mainly from the employment of an additional assistant. There is a director and three assistants in this division. More intensive work for the Education Bill is planned for the current year, which will necessitate some additional expense.

	Expended 1926-1927	Budget 1927-1928
Division of Publications:		
Salaries and Clerical Services	\$19,816.19	\$23,388.00
Traveling Expense	1,463.27	1,500.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	496.01	500.68
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	549.74	650.00
Telegrams	84.32	164.77
General Expense	137.49	175.00
Books and Pamphlets	9.52	100.00
Reprints	226.00	300.00
Electro—Mat—Photo—Slide Service	583.73	600.00
Totals	\$23,366.27	\$27,378.45

This appropriation provides for the salaries of the Director and ten assistants and stenographers. Honorariums received by the Director in connection with speaking engagements are turned into the General Fund and will offset much of the expense for travel.

Division of Research:		
Salaries	\$25,689.03	\$34,176.00
Traveling Expense	733.42	1,250.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	624.68	650.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	935.04	975.00
Telegrams	56.14	75.00
General Expense	1,197.94	1,075.00
Books and Pamphlets (Library)	240.35	500.00
Totals	\$29,476.60	\$38,701.00

The appropriation for salaries includes the salary of the Director, two assistant directors and fourteen statisticians and stenographers.

Division of Classroom Service:		
Salaries and Clerical Service	\$5,895.68	\$6,300.00
Traveling Expense	330.85	450.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	76.64	80.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	172.71	175.00
Telegrams	16.98	17.00
General Expense	2.50	
Totals	\$6,495.36	\$7,022.00

This appropriation provides for the salaries of the Director and one regular stenographer with some additional clerical help.

Division of Administrative Service:		
Salaries and Clerical Service	\$4,341.27	\$6,490.00
Stationery and Office Supplies	68.26	80.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes	25.78	30.00
Traveling Expense	120.58	300.00
Totals	\$4,555.89	\$6,900.00

The Executive Secretary of the Department of Superintendence serves as Director of the Division of Administrative Service. The total pay roll for this Division and the Department of Superintendence is \$15,390.00, of which amount \$8,900.00 is paid by the Department of Superintendence. The pay roll provides for the Director, three stenographers, and two research specialists to cooperate with the Division of Research.

	Expended 1926-1927	Budget 1927-1928
Journal of the National Education Association:		
Printing and Distribution	\$96,769.44	\$96,769.44
Totals	\$96,769.44	\$96,769.44

This schedule is based on present membership. Increases in membership will automatically increase cost of printing and distribution.

Research Bulletin:		
Printing and Distribution	\$7,493.03	\$7,750.00
Totals	\$7,493.03	\$7,750.00

This schedule is based upon the cost of five issues of the Research Bulletin.

Volume of Proceedings	\$9,191.81	\$9,191.81
Totals	\$9,191.81	\$9,191.81

This schedule is based on publication of 6,500 copies of 1,200 pages each with distribution charges for same.

Publications and Reports for General Sale....	\$2,637.31	\$2,100.00
Totals	\$2,637.31	\$2,100.00

The appropriation requested in this schedule is to be used for printing or re-printing publications of the Association from the sale of which a direct profit is derived.

Annual Convention:		
Department Expense	\$816.57 (a)	-----
State Directors	626.97	-----
Registration	547.46	\$547.46
Stenographers and Typing	203.00	203.00
Publicity	664.61	664.61
Printing Programs	2,347.47	2,000.00
Printing, Miscellaneous	722.75	722.75
Express and Freight	380.03	380.03
Telephone and Telegrams	-----	75.00
General Expense	633.32	633.32
Badges	108.24	108.24
Representative Assembly Expense	965.78	965.78
Special Committee appointed by President..	30.00	30.00
Sesquicentennial Pageant Expenses	56.74	-----
Totals	\$8,102.94	\$6,330.19
Deduct Expense State Directors	626.97 (b)	-----
	\$7,475.97	

(a) The 1927-28 appropriation for Department Expenses is listed under Schedule 20—Special Appropriations.

(b) The item for State Directors appears in Schedule for Directors.

	Expended 1926-1927	Budget 1927-1928
Special Appropriations:		
American Education Week	\$392.12	\$400.00
Children's Literature	-----	50.00
Foreign Relations (Publicity)	24.46	800.00
Health Education	359.25	400.00
Legislative Commission	3,961.91	12,329.90
Dept. of Classroom Teachers	6,071.07	8,500.00
Dept. of Elementary School Principals	2,000.00	2,000.00
Tenure	223.91	100.00
Committee on Retirement Allowances	730.32	100.00
Behavior Problem—Child	103.50	100.00
Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions	290.12	1,000.00
Professional Ethics	762.07	800.00
Department of Visual Education	37.50	100.00
Reorganization of Departments	142.13	100.00
Home for Retired Teachers	407.96	500.00
Dept. of Adult Education	300.00	500.00
Kindergarten Education	151.79	200.00
Colored Schools	-----	200.00
Committee on Committees	-----	100.00
Museums	32.81	50.00
National Council Education	375.00	500.00
Retirement Allowances	-----	4,000.00
Totals	\$16,365.92	\$32,829.90
Committees not continued	580.32	
	\$16,946.24	
Association Membership Fees:		
World Federation of Education		
Associations	\$1,000.00	\$1,000.00
American Council of Education	100.00	100.00
Totals	\$1,100.00	\$1,100.00

Respectfully submitted,

WALTER R. SIDERS,
Pocatello, Idaho.
DAVID FELMLEY,
Normal, Illinois.

FRANK E. REYNOLDS,
Columbus, Ohio.
HENRY LESTER SMITH,
Bloomington, Indiana.
JULIA E. SULLIVAN,
Charlestown, Mass.

SECRETARY'S REPORT

A DECADE OF ACHIEVEMENTS

J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*

In 1917 when the headquarters of the Association were moved from Ann Arbor, Michigan, to Washington, D. C., there were men and women who predicted growth and increased prestige for the Association. But who could have foreseen a 2000 percent increase in membership within a ten-year period? There were those who expected growth in professional spirit but who could have believed that within ten years there would be almost as many 100 percent schools as there were members in the Association in 1917?

We need to know the still earlier history of the Association to appreciate its high ideals and to recognize what had been accomplished by it during the six preceding decades. We find in going over this history that the Association organized in 1857 met in a remarkable manner the demands

FOUNDATIONS LAID 1857-1917

made upon it from decade to decade. We find that, although membership was small during these sixty years, it was a distinguished membership—a thinking and working membership. We find the Association from the first developing policies and ideals. There were few well organized state and local associations on which to build. The Association, therefore, had to lay its own foundations. It was, up to 1917, very properly a convention organization, its membership consisting largely of the administrators in education. These few leaders were the natural representatives of the teachers and the profession. No other type of Association could have done so much for education at that time. Under the inspiration and leadership of the Association the public school idea had its great development. What larger achievement than this in all history?

DEVELOPMENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOL IDEA

The Association was organized at a time when the permanency of the union of states was being put to the test. There were fears that it would break on the rock of state rights. The chief reasons for organizing nationally were to aid in bringing about through education a better understanding between the various sections of the country, to build a more stable national spirit, and to inspire renewed confidence in the democracy established by the forefathers. This high purpose has inspired increasing loyalty among educational workers as the nation has grown in unity and greatness.

During these early years local associations were usually built around popular leaders and very often lost their significance as these men passed on. Some of the states had small state associations. Like the National Education Association they were organized for convention purposes. There was no desire and no need, according to the views of teachers and their super-

LOOSELY ORGANIZED ASSOCIATIONS

visors, for a more vital connection between the various organizations in the states and the nation. But the work under way was developing a professional spirit and an appreciation of the value of team work which was certain eventually to be recognized. It was laying the foundations for the larger service of today.

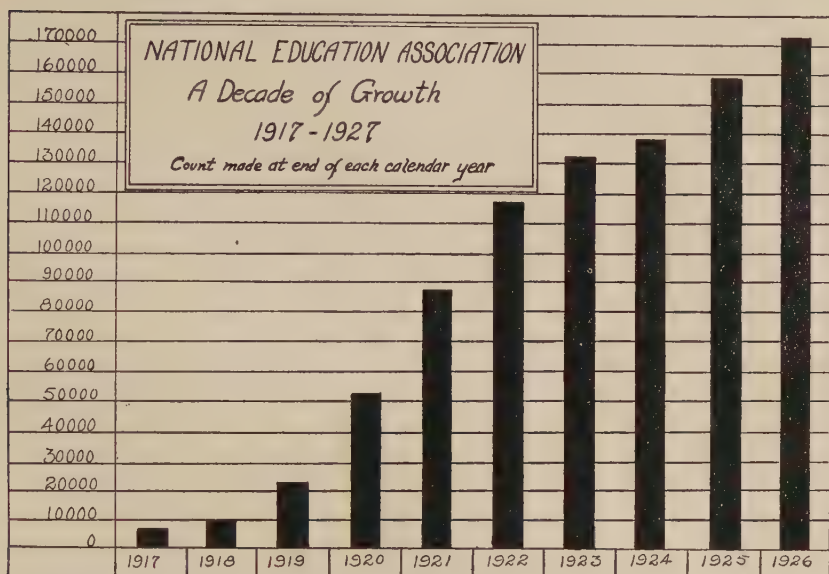


FIG. 1—TOTAL ENROLMENT AT THE END OF EACH CALENDAR YEAR. THE LAST TOTAL IS FOR DECEMBER 31, 1926, OR WE MAY SAY FOR JANUARY 1, 1927. THE MEMBERSHIP COUNT HAS BEEN MADE AT THIS DATE THROUGHOUT THE HISTORY OF THE ASSOCIATION

Long before 1918 the idea of calling on teachers to help in the solution of the problems of the profession had begun taking root in a few places. Men and women of vision readily saw the great advantage of carrying that policy into the national and state associations. It is not certain that the National Association was the first to lay emphasis on teacher participation. Some states may have led in the movement. That is not the important point. The work of the national, local, and state associations, loosely organized as they were, together with the trends of the decade towards efficiency in organization, prepared the way for the steps to be taken in 1918.

ENLARGED
RESPONSIBILITY
FOR TEACHERS

The new place for the teacher came as a natural result of movements in the profession. Its realization was hastened by the team-work in connection with the World War when teachers in the ranks were depended upon for work and for leadership. It came at a time when the ideals of democracy were more pronounced than for half a century before. Yet not all superintendents were eager for it. Some wondered whether it would not breed trouble for school systems. They had in their own schools teachers who had stirred up trouble. One superintendent appeared before the Executive Committee to censure the Secretary for having advocated teacher participation in the *National Education Association Bulletin*. One could hardly find a leading superintendent who does not today definitely seek the organized cooperation and help of teachers on his

IMPETUS TO
TEACHER
PARTICIPATION

own problems of administration. A decade ago there were scores of them.

Moving the headquarters to Washington made it possible for the Association to take a prominent part in matters of farreaching importance. Mr. Pearse of Wisconsin, chairman of the board of trustees, had contended for many years that it was a mistake to locate headquarters wherever the secretary happened to live. He pointed out what it would mean to the profession to have the central office in Washington. This idea was

**MOVING TO
WASHINGTON**

promoted by Dr. Winship of Massachusetts, D. B. Johnson of South Carolina, J. Y. Joyner of North Carolina, Mary C. C. Bradford of Colorado, A. J. Matthews of Arizona, W. R. Siders of Idaho, and many others. At the Portland meeting in 1917 a decision was reached to locate the central office in Washington. This gave the opportunity to lead in large movements. The records show that the Association has taken advantage of the opportunity.

In the memorable year, 1917-18, men and women holding offices and positions on committees met many times at National Education Association headquarters around a little mahogany table which is still in the Secretary's office. These men and women saw the possible danger of the World War's tearing down that which would require decades to reconstruct. They said, "Why not begin building before the structure falls and

**DAYS OF
SERIOUS
THINKING**

why not build better in the reconstruction than before?" Those were days for serious thinking. Among the ideals and movements which were urged upon the Association none proved to be of more practical value than that of attaching greater importance to the position of

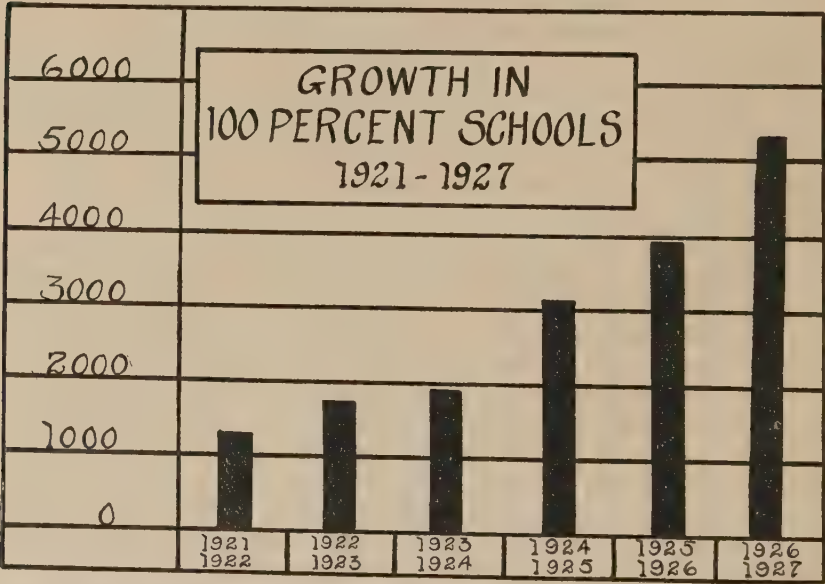


FIG. 2—ONE HUNDRED PERCENT SCHOOLS GIVE PERMANENCY TO MEMBERSHIP AND TO THE ASSOCIATION

the classroom teacher. This recognition prepared a mass of workers to become members of a profession. It immediately increased the membership of both the state and national associations. It, more than any other cause, contributed to the rapid development of state associations from small beginnings to large strong associations requiring the services of fulltime secretaries and a staff of helpers to carry forward the work.

When a history of epoch-making movements in education is written, the names of the men and women of 1918 and the plans which they formulated will have much more than casual attention. It is true that the nation was ripe for the great things started around the historic mahogany table in the Secretary's office. Some other group of people might have done the same thing. But opportunities often smoulder along for years awaiting the right men and women to take advantage of them. All honor must always be given to those who have the wisdom to know when conditions are ripe for a movement and who have the vision and enthusiasm to direct energies along the best lines. The material in that mahogany table is sacred timber in view of what has already resulted from the deliberations and decisions reached by those whose feet were under it hour after hour and day after day during the turbulent war period.

**SACRED
TIMBER IN
MAHOGANY
TABLE**

In the fall of 1917 at a conference around this table it was decided to appoint a committee to work out the larger policies and plans for reconstruction in education. The president, Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, appointed a committee of five leading specialists in educational policies, but before the committee had begun work it was found that the interest in the idea had become so intense that it was advisable to have a larger and more representative commission. At the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in the following February, this Department authorized its chairman to appoint a committee to serve with the one already appointed. The two groups met in March, 1918 and amalgamated as the Commission on the Emergency in Education. This commission under the guidance of its chairman, Dr. George D. Strayer, worked out a program in education which has had a tremendous effect on educational progress and on the growth of professional interest throughout the nation. This report can only briefly mention the far-reaching value of the work of the commission and other groups in these conferences of 1918 and 1919. The work has been so fundamental to progress that it will require a quarter of a century to bring to light the full significance of the plans formulated at that time.

**EMERGENCY
COMMISSION**

The following was the membership of the first commission as appointed by Mrs. Bradford, president of the National Education Association, and Dr. Finegan, president of the Department of Superintendence: George D. Strayer, Lotis D. Coffman, Robert J. Aley, Sarah Louise Arnold, W. C.

Bagley, F. D. Boynton, Mary C. C. Bradford, J. A. C. Chandler, George B. Cook, Elwood P. Cubberley, Agnes E. Doherty, Susan M. Dorsey, David Felmley, Thomas E. Finegan, J. M. Gwinn, Ada Van Stone Harris, E. C. Hartwell, Henry W. Holmes, W. A. Jessup, James Y. Joyner, Harry Pratt Judson, A. J. Matthews, William B. Owen, Carroll G. Pearse, Josephine C. Preston, Walter R. Siders, Payson Smith, Frank E. Spaulding, Nina C. Vandewalker, J. W. Withers, and Mary E. Wooley.

Nearly all these were active in working out the program of the enlarged association. The chairman and many of the members spent hours and days in the old "battleship building" at 1400 Massachusetts Avenue. Other outstanding leaders participated extensively in these momentous deliberations in Washington. Among them were:

OTHER NAMES

John A. H. Keith, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania; D. B. Waldo, Kalamazoo, Michigan; Katherine D. Blake, New York City; Hugh S. Magill, field secretary; Ella Flagg Young, Chicago; J. M. Gwinn, San Francisco; Uel W. Lamkin, Maryville, Missouri; H. L. Smith, Bloomington, Indiana; Cornelia S. Adair, Richmond, Virginia; W. H. Waters, Manhattan, Kansas; John H. Finley, New York City; C. H. Judd, Chicago.

Dr. Harry Pratt Judson, then president of the University of Chicago, considered the National Education Association a place of importance and contributed his presence and counsel at several of these conferences. President P. L. Campbell, then of the University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon, and secretary of the newly organized American Council of Education, spent nearly three months at N. E. A. headquarters. Mrs. Ella Flagg Young was an active figure at these conferences up to the time of her death. Professor J. W. Searson of the University of Nebraska got his inspiration here for the magazine *School Service*, which he assisted in editing for the United States Government during the war. President Wilson attached great value to this service.

During these years, Dr. A. E. Winship carried the gospel of the profession and the program of the Emergency Commission into every corner of the United States, gaining the confidence and cooperation of teachers and bringing back to the headquarters office inspiring echoes of these contacts. His has been one of the great services of the period.

The Association has in its archives another relic of those stirring days in the large service flag which was purchased at the personal expense of the president of the Association, Mrs. Mary C. C. Bradford, and which hung from the headquarters building during the war. It is twelve by eighteen feet and contains 756 stars representing the members who, at the time the flag was made, were enlisted with the expeditionary forces in the World War. When it was seen that Mr. Hoover's food conservation plan could not be carried out successfully by the National Council of Defense, the group at National Education Association headquarters offered

THE SERVICE FLAG

to place the help of the profession and the machinery of the public schools at the disposal of the Food Administration. The offer was accepted and the plan was carried out with marvelous success in almost every community in the United States. After the war was over Mr. Hoover wrote a letter of appreciation to the teachers of America attributing the great success of the food conservation plan to them and to the schools.

THE SCHOOLS
AND FOOD
CONSERVATION

Dr. Frank E. Spaulding, who was responsible for the organization and administration of educational activities for the expeditionary forces in France, spent hours at N. E. A. headquarters immediately preceding his leaving for France where he put into successful operation the greatest education scheme in all history for armies in camp and in the field.

EDUCATION
IN FRANCE

The following distinctive new movements were either set in motion or at least stimulated by the Commission on the Emergency in Education and by the later committees and commissions:

1. The enlistment of all teachers and administrators in a great program of service and the formation of an all inclusive profession.
2. Definite progress in getting the entire profession at work on its problems.
3. A united movement for a Department of Education.
4. Promotion of the principle, the equalization of educational opportunity.
5. Movement for an adequate supply of educated and professionally trained teachers for all the schools.
6. Scientific salary studies leading to the adoption of the much better salary schedules now in operation.
7. Development of educational research and publicity on a nationwide basis and the use of the central office as a clearinghouse.
8. Definitely relating the central organization to the larger public interests of America.
9. Improved plans and policies for the Americanization of the foreign-born, and for doing away with illiteracy among the American-born.
10. Development of a closer relationship between the school and the public.
11. Development of international ideals in education and the organization of the World Federation of Education Associations.
12. A more scientific basis of testing and measuring as applied to work in the schools.
13. Thrift savings, and the general diffusion of financial knowledge and practices.
14. The junior high school, the junior college, and increased vocational advantages.
15. Development of a plan of keeping pace with the advancing curriculum and for continuous attention to the integration of courses in the curriculum and of the various divisions in the school system.

The Journal and Research Bulletins carry the best thought of the profession and the results of the most recent investigations direct to teachers. The inspiration from this source is marked and continuous. It keeps the profession at work on its problems. It adds to membership and growth. The publications of the Association are in all libraries in the United States. They are on the desks of teachers and principals. They are used in classes in teachers colleges. The publications are the result of the enlarged life

THE
PUBLICATIONS

of the Association and are the cause of larger activities and achievements.

The Research Division, organized in 1922 in response to demands coming from members, state and local associations, and from colleges and universities, has grown steadily to meet the increasing needs of the profession. It has become the clearinghouse for all research agencies in schools and colleges in the United States and provides current material for the use of ten thousand study groups and for the use of the school and college authorities in every state. All this great service

THE RESEARCH DIVISION A CLEARINGHOUSE

cost the Association less than \$30,000 last year. It will be less than \$40,000 for next year. This same service would cost more than five times what it now does were it not for the fact that specialists in schools and colleges and in all research agencies gratuitously cooperate on important pieces of work. The most noted research workers in America take pleasure in making their findings available to the division of research.

Do you realize the gain which has been made in teacher tenure, teacher retirement laws, in the salaries paid teachers, principals, superintendents, and others in school and college work, and in the greater recognition given the profession among the other great professions? Do you appreciate the improved relationships which have come about between the classroom teachers, the principal, the superintendent, and other workers in the profes-

GAINS THAT HAVE BEEN MADE

sion? Do you realize the strength of the well directed influence of the larger association? It started the wave of influence which prevented the further exhibition of Arbuckle pictures in 1922. It was definitely responsible for securing the passage of the school land laws of so much value to the western states. There are many other examples showing the increased power of the Association. Who can evaluate the improvement resulting from the organized study of the profession on its problems? Who can fail to appreciate the results of thinking together with the public each year on the work and the needs of the schools during American Education Week?

There has been in ten years an increase in high school enrolment using round numbers from 1,600,000 to more than 4,000,000; an increase in attendance at summer schools from 40,000 to 250,000; an increase in the number of consolidated schools from 5,000 to 15,000; in teachers colleges authorized to grant degrees from 20 and 25 to more than 100; in states having sound retirement laws from 4 or 5 to 22; in states having tenure laws from 5 to 14; an increase in the value of school property from \$2,000,000,000 to \$4,000,000,000; an increase in average salaries for teachers from \$600 to \$1,300; in membership in state associations from 200,000 to more than 600,000; and in the expenditures for public school education from \$750,000,000 to \$2,000,000,000.

The start in all this unusual progress was made nearly a decade ago. Just as the earlier type of organizations developed certain valuable ideals

and certain new needs for 1917, so the Association, growing by leaps and bounds in service as well as in members, during the past ten years has developed a new set of opportunities for 1927. Everybody knows that new adjustments should be made in organization, in program, in methods, in policies, and in outlook. But if leaders should attach more importance to what has been done and to the plans that have been in vogue than to larger goals just ahead, little would or could be accomplished during the next decade. Is

LOOKING AHEAD

not the situation ripe for a new period of unprecedented prosperity for the profession and for education just as was the case ten years ago? Have we the men and women of vision to put another series of movements in motion and have we the leaders to inspire the entire profession with zeal to do the work? The answer is that we have the leaders just as we had the right leaders in 1917-18, and the work is actually under way to start the new decade on a period of prosperity and success even beyond the achievements of 1917-27. Do you not see and feel the force of it all? Though we are in the current of professional advancement, you need only to glance at the overconservative fixed points on either bank of the stream to see the gain which is being made and to feel the accelerations resulting from new angles of thought and efficiency with strong men and women in the lead. We are proud of what has been accomplished, more especially because of the still larger growth and service that the developments of 1917-27 make possible in 1927-37.

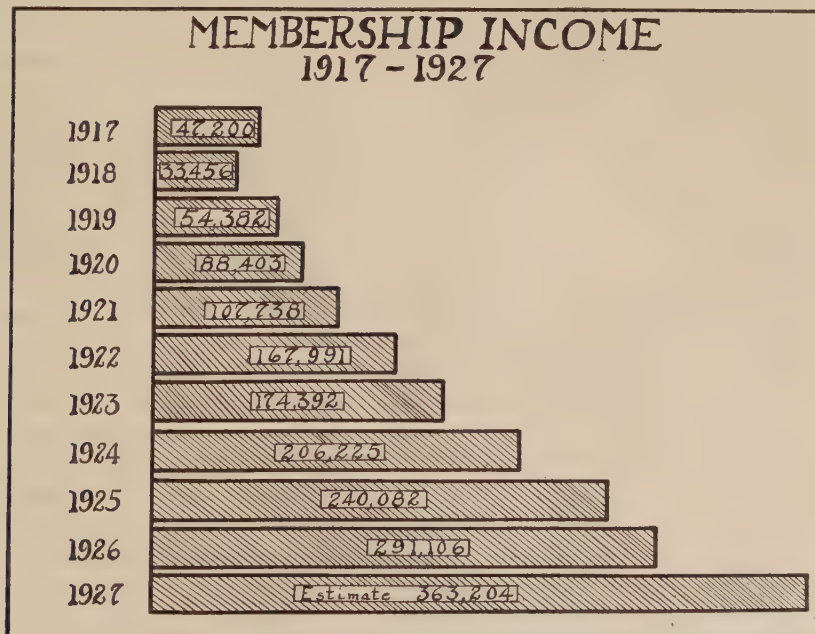


FIG. 3—SHOWING THE GROWTH IN MEMBERSHIP INCOME.

ITEMS OF INTEREST

The work of the state and national associations is directly responsible for great improvement in school conditions and for much higher salary levels for teachers, principals, and superintendents. The stimulation of organization and investigation has reached into nearly every line of service. The weakest place is in the colleges where the pay of instructors, assistants, and professors is still on the prewar basis. Classroom teachers in a number of cities receive better salaries than full professors in many colleges. The situation is pitiable and deplorable. The failure of colleges to enlist

**SALARY OF
PROFESSORS ON
PREWAR BASIS**

in promoting the interests of the profession has left their field almost untouched in the recent increases in salary schedules. A few college faculties are active in the Association. Many of the best leaders are college professors, but as a rule the college professor has been satisfied with membership in his own technical association. Colleges need the Association. The Association needs the colleges. Education is a connected whole. All its workers belong to one great fraternity and should be led to recognize that fact. They should all be active in working for the fraternal welfare. There is no place in the profession for a cloistered group. Let the Association with the help of state associations start a movement immediately to acquaint the public and the college authorities with the importance of retaining an efficient faculty in the college and of the need of better pay to accomplish that end. This is an all-inclusive organization. It must not neglect any part of the profession.

A few years ago teachers were often opposed in their fight for adequate tenure regulations by the superintendent as well as by the board of education. Now nearly all superintendents and boards of education are in favor

**TEACHER
TENURE**

of teacher tenure. It gives better teachers for their schools. All are ready for the formal rules which are not so easily worked out. Tenure is becoming an established principle. It will be practiced more and more as time goes on whether satisfactory rules are printed or not.

The new problem is that of superintendent tenure. More than a score of city superintendents because of some factional trouble are not to be invited to remain next year. Some have actually been dismissed for purely political and factional reasons. The teachers in cities where the work of the superintendent has been efficient have almost forgotten their own tenure troubles in their interest in the new problem of superintendent tenure. Teachers realize as never before the disastrous effect of frequent and unnecessary changes in the superintendency on the success of their own work and on that of the school. It pays teachers to back the worthy superintendent as it pays the superintendent to protect worthy teachers, re-

membering that the great reason for it all is to promote the welfare of the schools. Just as tenure for teachers comes with the cooperation of the superintendent, tenure for the superintendent must come through the efforts of teachers. His eggs are in the same basket with theirs. Teacher sentiment based on truth and backed up by earnest conviction can easily become public sentiment. Therein, and perhaps only therein, lies the solution of the problem of superintendent tenure.

**SUPERINTENDENT
TENURE**

It has become a settled policy of the Association not to use its officers or machinery to promote the interests of any candidate or of any political party. Members participate in political campaigns as they see fit, but they do not do so under the direction of the Association. This policy gives prestige and power. It holds the confidence and goodwill of the best people of all parties. When the Association advocates a principle or cause, party managers listen in because they realize that the people will pay attention. Now and then a member expresses the view that the Association should fight for good candidates for Congress and against bad ones. Politicians encourage that thought as they see advantage in it for themselves. But men and women of vision will never favor abandoning the present policy of keeping the Association out of political campaigns.

**PARTY
POLITICS**

American Education Week was more widely observed last year than ever before. The interest in the program for this year is still greater. The fact that other nations are considering the question of having an Education Week and of holding it during the week in which Armistice Day falls adds new interest to the observance of the week in America. It is important that the purpose of the week be clearly defined.

This purpose as stated in the program is to acquaint the public with the actual work of the schools, with their ideals, their achievements, and their needs. Let

**PURPOSE OF
EDUCATION
WEEK**

us recommend that the Representative Assembly and the American Legion formally adopt the above as the purpose and that they declare against using the week for other ends. It may not be an idle dream to look ahead and see not only a nation but a world centering interest in the schools and their needs during Armistice Week. Many inquiries have been received from other countries, and we are encouraging this method of promoting education in all nations. Fifteen ministers of education are already interested in the movement. Think of the educational and social advance in the nation and world if this ideal should be carried out!

The President of the United States was not invited to issue a proclamation for American Education Week last year. The committee took the view that it answered every purpose for governors and mayors to issue proclamations. This led to the suspicion that the President had withdrawn

his support from this worthy movement. The fact that the Bureau of Education had withdrawn its part in preparing the program lent color to

**PRESIDENT'S
PROCLAMATION
FOR AMERICAN
EDUCATION
WEEK**

that view. It must be understood, however, that the Bureau still encourages the observance of the week, although it does not promote it on its own funds. The failure of the committee to extend an invitation did injustice to the President, who had gladly issued proclamations on previous occasions.

We recommend that the Representative Assembly direct the president of the Association in cooperation with the American Legion to invite President Coolidge to issue a proclamation in September for the observance of American Education Week, November 7-13.

Superintendent Weet, of Rochester, New York, takes the position that the expenses of members of committees should be taken care of by the local schools. He bases this view on the fact that the benefits to the local school system justify the expenditure. If such a policy were adopted it would add as much as twenty percent to the amount of work which could be undertaken on available funds. In the case of colleges, their rela-

**INSTITUTIONS
TO SHARE
IN COST OF
RESEARCH**

tions to the public are such that they feel the need of extending help on the problems of the profession and the schools. They do so because of their positions of responsibility and because it is the most effective form of acquainting the public with their serv-

ices. The expenses of college men who have worked on committees have often been looked after by their institutions. Why should we not take it as a matter of course that school and college authorities will care for the expenses of those who are honored by membership on committees?

The payment of expenses of Association officers, of department officers, and of members of committees could easily use up the major part of the available funds for service. The amount paid out this year on hotel and traveling expenses exceeded \$25,000. It is observed that the officers of departments have as a rule tried to hold these expenditures to the minimum, yet the total is amazingly high. There is much less extravagance in the use of funds in our Association than in other associations. Officers and committee chairmen should see that the fewest possible bills for traveling expenses are presented to the Association for payment. Let other agencies wherever possible share the burden. It must be remembered that more than half the funds come from the membership dues of teachers who have

**TRAVELING
EXPENSES**

difficulty in making ends meet. Do we not owe it to these members to use every dollar to bring back the best possible results in service to them and to

their schools? So far as expenses of committees fail to count towards this end they should be eliminated. We should see to it that funds are never used simply as an accommodation to an individual. While commending officers for their care in the past, let us urge their continual vigilance in keeping down expenses along lines that do not give immediate results.

Time settles many questions. A few years ago it was thought that it

might become necessary to make a salary allowance for the president of the Association or of departments while on leave of absence from the school for Association duty. Experience shows this to be unnecessary. The Board of Education of Brookline, Massachusetts, granted a year's leave of absence with pay to Miss Mary McSkimmon, president of the Association, in order that she might devote her entire time to the Association. The Boston Board of Education gave a three months' leave of absence with pay to Miss Julia Sullivan in order that she might as president of the Department of Classroom Teachers promote its interests. Similar action has been taken this year by the Kansas City Board of Education in the case of Miss Anna Thompson, president of the Department of Classroom Teachers, and by the Lincoln Board of Education in the case of Miss E. Ruth Pyrtle, president of the Department of Elementary Principals. Each of these department officers has been given three months' leave of absence on pay. There is hardly an instance where the president has not had all the time he needed for Association work without any loss of salary. As a rule, boards of education are willing to grant a leave of absence on pay in appreciation of the honor which has come to the school system and in recognition of the good work of the one elected as president. Why not leave this matter entirely with the local authorities? There now seems to be a well settled policy not to pay salaries for officers out of the funds of the Association.

**PAYMENT OF
SALARIES OF
OFFICERS**

Among the measures to be considered by the Board of Directors is a plan of retirement allowances for the headquarters staff. The Committee on Retirement allowances made the recommendation for such a plan at the Philadelphia meeting. The Representative Assembly approved. The Executive Committee and Board of Directors have authorized a committee to have a report ready for final adoption at the Seattle meeting. A scheme is being worked out similar to the systems adopted by the National Geographic Society and the United States Chamber of Commerce.

**RETIREMENT
ALLOWANCES
FOR
HEADQUARTERS
STAFF**

Certain provisions in the bylaws are not in harmony with the charter. The committee on delegate representation and kindred questions, of which Dr. P. P. Claxton is chairman, will propose at this meeting corrective amendments. Let us urge unanimous consent to vote at once on all these strictly corrective amendments. The committee will recommend other changes in the bylaws. Some of these will need to lay over for a year, but there will be no question as to the wisdom of giving unanimous consent for considering a few necessary changes at this meeting. The recommendations of the Secretary made at the Philadelphia meeting were referred to Dr. Claxton's committee for consideration by the action of Board of Directors and the Representative Assembly.

**AMENDING THE
BYLAWS**

The Association is arranging to pay \$20,000 on delegates' expenses for the Seattle meeting which means less per delegate for those in the east

who go to Seattle than an allowance of \$10,000 meant per delegate for those living in the west when the meetings were held nearer the center of population. The Committee considers it best to continue the policy of pay-

DELEGATE EXPENSES

ing a small portion of delegates' expenses, but the \$20,000 for the Seattle meeting should not be looked upon as a precedent. The amount is larger than the Association can afford to allow on its present budget. The Committee will recommend that the allowance for 1928 be \$10,000. Only in emergencies such as that for Seattle should the amount go above this sum.

The Association needs to borrow large sums to tide over the summer vacation. Last year the amount borrowed from the bank was \$20,000 and publishers and business firms were asked to hold over to October and November bills beyond \$50,000 incurred from June to September. The amount to be borrowed this year may be even greater owing to the larger business to be transacted during the summer months.

FUNDS FOR SUMMER MONTHS

More and more October and November are coming to be the income producing months. An effort will be made to handle the budget in such a way as to have hereafter larger balances on June 1 to aid in tiding over the summer months.

The continuous growth in active membership guarantees increased service to the profession from year to year. The growth in life membership in a like manner guarantees the permanency of the Association and its still greater service in the future. The 100 percent

LIFE MEMBERSHIP

school and the larger life membership are equally important in furthering the interests of the profession and the schools. The year has resulted in adding in cash and notes more than \$60,000 to the permanent fund from life memberships alone, due largely to the efforts of Philadelphia delegates and state directors. Is it not safe to estimate that with the help of the Seattle delegates \$100,000 will be added to the permanent fund in 1927-28? On May 20 there were 960 life members. It is predicted that the count will reach 1000 at this convention.

Let us be sure that we are right and then stand together. Why should we drop a good cause because of opposition? The better the cause the stronger the forces working against it may be. Congressmen who wish to avoid new issues and new troubles assured some of our educators that the School Land Bill could not pass in opposition to the wishes of the Department of the Interior. These same educators became disheartened and were defeated in their own minds, but the state secretaries did not acknowledge defeat so easily.

STAND TOGETHER

They stood together and the bill became a law. Many perfectly good men and women who believe in the principles of the New Education Bill are ready to release the reins because certain Congressmen say it is a dead issue and that time spent in its promotion is wasted.

Such faith will never move mountains. Our easing up for the moment on the child labor measure gave renewed courage to the opposition who are now attacking the entire principle of national interests in child welfare. A United States Senator in speaking recently before the Daughters of the American Revolution ridiculed the whole child welfare movement and boldly asked the help of those distinguished women to do away with the Children's Bureau. The audience, while appreciating the oratory, must have looked upon any such request as being a reflection on their intelligence and as an insinuation that they cared less for the wellbeing of their own offspring than for the glory of their ancestry.

PERSONNEL CLASSIFICATION

We may well take pride in the leadership of the Association among the great national organizations in adopting in 1920 uptodate methods of keeping records and of classifying accounts, in adopting in 1922 a budget system on a historical basis, and in adopting in 1927 a system of personnel classification for the headquarters staff showing minimum and maximum salaries with annual increases. These steps were taken to further guarantee the care and safety of funds to make more certain the economical use of the fees paid by members and to increase the efficiency of the organization for the service which it should render to the profession.

PURPOSE OF STEPS TAKEN

The last step, that of adopting a system of personnel classification at the Dallas meeting in 1927, was taken as in previous cases after careful study and investigation. In this study the executive committee was fortunate in getting the best help the United States Bureau of Efficiency could give. H. D. Brown, chief of the Bureau, and two of his leading assistants, Mr. Peck and Mr. McReynolds, gave many hours' work to this scheme. Mr. Peck, who had achieved success as a college professor and in school administration before he became connected with the bureau, was exceedingly well prepared to adapt the system used in the classification of the personnel of the departments of the Federal Government in Washington to the needs of our Association. Mr. Brown has had a long and successful experience in efficiency work. His name in this field first came into prominence in his work as a member of President Taft's Commission on Economy and Efficiency. The members of the Bureau of Efficiency made no charge for their services. They were glad to give their time because of their own interest in education and in the good work of the Association. The executive committee made only a few changes in adapting the plan to our immediate use. The plan appears on page 1119 of this volume.

HELP OF UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EFFICIENCY

A MODEL FOR OTHER NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

THE SEVENTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Delegates who attended the Sixty-fifth annual meeting of the National Education Association in Seattle, Washington, July 3-8, 1927. The classification of positions includes (1) directors and supervisors, (2) superintendents, (3) principals, (4) classroom teachers, (5) college and normal presidents, (6) educational editors and secretaries, and (7) ex-officio members.

ALABAMA

Blake, Jessie (Teacher), Cunningham School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Burnett, J. M. (Superintendent), Superintendent City Schools, Tuscaloosa; Alabama Education Association.
 Faulk, Knoxie Mae, 2518 22nd Avenue, North Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Grimes, Hattie (Teacher), Powell School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Hayes, Lois (Teacher), High School, Ensley; Alabama Education Association.
 Hendon, Annie (Teacher), 833 South 41st Street, Birmingham; Alabama Education Association.
 Hodges, P. W. (Director), Certification and Placement, State Department of Education, Montgomery; Alabama Education Association.
 Jones, Grace (Teacher), Ensley High School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 McGehee, Laura (Teacher), Pratt School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Mathison, Mrs. R. M. (Teacher), Enterprise; Alabama Education Association.
 Poore, Mary (Supervisor), 2015 Park Avenue, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
 Stacey, Daisy, 1210 Tuscaloosa Avenue, Birmingham; Alabama Education Association.
 Wilkinson, T. G. (Superintendent), Superintendent City Schools, Eufaula; Alabama Education Association.
 Williams, J. D. (Ex-officio), Principal Avondale School, Birmingham; State Director.

ALASKA

Bowman, Conrad Henry (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Petersburg; Alaska Educational Association.
 Henderson, Lester D. (Ex-officio), Commissioner of Education, Juneau.
 Mitchell, G. C. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Ketchikan; Alaska Educational Association.

ARIZONA

Archambeau, Mrs. Alice (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, Prescott; Arizona Education Association.
 Daniels, Mrs. Annie (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, Tucson; Arizona Education Association.
 Grau, Miss Miriam (Superintendent), County Superintendent of Schools, Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.
 Martin, Fern (Superintendent), 322 West Roosevelt, Phoenix; Phoenix Teachers Association.
 Sæxson, J. A. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Bisbee; Warren District Teachers Association.
 Stidham, Lois, 370 North First, Phoenix; Phoenix Teachers Association.
 Vail, Alice L., 1324 East 7th, Tucson; National Council of Administrative Women in Education.

ARKANSAS

Callaway, Estelle (Teacher), 1900 Louisiana Street, Little Rock; Woman Teachers Association of Little Rock.
 Davis, Pearl (Superintendent), Deputy State Superintendent, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Griffey, Annie (Supervisor), Primary Work, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Hill, A. B. (Ex-officio), President, Ouachita College, Arkadelphia; State Director.
 McCuiston, Fred (Supervisor), Rural School, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Nichols, Lela (Supervisor), Opportunity School, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Pitts, Gertrude, 915 Cumberland Street, Little Rock; Woman Teachers Association of Little Rock.
 Ross, A. S. (Assistant State Superintendent), Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
 Womack, J. P. (Ex-officio), State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Little Rock.

BRITISH COLUMBIA

Straight, Robert (Principal), 2650 5th Avenue, West, Vancouver; Vancouver Principals Association.

CALIFORNIA

Adams, Adelaide (Teacher), 3046 Benvenue Avenue, Berkeley; Oakland Teachers Association.
 Aker, Homer F. (Superintendent), Box 356, Holtville; Imperial County Teachers Association.
 Anderson, C. A. (Principal), Hamilton Junior High School, 35 Justin Drive, San Francisco; San Francisco School Principals Association.
 Bardarson, Otto W. (Principal), 2226 Belmont Avenue, Fresno; Fresno City Council of Education.
 Barker, Pearl, 3110 Marqueta Street, Long Beach; City Teachers Club.
 Barnhill, Mrs. Ellen, 1974 Las Lucas Street, Pasadena; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
 Barnum, Wm. F. (Principal), High School, Santa Monica; California Teachers Association.
 Bassette, Louise (Teacher), 509 West Poplar, Stockton; Stockton Elementary Teachers Association.
 Berry, Emmett R. (Superintendent), Cypress Street, LaHabra; Orange County Principals and Teachers Association.
 Boyer, Fred A. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Coronado; California Teachers Association.
 Briggs, Clarence R. (Teacher), 3812 Carolina Avenue, San Pedro; High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles City.
 Broadwater, C. R., El Segundo; California Teachers Association.
 Brown, Irene Frank (Teacher), 234 South Kenmore, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
 Brown, Mabel (Teacher), 311 Lime Avenue, Long Beach; City Teachers Club.

- Brown, Wm. G. S. (Teacher), 1213 Cedar, Long Beach; City Teachers Club.
- Buchser, Emil R. (Principal), 396 Minnesota Avenue, San Jose; Santa Clara County Teachers Association.
- Bullard, Cora (Teacher), 670 Eighth Avenue, San Francisco; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.
- Bullock, Albert E., 353 Chamber of Commerce Building, Los Angeles; Council of Directors and Supervisors of the Los Angeles City Schools.
- Burbank, Myrtle (Teacher), Hotel Glendale, Glendale; Glendale Union High School Teachers Club.
- Cauch, F. R. (Director), 2316 Valdez Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Chamberlain, Arthur H. (Secretary), 933 Phelan Building, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Christiansen, Helen (Director), 2395 Pacific Avenue, San Francisco; California Kindergarten Primary Association.
- Clifton, A. R. (Superintendent), Superintendent of Schools, Monrovia; California Teachers Association.
- Cloud, A. J., Chief Deputy Superintendent of Schools, City Hall, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Colburn, Miss Marian M. (Teacher), 535 Oakland Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Copperider, A. O. (Principal), High School, Arcata; California Teachers Association.
- Cotrel, Edna (Teacher), 3240 Clay Street, San Francisco; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.
- Craft, Helen S. (Teacher), 1724 15th Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Cramsie, Wm. P. (Teacher), 101 East St. James, San Jose; California Teachers Association.
- Cutting, Marjorie (Teacher), 332 Santa Clara Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Davidson, Norabelle (Teacher), Hotel Trinity, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles City.
- Devereau, Myrtle (Teacher), 20 East Willow, Stockton; Stockton Elementary Teachers Association.
- Dopp, Eugene H. (Teacher), 1439 Barros Road, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Eggert, Mrs. Edith (Teacher), 1941 Harcourt Avenue, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Eisner, Miriam D. (Teacher), 3117 California Street, San Francisco; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.
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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Table of Publications, 1926-27¹

Title 1	When published 2	Number of pages in each 3	Number of copies printed 4	Total number of pages 5
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	Oct., 1926	68	160,000	10,880,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	Nov., 1926	68	160,000	10,880,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	Dec., 1926	68	160,000	10,880,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	Jan., 1927	68	175,000	11,900,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	Feb., 1927	68	150,000	10,200,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	March, 1927	68	150,000	10,200,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	April, 1927	68	150,000	10,200,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	May, 1927	68	150,000	10,200,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association	June, 1927	68	150,000	10,200,000
Preprints and reprints from the Journal				43,350
Addresses and Proceedings	Nov., 1926	1,208	6,500	7,852,000
Reprint of Department of Adult Education	Aug., 1926	42	4,000	168,000
Reprint of List of Delegates	Sept., 1926	21	500	10,500
Program, Philadelphia Convention	June, 1926	64	12,000	768,000
Official Manual for Delegates	June, 1926	27	1,500	108,000
Annual Report of Secretary	June, 1926	52	2,000	104,000
Reprint, Report of Secretary	July, 1926	20	5,000	100,000
Reprint of Division of Publications	June, 1926	8	500	4,000
Report of the Executive Committee	June, 1926	16	1,500	24,000
Report of the Board of Trustees	June, 1926	16	1,500	24,000
Treasurer's Report	June, 1926	4	1,500	6,000
Report of Committee on Resolutions	July, 1927	1	1,500	1,500
Report of Legislative Committee	July, 1927	4	2,500	10,000
Report of Committee of 100 on the Problem of Tenure	June, 1926	24	1,500	36,000
Reprint	Oct., 1926	24	1,000	24,000
Report of Committee of 100 on Classroom Teachers' Problems	June, 1926	72	1,500	108,000
Report of Committee on Community Relations	June, 1926	8	1,500	12,000
Report of Committee on Visual Education	June, 1926	4	1,500	6,000
Reprint	June, 1926	4	1,500	6,000
Reprint	Oct., 1926	4	5,000	20,000
Report of Committee on Home for Retired Teachers	June, 1926	8	1,500	12,000
Report of Committee on Problem of Retirement Allowances	July, 1926	72	1,500	108,000
Report of Committee of 100 on Rural Teachers' Problems	June, 1926	16	1,500	24,000
Report of the N. C. of E. Committee on Pupil Personnel in Part-time Schools	June, 1926	48	1,500	72,000

¹ Figures do not include certain material published outside the Headquarters office.

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Report of Committee on Standards, Requirements and Credits	June, 1926	12	1,500	18,000
Report on Better Cooperation between Schools and Museums	June, 1926	4	1,500	6,000
Report of the Committee on Ethics	June, 1926	64	2,500	160,000
Report of Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education	June, 1926	4	1,500	6,000
Report of Committee on Behavior Problems of Children	June, 1926	16	2,000	32,000
Report of Committee on Evaluation of Instruction	June, 1926	104	1,500	156,000
American Association of Teachers Colleges Yearbook	July, 1927	116	700	81,200
Constitution of National Council of Education	June, 1926	4	500	2,000
Reprint of Health Education	Oct., 1926	164	10,000	1,640,000
Department of Superintendence—Fifth Yearbook	Dec., 1926	562	12,000	6,744,000
Department of Superintendence—Dallas Program	Jan., 1927	64	13,000	832,000
Preprint—Dallas Program	Jan., 1927	24	6,000	144,000
Department of Superintendence—Official Report	March, 1927	344	4,000	1,376,000
Department of Superintendence—Gray folder	June, 1926	6	15,000	90,000
Reprint	Dec., 1926	6	5,000	30,000
Department of Superintendence—Gray folder	April, 1927	6	10,000	60,000
Cooperative Plan of Curriculum Revision	Oct., 1926	6	5,000	30,000
Elementary School Principals—Membership folder	Aug., 1926	6	50,000	300,000
Reprint	Oct., 1926	6	20,000	120,000
Elementary School Principals—Leaflet	Nov., 1926	4	60,000	240,000
Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. VI, No. 1	Oct., 1926	64	5,500	352,000
Reprint, pages 56-57, Vol. VI, No. 1		2	1,000	2,000
Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. VI, No. 2	Jan., 1927	64	5,500	352,000
Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. VI, No. 3 (Sixth Yearbook)	April, 1927	260	7,000	1,820,000
Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. VI, No. 4	June, 1927	64	5,000	320,000
Educational Research Service Folder	April, 1927	6	6,000	36,000
Research Bulletin Leaflet	July, 1926	6	5,000	30,000
Value of the Research Bulletin as a Textbook for use in summer schools	June, 1926	4	1,800	7,200
Research Bulletin—Vol. 4, No. 3—Efficient Teaching and Retirement Legislation	July, 1926	72	15,300	1,101,600
Research Bulletin—Vol. 4, No. 4—A Handbook of Major Educational Issues	Sept., 1926	72	15,300	1,101,600
Research Bulletin—Vol. 4, No. 5—Major Issues in School Finance—Part I	Nov., 1926	32	18,000	576,000
Research Bulletin—Vol. 5, No. 1—Major Issues in School Finance—Part II	Dec., 1926	64	18,000	1,152,000
Research Bulletin—Vol. 5, No. 2—Salaries in City School Systems, 1926-'27	March, 1927	64	18,000	1,152,000
Research Bulletin—Vol. 5, No. 3—The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries	May, 1927	64	E 15,000	E 960,000
Information about the Research Bulletin	June, 1926	4	1,800	7,200
Information about the Research Bulletin	Nov., 1926	2	3,700	7,400
Facts about the Research Bulletin	April, 1927	4	8,000	32,000
Reprint—Research Bulletin, Vol. 3, Nos. 4 & 5—Keeping Pace	July, 1926	96	5,000	480,000
Membership Leaflet, 1926-'27: Its Goal	Aug., 1926	8	50,000	400,000
Reprint	Oct., 1926	8	25,000	200,000
Work, Growth, Membership	Sept., 1926	2	200,000	400,000
What the Association Does	July, 1926	2	100,000	200,000
Sources of Income—Distribution of Expenditures	Nov., 1926	4	10,000	40,000
Life Enlistments in the N. E. A.	Sept., 1926	6	20,000	120,000
Reprint	Dec., 1926	6	25,000	150,000
American Education Week Program Leaflet	Aug., 1926	4	25,000	100,000
Reprint	Oct., 1926	4	2,500	10,000
Questions on the Public Schools (A. E. W.)	Aug., 1926	16	8,000	128,000
N. E. A. Booklet of Information	Sept., 1926	16	3,000	48,000
Reprint	Nov., 1927	16	5,000	80,000
Classroom Teachers—Information Card	Sept., 1926	2	5,000	10,000
Reprint	March, 1927	2	500	1,000
First Yearbook	June, 1926	88	2,000	176,000
Second Yearbook	May, 1927	244	1,500	366,000
Classroom Teachers—Minutes at Philadelphia	April, 1927	4	500	2,000
Curtis-Reed Bill—Reprint	Jan., 1927	8	5,000	40,000

Title 1	When published 2	Number of pages in each 3	Number of copies printed 4	Total number of pages 5
What the New Education Bill is (blue card) . . .	Feb., 1927	2	20,000	40,000
Reprint—The Case for the New Education Bill . . .	Feb., 1927	68	20,000	1,360,000
Reprint—The Case for the New Education Bill . . .	April, 1927	68	10,000	680,000
Reprint—Catechism on New Education Bill . . .	Jan., 1927	8	20,000	160,000
Reprint—Catechism on New Education Bill . . .	April, 1927	8	10,000	80,000
Reprint—Bill to Create a Department (P. Smith) . . .	Nov., 1926	4	10,000	40,000
Reprint—Bill to Create a Department (P. Smith) . . .	April, 1927	4	10,000	40,000
Reprint—Proposal for a bill (Strayer)	Jan., 1927	12	5,000	60,000
Reprint—Proposal for a bill (Strayer)	April, 1927	12	5,000	60,000
Exhibit diagrams and price lists	Dec., 1926	4	600	2,400
Exhibit announcement	Nov., 1926	4	4,000	16,000
Dallas Exhibit, booklet	Feb., 1927	24	10,500	252,000
Classified List of Educational Journals	May, 1927	16	3,500	56,000
List of publications	Oct., 1926	4	50,000	200,000
Reprint	Nov. 1926	4	50,000	200,000
Reprint	April, 1927	4	3,000	12,000
Mimeographing				74,000
Circulars and Forms, printed and multigraphed				2,688,085
Total				129,239,035

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