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NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
OF THE UNITED STATES

Proceedings
OF THE
SIXTY-SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING
HELD AT
MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA
JULY 1-6, 1928

VOLUME 66

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) Research Bulletin (5 issues).

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

THIS IS the sixty-sixth annual record of the service of the National Education Association to the teachers and children of America. The administration of President Cornelia S. Adair, the first classroom teacher president of the Association, emphasized education for citizenship. The summer meeting was held in Minneapolis.

In contrast to 1927, both 1928 meetings were held nearer the centers of population. The Department of Superintendence met in Boston in February. A special feature of the meeting was the presentation to Mrs. Evangeline L. L. Lindbergh of a Life Membership in the National Education Association. Before an audience which packed Mechanics Hall, President Gwinn on behalf of the Department of Superintendence placed around Mrs. Lindbergh's neck the chain that held the life membership emblem, explaining that he did so as a tribute to her as the mother of the world's greatest flier and the teacher who by her modesty and devotion to duty reflected credit on the world's greatest profession. Colonel Lindbergh was present and addressed the audience, stressing the need for instruction in elementary aeronautics in the schools.

The Association took on wider opportunity and greater responsibility when, at Boston, the National Association of Secondary-school Principals became the Department of Secondary-school Principals of the National Education Association. This merger had been under consideration for some time and was finally completed at the Boston Meeting.

A new department appears in the *Proceedings* this year. It is the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, which was created by the Board of Directors at the Minneapolis meeting.

An effort is made each year to improve the *Proceedings* by paying careful attention to the material for its content. A special effort is made to preserve those records and addresses which are the landmarks in the advance of the teaching profession throughout the years.

DIVISION OF PUBLICATIONS

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 those 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 Minneapolis 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

MINNEAPOLIS in the heart of the land of ten thousand lakes was host to the 1928 summer meeting of the National Education Association. The new Minneapolis auditorium took care of the large crowds comfortably. The educational exhibits were never finer and their position in the basement of the Auditorium brought unusually large crowds of visitors. President Adair's theme "Education for Citizenship," was the foundation of many inspiring addresses from leading educators and laymen of the country. Registration easily passed 10,000. There were 1152 delegates representing all the states and territories. Many visitors took advantage of the unusual vacation facilities and the summer session at the University of Minnesota.

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 of Superintendents' Advisory Committees; National Association of Visiting Teachers; National Conference on Art Education; National Conference on Student Participation in School Government; 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 League of Teachers' Associations; National Vocational Guidance Association; School Garden Association of America.

WELCOME TO THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

ARTHUR R. ROGERS, PRESIDENT, MINNEAPOLIS CIVIC AND COMMERCE
ASSOCIATION, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

IT is with much pleasure that I extend to the delegates and guests of the National Education Association greetings on behalf of the citizens of Minneapolis and the organization of which I am the head. Minneapolis is proud and honored to be your host and to extend to you every courtesy that is within our power. We hope your stay in our city will be an experience that will live long in your memory.

Cities, as well as individuals and organizations, have ideals, but the organization of which you are members, to my mind, stands out unique among all organizations for its ideals and ambitions. To me the word "teacher" has a peculiar significance and carries with it grave responsibilities as well as satisfaction. To be a teacher means much, for our life is made up of continuing educational processes and to be a teacher means, therefore, the preparation of the young, the middle-aged and older people for the carrying on of their life work.

You take the boy and girl as soon as they can talk—you prepare them for the kindergarten, the elementary school, high school, college, or university. You are responsible for teaching them not only what is found between the covers of textbooks, but that which is of even greater importance; you teach them the fundamentals of good citizenship, to love their country, to respect their government, to honor those in high places who conduct their offices honorably and honestly; you teach them to have respect for, and to observe our laws. In other words, you take the children and endeavor to make good citizens. Your ideals are of the highest and your aims of the noblest.

Minneapolis as a community also has ideals. It is unique in the character of its business and professional men and women, who give of themselves freely and generously in carrying on any and all civic, charitable, and philanthropic projects which are beneficial to the community as a whole. We believe in the ideals which you endeavor to teach. You prepare the individuals for us; we take them and endeavor to carry on the work which you have started. We believe in right education; we believe that our boys and girls should be educated to earn an honest living, to be good citizens, to assume their responsibilities as citizens in the carrying on of every good work.

You can see from this that our ideals are similar to those of your own organization and with the common bond which exists we are sure that you will find in our people the ideal host. It will be our endeavor to send you away from here, not only satisfied with the results of your own convention but with your stay in our city. We want you to enjoy everything our city has to offer, our lakes, our parks, our art galleries

and other things of beauty, and above all we wish you to feel that our people are the ideal hosts and that in leaving, you leave friends who are desirous that in the not distant future you may again be our guests as an organization and frequently our guests as individuals.

In closing I cannot find a better expression of the warm and cordial spirit of hospitality in our hearts than to quote the ancient Greek saying inscribed upon the building which stands at the Gateway to our city: "More than her gates, the city opens her heart to you."

THE TEACHER, THE MASTER WORKMAN

THEODORE CHRISTIANSON, GOVERNOR OF MINNESOTA

I deem it a privilege as chief executive of the commonwealth to welcome to Minnesota the delegates of this convention. Many notable gatherings have honored us this season, but none more significant or more important to the state than this, representing the National Education Association. For education is not only a function of the state; it is the most essential and most effective means of its defense. It is the surest guaranty of its perpetuity.

Bismarck once said that the "nation that has the schools has the future." The Iron Chancellor knew that if Germany was going to become a great and powerful country, it must be through the intelligence of its people. His dream was realized. A system of education which stressed efficiency, thoroughness, and loyalty, made a nation which was not notable for its territory or resources, one of the most powerful in the world.

If education was so essential to a state with autocratic institutions, what must not be its value and significance in a country whose government rests ultimately upon the individual citizen? If the future of a country with one language and a homogeneous social structure depended on schools, then what of a nation which embraces all nations, speaks all languages, professes all creeds, reflects all national and racial ideals?

Although it is many years since I made my first visit to old Boston, I remember that sojourn there most distinctly. Not from choice but from necessity, I ate baked beans and apple pie for breakfast. I lost my way on the downtown streets, the paths where the cows of Puritan New England had lost theirs three hundred years before. I strolled on the Common, where minute-men drilled. I saw the spot where the heroes of the Boston Massacre fell. I stood with bared head at the graves of Samuel Adams and John Hancock and felt the spirit of the Revolution in my heart.

But the part of that Boston visit that thrilled me most was the hour I spent in the Old North Church, where on a Sunday morning I attended worship, sitting in the very pews where Revolutionary Fathers had sat a hundred and forty years before. As I stepped out of the church that morning, I engaged in conversation with a boy of ten. He had black hair,

deep brown eyes, and a skin that suggested the ripe olives of his ancestral Italy. The boy led me through streets filled with the memories and mementos of the men who made America; but I found them occupied by a foreign people. I heard not one word of the English tongue, except from my companion. I learned that every Sunday afternoon in the Old North Church services were held in the Italian language.

The boy showed me Copps' Hill Cemetery and pointed out the grave of Cotton Mather. He accompanied me to the birthplace of Benjamin Franklin and to the home of Paul Revere. He told me many incidents in the history of Massachusetts Bay colony and detailed Boston's share in the Revolution. I was amazed at the amount of knowledge the young man possessed, and I asked him, "My friend, where did you learn all this?" To which he replied, "In the public schools." Again I asked him, "You are an Italian, aren't you?" For a moment there was deep thoughtfulness in his eyes, and then he replied, "My father was an Italian and my mother was an Italian, but I am an American."

He did not say it to rebuke me, for in his face was not resentment, but exaltation.

I had had an opportunity to glimpse the melting pot and to catch the secret of its alchemy. We come here from many shores. We bring with us different tongues, different traits and different traditions. We are dissimilar, not only in apparel, but in ideas and ideals. But we send our children to the same schools. They learn a common language, they read a common literature, they study the history of a common country; soon they feel the thrill of one patriotism and a veneration for one flag.

Where has America been made? In the stress and strain of colonization and adventure? In the wide spaces, where horizons stretched farthest and one could plow the longest furrows? In the heat and fury of battle, where men forgetting home and kin and family, lost themselves in sacrifice for country or a cause? In the boom towns of the West, where opportunity held out beckoning hands; in the deep forests which yielded their trees in order that great cities might be built in the wilderness; among the oil-derricks, and in the huge pits which furnished the raw material for railroads and skyscrapers?

Undoubtedly America has been made in mine and mill and factory, on farms, in forests and on battlefields. But these alone could not have made it. For America means more than material wealth and economic opportunity; more than far-flung boundaries and unparalleled national power. It means undivided loyalty to an ideal and unswerving devotion to a great purpose. To afford a place where men and women might do their work and enjoy the fruits of it; where they might think their own thoughts and express them, dream their own dreams and realize them; where they might grow unhampered and unhindered to the fullness of their possibilities; where they might make the great experiment of Democracy and apply its lessons in the social, the industrial, and the intel-

lectual, no less than in the political field—this was the purpose to which America was dedicated, and which America must realize to justify the high hopes and the willing sacrifices of the Fathers.

So if you ask me where America was made, I will say that it was made where its principles were cherished, its ideals vivified and its purposes made clear. It was made where character was strengthened, loyalty deepened, intelligence expanded, and patriotism intensified.

So this morning I salute you—for America was made in the schoolroom. The raw material was boys and girls, and the Master Workman was the Teacher!

GREETINGS FROM THE CANADIAN TEACHERS' FEDERATION TO THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

E. A. HARDY, PRESIDENT, CANADIAN TEACHERS' FEDERATION, TORONTO,
CANADA

I appreciate more than I can tell you, the honor which is mine today of representing the Canadian Teachers' Federation, and of conveying in their name the greetings of the teachers of Canada to the teachers of the United States. I am happy to bring to the senior national teachers' organization in North America, organized in 1857, the greetings of the junior national organization, organized in 1921, both organizations representing every state or province. The 20,000 Canadian teachers in the C. T. F. send greetings to the 180,000 American teachers in the N. E. A. The second national unit to join the World Federation of Education Associations extends its greetings to the first national unit.

May I add a personal touch. The Canadian president is a classroom teacher in a Toronto high school. You, Madam President, are a classroom teacher in a Richmond high school. As one high school teacher to another, I bring you my personal greetings and my personal appreciation of your kindnesses to me.

Speaking as a Canadian on July 2nd, just between our Dominion Day, July 1st, and your Independence Day, July 4, it seemed to me fitting that I should try to express to you, though in the briefest way, the outstanding features of Canada and Canadian life and the relation of the Canadian teachers to that national life. If my claims seem to be somewhat excessive, please remember that modesty is our middle name and govern your judgments accordingly.

There are five characteristics of Canada which I would note. First, the high standards of life, material and spiritual. Thanks to our natural resources, agricultural and mineral, rich beyond the dreams of the wildest imagination, and to the marvelous development of these resources, our people live in a general comfort and prosperity unequalled anywhere except in the United States. On the spiritual side we have a creditable achievement in literature, painting, architecture, music, and science, and the power of re-

ligion in our life is deep and vital. In her general standards of life, both material and spiritual, Canada is second to no other country in the world.

Second, Canada is a land of democracy. Let me apply three severe tests—flexibility to the people's will, public service, and public ownership. In Canada, not only must every administration, federal and provincial, go to the people for election every four or five years, but they may go at any time, if public opinion demands it. It is a frequent practice to dissolve parliament and appeal to the people, if the government so desires. This is governmental flexibility of a high order. As to public service, we have opportunity, through out federal, provincial, and municipal bodies, for many thousands of our men and women to represent their fellow citizens. Possibly no other country elects a larger percentage of its citizens to public office. As to public ownership, Canada occupies a front rank. The Dominion of Canada owns and operates the greatest railway system in the world, a double transcontinental line from the Atlantic to the Pacific of over 22,000 miles. The people of the Province of Ontario own and operate a hydro-electric system which supplies 70 percent of the people of that province with electric light and power. Many of our municipalities own and operate public utilities—Toronto with its street car and bus system, claims to have no superior.

A third Canadian characteristic is cooperation. Our area is so vast, our resources so enormous, our population so small as yet, and so scattered that we have been learning that in cooperation lies our hope of success. Two striking examples may be given. The English and the French races are united in the government and the development of Canada with marked success. The Religious Education Council of Canada is a nation-wide union of the great Protestant denominations, and the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. for a systematic undertaking of the great task of the religious culture of our young people. So far as I know this is the only nation-wide movement of the kind in the world.

A fourth characteristic is that of our imperial and international relationships. While we have absolute autonomy in our national, provincial and local affairs, an autonomy quite equal to that of the United States, we are also a member of the British Empire. His Majesty, George V is our King, quite as much as he is the King of the English. We have the same right of appeal to the throne as has any Englishman. Our sense of responsibility to the British Empire is a vital factor in our life, attested, for example, by our enrolling over half a million men in the Great War.

Internationally we are taking our place. One of our greatest Canadians was a member of the small group who made the League of Nations and gave it its Constitution. Canada has been a member of the League of Nations from the first. A Canadian has been President of the Assembly of the League and Canada is now admitted to the inner group, the Council of the League. In imperial and international affairs Canada is as-

suming her place and her people are developing an imperial and a world outlook.

As a fifth characteristic, let me say that Canada in her strategic position geographically, politically, and economically may serve as the interpreter of Great Britain to the United States and vice versa. From our middle position we understand both and can help each to understand the other, surely a service of high value to the world.

The relation of the teacher to a life of such characteristics, national, imperial, and international, is one of supreme importance. All that ability, character, education, culture and professional training can do should be combined with working conditions that will stimulate his highest endeavor. The quality of the Canadian teacher is maintained at a uniformly high standard by the rigid demand of all the Provincial Departments of Education.

It is to achieve such a type of teaching service that professional teachers' organizations have sprung into existence in every province in Canada and that these provincial organizations have united into the Canadian Teachers' Federation. In the eight years of our existence, we have met on the Pacific Coast and the Atlantic, as well as in the center. We have developed a sense of Canadian professional consciousness which has been a keen stimulus to the whole body of our teachers. Salaries have been raised very materially, working conditions improved and the whole status of the profession heightened.

Along with this professional service to its members, the Canadian Teachers' Federation has developed a sense of Canadian nationhood, replacing local outlook with a national outlook, thus rendering the nation a high service. As a member of the World Federation of Education Associations, the Canadian Teachers' Federation has taken its share in the development of that great organization and was able in Toronto last year to act as host to its second biennial Conference.

Canadian teachers are realizing as never before the part they must play in the making of nationhood. We know that American teachers are playing a magnificent part in their own national development and so this morning, on behalf of the 20,000 Canadian teachers whom I have the honor to represent, I bring you a message of God Speed in this great work that you are so loyally undertaking in making the American republic not only a mighty but a noble nation, high-minded, democratic, and God-fearing, and one of the world's greatest factors in international peace.

RESPONSE TO GREETINGS

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
SPRINGFIELD, ILL., FIRST VICEPRESIDENT OF THE ASSOCIATION

In making a response to these words of welcome and greeting, I recall an experience in the beautiful little city of Watseka, Illinois. The Farmers' County Institute and the Teachers' Institute were meeting in joint session and the mayor was welcoming these two organizations.

When he welcomed the farmers it was noticeable that he used those rather formal, stereotyped phrases of "We welcome you to the public places of the city and all that the city has for you, and if you get into trouble, the chief of police has been authorized to take care of you," or some such phrases as that.

But when he came to speak to the teachers, there was a noticeable change in his words and a new earnestness in his voice, as he said, "What shall I say in word of welcome to you, the teachers of this county? We welcome you not only to the city of Watseka, but we welcome you, as the teachers of our children, to our very homes, to our very firesides."

When the county superintendent of that county came to respond to these words of welcome he said, "Mr. Mayor, on behalf of the teachers of this county, I thank you for your kindly words of welcome to the city, but more particularly do I thank you for that generous extension of your hospitality to your homes, but, Mr. Mayor, may I make bold to say that if you do not want us to come into your homes, you had better not employ us as teachers; for as certainly as you put us into your schoolrooms, we are going to come into your homes whether you want us there or not.

"You may say of Miss X whom you have employed at the school, 'I wouldn't want Miss X in my home under any circumstances. I wouldn't have her sitting by my fireside. I wouldn't have her associating with my children. I wouldn't have her in contact with them, with her disagreeable ways. I wouldn't have them hearing her cynical words, her views of life.'

"Mr. Mayor, if that is your view of Miss X, you had better not employ her as teacher, for one day, whether you invite her or not, she is going to walk up your front steps. She is going to come through your door, and she is going to be sitting by your fireside. She is going to be shrugging her shoulders in the way your children shrug theirs. She is going to express her point of view as your children express theirs. She is going to sit at your table and spread her cynical attitudes and her ill manners, if she has them, in the way your children express themselves at the table."

I know that is a rather fanciful point of view, but I think that is substantiated in the great book *Henry Esmond* written by Bulwer-Lytton when he said, "The relation of teacher and pupil has ever been a delicate one. When the pupil comes in the presence of the teacher and that fine shuttle of thought and emotion goes back and forth, when the pupil arises

and goes from that contact, he is what he was when he came, plus something else, and that something else is the addendum that has come from the personality of the teacher. You can't measure it by the yardstick but every child is different from what he was before." Therefore I think the county superintendent was somewhat right. Every teacher can look upon his pupils in after years and say, "These are my other selves. These are the intellectual and emotional vessels into which my life has flowed."

I believe, therefore, that when a city, a municipality puts a teacher in its schools in a way, in a very definite and particular way, they welcome that teacher to their homes. And sometimes when we meet in a great city like Minneapolis and a great state like Minnesota and we hear these fine words of welcome extended to this great National Education Association, we, without any impertinence, without any reflection in any way, would like to say, "We will receive your words of welcome in the light of the spirit in which you have received and welcomed these, our fellow workers, our brothers in teaching. As they have come into your city, as they have come into your state, as you welcomed them, as you placed them, as you recompensed them for their labor, as you have honored them in the work, you welcomed the National Education Association, and no words however finely spoken will mean over much in welcoming the National Education Association to any city or any state if in that city and state they have not shown their earnest welcome to the National Education Association through the way in which they have treated the men and women in the teaching profession in such cities and in such states."

Certainly in this city and in this state where an educational system extending from border to border is thoroughly efficient in its work, here where, so far as my information goes, you have appreciated and have rewarded the teachers in their work, we are glad to receive these words of welcome from you the representative of the Chamber of Commerce, from the Governor of the State of Minnesota, and from this valiant old soldier in the cause of public education, Superintendent Emeritus Jordan of the schools of Minneapolis.

Therefore, on behalf of this organization I wish to respond to these cordial words of greeting by saying that thus far this Association has been well received in a physical way in this city of Minneapolis and everything is prophetic of a great and memorable meeting.

I can say to our friend, Mr. Hardy, from Canada, that we appreciate heartily his words of kindly greeting from the teachers across the border, and we hope that he will carry back to those teachers the thought that American teachers entertain for them a deep feeling of fellowship and that we desire the closest and friendliest relations between our organization and the organization of teachers in the Dominion of Canada.

Now it is my pleasure, as the presiding officer at this meeting, to perform really the most delightful part of my duty. We have had seven women presidents of the National Education Association, the first one of

them chosen in 1912. From 1856 to 1912 when we started out Samuel-like to find a new king for our Israel, we always found some Saul somewhere in the educational pasture guarding the asses and chose him to guide the destinies of our educational kingdom, to be president of the National Education Association. From 1856 down to 1912 when we spoke of president of the National Education Association we thought of only one sort of a member and that was a man, but in 1912 this Association selected for its president the superintendent of one of the largest cities in America, Mrs. Ella Flagg Young, of Chicago. The next woman to be chosen (I do not know about the rotation whether in the early days it was perfect or not) was Mrs. Bradford, then superintendent of public instruction in the State of Colorado. Following that came the election of Mrs. Preston, then and now superintendent of public instruction in the state of Washington. Next this Association selected for president a woman who was superintendent of one of the largest counties in the state of Tennessee, Miss Charl Williams. Then came the election of two women, both of them principals in large schools, one of them the largest city of the republic, and the other one in the most important city in Massachusetts. Miss Olive Jones was elected as the president representing the principalship of the large elementary schools, and Miss Mary McSkimmon as the principal of a school in Massachusetts. But this year the Association has done a most unique thing. It has chosen a classroom teacher, a teacher in a high school for its president and I am sure that those who have come to know her have realized that in her selection we have a combination of sweetness of personality, of fineness of intelligence, of refinement of imagination, an all-together wonderful combination. It gives me great pleasure at this time to introduce to you our President, Miss Cornelia S. Adair, who will give the President's address.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS

CORNELIA STORRS ADAIR, TEACHER, BAINBRIDGE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL,
RICHMOND, VA., AND PRESIDENT, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
1927-28

The time has come to render an account of my stewardship, and, like the man in the Bible, I can do so with joy and not with sorrow—for every member of the Association and every circumstance have combined to make my term as president a happy one. How could I be aught but happy, when I recall the gracious manner in which you gave me this office, the charm of the lovely city of Seattle, the way in which you have welcomed me into your homes, and at your meetings, the whole-hearted cooperation—the work of the Headquarters staff; and, to crown it all, the beautiful hospitality of our hostess city, Minneapolis, whose hearty welcome has just been extended to us.

Interpreting the work of the Association in the states—When, in Seattle, you did me the honor of electing me your president, it seemed that there

were two contributions that I might try to make to upbuilding our organization. The first was to help the teachers of the country to become better acquainted with their national association—to be more familiar with the scope of its work and its intimate connection with their everyday problems, to make each one feel that it is his, or her, association, and not a mere entity far away in Washington. To this end, I have accepted every invitation that it was physically possible to accept to speak to interested groups. Whenever no definite topic for an address was assigned, I have spoken of the aims of the Association—of our handsome and thoroughly equipped Headquarters in Washington, of what is being done there by the eight divisions. I have told of the work of the Committees and of the eighteen departments. I wish that I might picture to you the way in which this message has been received, or tell of the many special courtesies that have been shown me as the representative of our great national association. This has been a wonderful year—a year full of interesting experiences.

In Canada—Three times your president has had the pleasure of representing the National Education Association in Canada; the first occasion being an address of welcome in your name to the delegates of the convention of the World Federation of Education Associations, which held its biennial meeting in Toronto. More than a thousand of our membership availed themselves of this great opportunity to meet and know educationists from other lands. A little later, the greetings of the National Education Association were presented to the Canadian Federation of Teachers. The last occasion of an official visit to Canada was to represent you at the convention of the Ontario Education Association, when they presented our fellow-teacher, Mrs. Evangeline Lodge Lindbergh, with a life membership. Perhaps you would be interested in knowing the form in which this membership was presented. It was in the shape of a box made of Canadian silver—on each corner of the lid was a maple leaf surmounted by a beaver. In the center was the seal of Ontario. Within was a plate of Canadian gold, on which was engraved the certificate of membership.

Coordinating work of committees and departments—The second task which I undertook was to coordinate, as closely as possible, the work of the various departments and committees of the Association. While each department has its own field of work, nevertheless many educational interests overlap. For example: Classroom teachers are often rural teachers; superintendents, principals and teachers are all interested in character education. It is, therefore, quite possible for the same work to be undertaken by one or more departments, causing a waste of time, energy, and money. This is especially true of committee work within the groups.

Early in the fall, letters were sent to the presidents of the various departments, asking that each outline the work of his or her particular group for this year. These reports were carefully studied. A meeting

of the officers of departments and committee chairmen was called in Boston in order that these persons might know each other and become familiar with the objectives of every group. Those present were so much pleased with the idea of a closer integration of the work of the Association that they decided to make these unofficial gatherings a regular feature of convention procedure. A program has been prepared for this meeting and much good to the organization will doubtless result.

Committee work—Your president and secretary have kept in close touch with the various committees. Arrangements have been made for reports to be given both to the board of directors and to the delegate body. Let me urge that you study the official pamphlets in the envelope given you when you register—thus you will be prepared to evaluate and act upon these reports.

Informational material sent out—It is impossible for me, as president, to give you any idea of the hundred of thousands of pieces of mail that have gone out from Headquarters this year. Every effort has been made to give to our officers, committee chairmen, and members all the information that they should have in regard to the work of the Association. Inquiries for additional knowledge, to supplement the material sent out, have been gratifying in that they have revealed the growing interest in education throughout the country.

Complete agenda have been sent to the Directors before their meetings, both here and in Boston.

For the first time, adequate material in regard to committee reports, and the completed program, have been sent to state and local association secretaries prior to the Convention.

Lay support of education—One of the interesting features of the work has been a more complete realization of the number of groups who stand ready and willing to help the educators of the country in their work for the schools. Frequent invitations have been received to address both men's and women's clubs of every kind and description—social, civic, and business—local, state, national, and international. Every one of these groups has an educational committee. You have only to think of the work for crippled children done by the Shriners and Rotarians, the health work and provisions for the wiser use of leisure time fostered by the Kiwanians and Civitans, the emphasis placed on vocational educational guidance by the Altrusa and Quota Clubs, the slogan of the National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs "At least a high-school education for every business woman," the highly significant work of the Parent-Teacher Associations, and so on through the civic, semi-civic, and social clubs. Bulletins have come from many kinds of organizations, setting forth their interest in the field of education. What an army to call to our aid in interpreting to the public the work of the schools?

Removal of illiteracy—In 1914 the National Education Association was the first group to sound the challenge to the states for the removal of illiteracy. Two years ago the Chamber of Commerce of the United States published a bulletin called "Four Years of Opportunity." It contained a discussion of the illiteracy problem in the United States and urged each state to endeavor to reduce the number of its illiterates before the 1930 census. Much of the material in this bulletin was gleaned from the reports of our own Illiteracy Commission. It hardly seems possible that we could have so long remained inactive in the face of the immense financial, social, and spiritual losses we were suffering in this country through the illiteracy of our people. In every state there are literally thousands of native-born illiterates—both white and colored. The "Four Years of Opportunity" have dwindled to two years of opportunity. Please let me urge each one of you to go back to your state determined to do all within your power to remove from America the stigma of five million illiterates.

Homes for retired teachers—Last summer, just after the Seattle Convention, we received an offer of a thousand acres of land and a hundred thousand dollars in money for the establishment of a national teachers' home. This offer, which has since been duplicated, brought us to the realization that many questions must be answered before we could actually establish homes for teachers. How many teachers would want to go to a home? Would one large national home be better—or several regional homes? Perhaps state homes would be best. In any case, how would the applicants be selected? Where could the money be secured? Plans have been made for collecting and tabulating all this information. Soon we shall be able to speak with authority as to desirability, location, types, and costs of homes for retired teachers.

Research—This is a day of research. Every business of any size has such a department. Our own Research Division has grown immensely in scope and influence in the five years it has been in existence. Because of the wide-spread desire for definite information, and because of the lack of sufficient data as to what has been and is being done, the executive committee has recommended that we set up within our Research Division a plan for the coordination of educational research. This will necessitate the employment of an additional research assistant and the extension of our present contacts with the Bureau of Education, the universities and other agencies. We hope, for example, to secure the interest and cooperation of specialists in different phases of educational research who will list and evaluate current material. Periodic, annotated bibliographies will be published and much duplication of effort and expense will be eliminated. Thus we will help to carry on until the passage of our Bill for the establishment of the Federal Department of Education.

The Education Bill—Much has been accomplished in the past year in extending the knowledge of the Education Bill. With this knowledge

has come increased support for the measure. The hearing before the House Committee on Education in Washington last April was most encouraging. When all educators are informed and working for the bill—then, and only then, will we have a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. This is as it should be.

Biased propaganda—There is but one constitutional justification for expending the tax funds of the people upon the public schools. It is to insure the general welfare by increasing the common knowledge and common ability to think accurately and straight. The public schools of the United States are attended by more than twenty million Americans at the most impressive periods of their lives. The slant of their thinking will determine the public policy of tomorrow. For this reason, the utmost care must be taken to avoid the introduction into the public schools of propaganda of a kind that will bias their future judgments.

College faculties and the National Education Association—The statement that members of college faculties are individualists interested in nothing outside of their own fields has been frequently made. It has also been said that they are not interested in the National Education Association. Our efficient secretary has in his office literally hundreds of letters that would disprove both of these statements. As a result of the resolution in regard to tenure of office and salaries of college teachers a new cooperative relationship has been established with colleges and universities. The outlook in this direction is most favorable.

Exchange of credits and certificates—Due to the shift in industry from one section to another, and other causes, there has been an apparent oversupply of trained teachers in some states and a deficit in others. This necessitates provision for an exchange of professional certificates. A special committee, under the chairmanship of E. C. Doudna, Secretary of the Board of Regents of the State of Wisconsin, is in charge of this work. Later in the week you will hear a report from this committee.

Relation between higher standards of training for teachers, and salaries—The progress made in raising the standard of training for teachers is astonishing, but, with a few exceptions, salaries have not increased in an equal proportion. Unless the public can be made to appreciate the direct relation between better teachers and better salaries, these well-trained young people will be forced to go into other lines of work.

Your committee on the economic status of teachers, of which B. R. Buckingham is chairman, is studying this question in all of its phases. We may confidently expect to hear, in a year or two, an authoritative statement on the subjects of supply and demand, equalization of salaries for rural teachers, and kindred topics.

Cooperation with other organizations—The National Education Association has cooperated in every way possible with other educational groups. Representatives have gone to many conventions. The relations between the National Education Association and the Bureau of Educa-

tion have been most friendly and helpful. You will be called upon later in this week to authorize the continued support by your officers and Headquarters staff of a movement for an increased appropriation for the Bureau.

The National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools—Six years ago, in Boston, the National Education Association Committee on Problems in Colored Schools was organized. Because of an unfortunate choice of title, this Committee has been unable to accomplish much. It seemed expedient, therefore, to adopt a plan of reorganization. We now have a Committee on Cooperation Between the National Education Association and the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. The membership of this Committee is composed of representatives of both organizations. Their president, W. J. Hale, will bring to us here the greetings of the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, and we will send a representative to their Convention in Charleston, W. Va.

It is the opinion of your president and the Executive Committee that more can be accomplished by cooperation with this group than by a special committee of the National Education Association.

Degree requirements for mature teachers—The question has been raised, but little actually accomplished, on the subject of requirements for Bachelors Degrees for mature teacher-students. Perhaps next year something will eventuate from this year's work. It is indeed distressing to see a social science or history teacher spending her precious Sabbatical leave studying Greek, French and mathematics. Not that the study of Greek, French or mathematics is unimportant, but the whole matter seems a question of objectives.

Publicity—The National Education Association has had an unusual amount of favorable publicity in the past year. This has been due to several causes: the employment at Headquarters of an exceptionally good publicity man, who has established contacts with the various press associations; the cooperation of the official organs of state and local educational associations—as well as other educational journals; the stand that the National Education Association has taken on several matters of importance and the addresses of the officials in various places. In other words, the affairs of the National Education Association have had news value.

Objectives of the National Education Association—Seventy years ago the National Education Association was organized "to elevate the character and advance the interest of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States." As has been stated, this movement had two closely allied objectives. One has sought to create the tools of good teaching—courses of study incorporating subjectmatter and activities suited to the needs of all children, teaching technics based upon experience and scientific experiment. The other has endeavored to recruit the teaching profession from the intellectually elite among the young people of the nation and to secure social and economic recognition for teachers com-

parable to that accorded to the members of other professions that demand the equivalent in character, training and responsibility.

The attainment of these objectives calls for leadership of the highest quality, unselfish, persevering, idealistic—leadership worthy of the descendants of pioneers.

Some accomplishments—What are some of the things that have been accomplished? Between the years 1917 and 1927 our high-school enrolment has increased from 1,600,000 to 4,000,000; teacher attendance at summer schools has increased from 40,000 to 250,000. There are now four times as many teachers colleges authorized to grant degrees as there were in 1917 (25-100). The number of consolidated schools has increased from 8000 to 16,000. Curriculum research has been fundamental and far-reaching. Twenty-six states, as opposed to 4 or 5—now have sound retirement laws and the teachers of 13 states have some form of tenure law. The value of school property has increased from \$2,000,000,000 to \$4,800,000,000; and the average salary of teachers has increased from \$600 to \$1300 a year.

Finance—The National Education Association is now a million dollar corporation. To be absolutely accurate, our June 1st report shows that on that date our income and assets totaled one million, nineteen thousand, three hundred and ninety-seven dollars. Our membership (181,350) and our cash balance of June 1st (\$88,311) are the largest we have ever had. Life memberships are increasing rapidly (1748). With a few insignificant exceptions, our divisions at Headquarters have lived within their budgets. A large part of this gain is due to the efficient work of our secretary, Mr. Crabtree, and of his able corps of assistants.

Growth in membership—The growth in membership of the National Education Association from 10,104 in 1918 to 181,350 in 1928 is amazing, but the growth of the state associations from 200,000 in 1917 to more than 600,000 in 1927 presents an astounding figure. Several state associations and many local organizations count within their membership 100 percent of the teachers in the given area. We have more 100 percent schools in the National Education Association today than we had members ten years ago.

Work of state secretaries and directors—Too much cannot be said in commendation of the efficient work of the state secretaries and of our state directors. They are our field agents in education.

The end is not yet—While much has been accomplished, much more remains to be done. Of the 900,000 persons engaged in educational work in America, only 181,358 (about 20 percent) are members of the National Education Association. A tabulation in the Report of the Secretary indicates that while our percentage of possible membership now equals that of the American Bar Association, the American Medical Association with its 61 percent of possible membership is still in the lead. We are far from our goal of a united profession at work on its problems. We do

not yet realize our potential strength for progressive and constructive educational legislation.

The convention program—For the past year, I have traveled to and fro and up and down this vast country of ours. I have visited historic Jamestown. I have stood at sunset on Burial Hill. I have knelt in spirit before the defenders of the stockade at Harrodsburg. I have traveled the Oregon and the Santa Fe Trails. In my heart there has grown up a deeper respect and reverence for those, our pioneer ancestors, whose courage and steadfastness have given us this wonderful heritage.

I have visited schools—big schools and little schools, one room schools and schools whose magnificent masonry and many chambered walls would put to shame an ancient palace.

Everywhere, I have seen teachers at their work training the children of America—helping them to establish within themselves those cardinal virtues that marked our founders. So it was inevitable that the Convention topic this year should be *Education for Citizenship*.

The program has been carefully built. Each speaker has his contribution to make. It is my hope that all of us will go away from this meeting with a deeper conviction and a wider vision of the part that we, as teachers, may play in the building of a greater America.

The challenge of the National Education Association—Perhaps the greatest service that our National Association is rendering is helping local and state associations in developing within us teachers a finer professional spirit—a larger vision of the place of education in the social, civic, and economic life of our communities. It challenges us to further professional study that we may better fit ourselves for our daily tasks, to painstaking experimentation that we may improve our methods of teaching; to scientific study of child life that we may better understand the abilities, interests, ambitions, and accomplishments of each individual pupil. Our National Education Association challenges us to live life on a high plane—to live it abundantly in order that we may interpret it more accurately to the developing boys and girls with whom we work. Our National Education Association inspires us with new courage because of the cooperative effort of its 181,358 members. It binds the teachers of the nation together in one great professional organization, with a common understanding, common ideals, and one common purpose—namely, service to the children of America.

The teachers' opportunity—The opportunity for service yet before our Association is greater than you and I even dream. Yet we need not be disheartened by the size of our task, for—

“We believe that the education of youth is the finest of the fine arts and that our task as interpreter of life to youth is a great trust placed in us. We believe in the aspirations and the enthusiasms of youth. We believe in the power of example. We believe in cooperation with all humanizing

agencies. We believe in patience and perseverance and faith in the final outcome of education 'and of life.'"

It has been said that a task without a vision is drudgery—a vision without a task is a dream—but a task and a vision is joy unspeakable. The teachers of America have a great task but they have also a vision of the result of that task rightly performed upon the future of America and of the world.

HENRY FORD'S THEORY OF WORK AND THE HAPPINESS OF THE INDIVIDUAL WHO FINDS HIS WORK

SAMUEL CROWTHER, BAYSIDE, LONG ISLAND, N. Y.

Your president has asked me to speak on Henry Ford's philosophy of work and its relation to education. But since Mr. Ford, as I see him, is primarily a philosopher and is engaged wholly in education, although he may seem to be engaged in the making of various kinds of machines, I shall have to limit my subject to just one direct experiment in education in which he is engaged, that is to say the Henry Ford Trade School.

This is rather misnamed. It is not a trade school in the usual limiting sense of that phrase but has developed into a new method of education, and it is as a method of education and not as an isolated example of a school that I want to draw your attention to it.

This requires some clearing of the ground to discover what it is we are really talking about. One may ask whether the modern trend is toward educating for life or educating away from life. But before that question can be answered, it must be known what life is, and I have yet to discover anyone who knows what it is, although there are many who pretend to know.

The tradition of education is to fit the pupil for an eventual entry into one of the learned professions. By a curious turn of the wheel we do not today consider any of the old learned professions as really learned. Probably they never were.

The reaction to the traditional education, which I think had many advantages, is a curious messing about with a great number of what I believe are called bread-and-butter subjects, none of which, under the circumstances usually obtaining, can really be taught and few of which are worth teaching.

On the whole, however, I think it can be said that formal education has as its end the wearing of the white collar. That was quite all right yesterday, for then the white collar was the badge of respectability, and certainly no fault can be found with the desire to be respectable. But respectability is a curious thing and in this country depends largely upon the amount of one's earnings. Our attitude in this respect is most fortunate, for it has permitted us to avoid the withering blight of hereditary classes.

Today the skilled mechanic is paid more than the skilled office man or salesman, and the really desirable sort of white collar which carries with

it a large income is more often gained by way of the shop than by way of the office. This is the day of the skilled mechanic and he is thoroughly respectable, both because he is well paid and because his position demands a high degree of skill and intelligence.

You will recall that a few years ago the prophets were declaring that the coming of automatic machinery would create a race of robots, and I recall that one Russian wrote a play on the subject. The Russians, of course, are always the first to be wrong on any social subject, largely because they talk a great deal and rarely know what they are talking about. Those, however, are only the ordinary qualifications of the prophet.

Actually it has come about that the automatic machine has created a small demand for the thoroughly stupid workman to tend the machines and a large demand for the intelligent workman, both to keep the machines in order and to look after their intricate products. For instance, when a store sells a broom or a washtub that is the end of it, but when it sells a vacuum cleaner or an electrical washing machine, then trained men must be available for their repair. There is no comparison between the degree of skill today required in an automobile repair shop and the degree of skill that used to be needed to mend a carriage.

The plain fact is that today the need for the skilled mechanic is far greater than the supply and if we have a breakdown in our prosperity it will be due to a lack of skilled mechanics rather than to a lack of purchasing power.

We cannot get skilled mechanics merely by hand training. There must be a fundamental training of the mind. The old apprentice system has passed because it has ceased to be useful. Taking a youngster and putting him to work will not in most cases provide the type of man which we now need. That is one side of the question.

Another side has to do with the great expense of our present system of public instruction. There is first of all the direct out-of-pocket expense as borne by the taxpayer. This is not serious if the ends of education are achieved. It is extremely serious if they are not achieved. But of much greater moment is the expense which shows on no books and which consists of the economic loss to society of keeping boys and girls at school when they might just as well be adding to the wealth of society. That loss cannot be measured but it can be put up with.

The loss which we should not consent to put up with is that of boys and girls who must leave school because the folks at home need their earnings or, perhaps, if they do not actually need their earnings, cannot afford to feed and clothe them while they do not produce. There is an enormous economic loss in the thousands of young people who each year are forced out into the world and into the dead-end jobs that alone are open to the untrained beginner. For these no law can provide. In equally bad case is the determined youngster who tries to earn money out of school hours in order to stay in school, for he can turn only to menial tasks which do

nothing at all toward his development. It is shocking to see a schoolboy running errands when, as I shall presently demonstrate, the needs of that boy, and indeed of his family, might be met out of the revenues of what he could produce in school hours.

On these points Mr. Ford has said:

"We are in favor of what might be called utilitarian education, although not at all in favor of what passes for utilitarian education. We believe that first of all a man should be able to earn his own living, and that any education which does not so fit him is useless. Second, we believe that true education will turn a man's mind toward work and not away from it and will enable him to think, and thus to earn a better living not only for himself but also for those about him. What often passes for a utilitarian education is only a scrappy training in a great number of wholly useless odds and ends.

"I am not in sympathy with the trade school as it is commonly organized—the boys get only a smattering of knowledge and they do not learn how to use that knowledge. The trade school should not be a cross between a technical college and a school; it should be a means of teaching boys to be productive. If they are put at useless tasks—at making articles and then throwing them away—they cannot have the interest or acquire the knowledge which is their right.

"When the boy thus enters life untrained, he but adds to the supply of incompetent labor. Modern industry requires a degree of ability and skill which neither early quitting of school nor long continuance at school provides. It is true that, in order to retain the interest of the boy and train him in handicraft, manual training departments have been introduced in the more progressive school systems, but even these are confessedly makeshifts because they only cater to, without satisfying, the normal boy's creative instincts."

The Henry Ford Trade School was organized twelve years ago in an effort to find a solution for some of the problems that I have sketched. It began with six boys and one instructor. It now has twenty-three hundred boys and one hundred fifty instructors. About six thousand boys have taken the course, and the greatest present problem of the school has to do with admissions, for the waiting list runs above ten thousand and when I was last there applications were coming in at the rate of around five hundred a day. The school is constantly being enlarged but you will recognize that no institution could expand at the rate which the applications for admission demand.

This school, I may say right here, is not a mill for training mechanics for the Ford Motor Company. The graduates may have jobs in the company if they want them, but they are under no obligation to take them. The school is a separately incorporated institution for which Mr. Ford has personally put up all the funds. It has certain connections with the company which I shall explain. On the other hand, it is in no sense

a charitable institution and it is, disregarding the single item of interest on the investment, absolutely selfsupporting. And it is not usual in educational institutions to reckon with the interest on the investment.

The school is open to such boys as may be accepted between the ages of twelve and eighteen, and to quote Mr. Ford again:

From the beginning we have held to three cardinal principles: First, that the boy was to be kept a boy and not changed into a premature workingman; second, that the academic training was to go hand in hand with the industrial instruction; third, that the boy was to be given a sense of pride and responsibility in his work by being trained on articles which were to be used. He works on objects of recognized industrial worth.

This school differs from all other schools in that every boy has a scholarship which pays him more than he could probably earn outside. Upon entering, a boy receives a scholarship amounting to \$7.20 a week. He receives a hot luncheon each day, and in addition to the scholarship and in order to develop the habit of thrift he receives \$2.00 a month which he must deposit in some bank and keep it there as long as he stays in school. There are, however, no strings on this money. The scholarship is paid twice a month, while the thrift account is the boy's own, with the single condition that if he draws on it he has to leave school.

The scholarship payments are gradually increased according to the boy's marks, and any boy doing reasonably well should be drawing \$18.00 a week by the time he is seventeen years old. Taking into account the scholarship, the luncheons, and the thrift payments, the minimum rate at this school is \$450 a year and the maximum rate is \$1020. These sums look like tuition fees at a private school but they are payments to the boy and not by him. These sums are actually earned by the boys through their work.

The school has the ordinary equipment of classrooms and the curriculum embraces English, civics, geography, a great deal of mathematics, including trigonometry, and also much more than the usual amount of chemistry and physics. In addition there is a thorough training in mechanical drawing, auto mechanics and metallurgy. It is difficult to compare the curriculum with that of the ordinary school, but I should say that in a general way a graduate is ready to enter college if he takes some history and a modern language on the outside, and that many do. But the scholastic side is not shaped toward entering college but toward entering life, and in many subjects the graduate will be ahead of a man who has taken an engineering degree.

But it is in the teaching that the greatest divergences from ordinary practice come, for nothing whatsoever is abstract. Chemistry and physics mean the analysis of definite automobile parts; geography is where the materials come from and the finished articles go to. The Ford interests are so vast that the practical application of every single subject may be made and thus the boy knows that he is being taught useful things and not just subjects that the teachers have contrived for his annoyance.

In the academic division the pupil spends one week and then he goes into the school shops for two weeks, and so on. It has been found that it does not pay to split the day or the week between the classroom and the shop, both on account of clothing and on account of mental attitude. The school insists on thorough work, and it has been learned that breaking the day also breaks the work. The boy has to be either in the classroom or in the shop. He cannot have a foot in each. He cannot play at being at school or play at being at work.

The climax of the school is the shop. That is its reason for being and the phase to which I desire to draw your attention. It is a big shop nearly 1800 feet long by 70 feet wide, and it has in it the most modern of machinery so arranged in departments that when a boy has finished he will know how to handle any sort of work. And on these machines the boys do practical work designed to be sold to the Ford Motor Company. In the whole history of the school there has been exactly one practice piece.

Each piece of work is done on a regular order and the Ford Company buys the work after a most rigid inspection on the basis of what it would cost to do the same work in the regular shops with skilled workmen. The beginner gets a task which requires only application and gradually advances to tasks requiring application, skill and knowledge. It is remarkable that, although at times the school has run as much as 60 percent above the time estimated for a skilled worker, the average now is only about 18 percent and the spoilage only about 4 percent. The average annual production is about \$1000 per student and this pays the scholarships and keeps the school running. On the other hand, the Ford Company gets its work done as cheaply and as well as it could in its own shops.

The school was begun in order to give the underprivileged youth a chance, and today more than two-thirds of the boys are so situated that were they not in this school they would have to be out at work. I could tell you many stories of them but time will not permit. I can only say that quite a number have gone on to take engineering courses in the colleges, others are showing their heads above the crowd in various industrial institutions, and none, so far as is known, is not able amply to support himself.

You may say that this school is possible only because of the Ford industries. That is true. But another school would be possible as an adjunct to any large industry and the principle is of still broader application. You may know where education ought to stop and work begin. I do not. They would seem properly to run together through life.

Or again you may object that the education as outlined is not broad enough for the more fortunate boy who does not need money. That may be true. I do not pretend to know because I have long since given up trying to discover the exact composition of a well-rounded education.

But I do know that economic freedom is a prerequisite to sound culture and also that there is a distinction between knowledge and wisdom.

CITIZENSHIP AND RURAL EDUCATION

FLORENCE M. HALE, STATE AGENT FOR RURAL EDUCATION, AUGUSTA,
MAINE

As I sit on this platform and see my brethren having to labor to talk through this mechanical device, situated so far away from you that not even the magnetism of a friendly look can compel you to listen and make you glad, I am thinking of an experience I had in a state that perhaps is not the most courteous state in this union but comes pretty near being in that class.

I was speaking in the state of Delaware, at Dover, at an hour that waxed late, in a hall that was of such very large proportions that in the rear of the room it was hard to hear the words of the lady or gentleman who must speak from the stage. So when it came my turn, considerably after the noon hour, I was very much alarmed. I thought one by one the audience would all go out and I would be left alone, and what sadder fate for a woman than to have no listening ear?

But so polite were those good teachers of Delaware that even at that hour not one went out, not one whispered, not one showed anything but the keenest desire to cooperate with the people who must speak to them at that hour.

However, that experience had results that I would not wish duplicated tonight, because when I arrived home and found myself on the program in my own state (which I feared would be less courteous) at the same hour, I told this story of the wonderful Delaware teachers, thinking that everybody would surely sit still with such an example before them, and sure enough they did, but in the afternoon a very distressed looking lady rushed up to me and exclaimed, "Never say anything to an audience to keep them in their seats again. You know I just slipped in for a few minutes to the convention this morning and I left my dinner on the stove, and after you said that about the Delaware teachers, I wouldn't have gone out for anything. So when I got home the dinner was all burned up and my husband said, when I explained, "That's what comes of having those old maid educators going around over the country keeping good housekeepers in their seats when they ought to be home tending to their dinners."

So tonight if there is anybody here that is lucky enough to have a husband at home waiting for some such thing, then, good sister, depart in peace, thou fortunate one, but if no such joy awaits you, it certainly would help me and the others on this occasion if you could emulate the example of those wonderful teachers from Delaware, many of whom will be here to do the same fine thing tonight, I am sure.

It is certainly fitting that on July 2, 1928, at the close of two great political conventions, the great National Education Association should place on the program of its opening night the subject of rural education

and civilization. If we are to believe what we have heard over the radio from Kansas City and Houston, the end of all difficulties for us rural educators is in sight. Did we not hear that the greatest concern of both parties would be in the near future to relieve us from the burdens of taxation and from those entangling alliances that have made life a hard and risky thing for the agriculturists in this good land?

We who teach in rural schools and who supervise know that when all is said on these platforms, the final solution of the rural school problem must depend largely upon the economic solution. Take consolidation for example. I suppose every one in this room realizes that the only real solution for giving the country child an equal chance with that of the city child is to do away as far as possible with the many small, barren rural schools, and have instead the fine, large centralized school where increased numbers will indeed teach children to live with others and become good citizens, and where teachers and equipment may be equal to those found in the town and city schools.

I want to tell you that the reason that farmers sometimes are called stubborn, sometimes are called ignorant, is because they sometimes seem not to grasp new ideas, like consolidation, for example, but knowing the country people, being one of them myself, I will tell you that there is no class of people in the world who want better things for their children than do the American farmers. There is no class of people in this world who better know what fine things are and who are keener and more alert to have them than the American farmers.

When the American farmer seems sometimes to hesitate and we impatiently say that he is stubborn and that he can't see the light, it is many times because of the burden of expense. When he says the distance is too far, that the rural community will lose local control, in his heart none of those fears really exist to any great extent. Such objections are more or less a sort of smoke screen. It is because he knows the centralized school means far more money oftentimes and he feels that he already is laboring under the burden of all the taxation that he feels able to assume.

If you will read the last number of *New Republic* you will see how David Starr Jordan sounds the note of all this thing when he says, in substance, "Do not be deceived and think because you hear less complaint than of yore by the farmer that he considers all his farm problems solved. Instead read of the increasing number of unskilled men who swell the ranks of the unemployed in the cities and the exodus of what should be the best life of the country to the cities where there is no place for them."

Ladies and gentlemen, if it indeed be true that soon one party or the other shall solve the farmer's problem so that he shall not labor under excessive taxation, so that he shall have an adequate market for his products, so that he shall have less tariff instead of diminishing returns, we shall then be able to begin to put over our program in rural education, and not until that day will the farmer encourage and support our program

even though in his heart I believe in many instances he really wants it for his children.

In speaking with a gentleman today on this topic he said, "It all seems rather hopeless and not to be accomplished for a long time."

I say the task is not hopeless. It could be solved immediately if we had the right spirit and understanding in the urban places toward rural education. The trouble is that too often when men talk in such a charitable tone on a public platform like this, or when they wish to get votes, in their hearts they have not actually the love or understanding of rural people. Not until the entire public understands that it is dependent for its very life on keeping the best class of citizenship in the rural schools and homes, shall we have the keen minds of this country brought to the solution of this problem. When the public once does fully realize the situation and have the right spirit, the way will be easy enough to find.

In my own state the United States senator in one of our rural counties in northern Maine made a great plea, in fact introduced a bill for tariff protection on potatoes hoping thereby to help the farmers of this particular product in our state.

Our state, a rural state of course, has some manufacturing cities. In the city of Lewiston at once a cry went up, "We won't vote for him again because we have got to pay more for potatoes. What do we care about the farmers? We have plenty here and we want to keep our prices down on our crops, we people who work in the mills and in the factories."

How shortsighted! About that same time I was in a store in the city to buy a certain article that had been quite expensive and I found it much cheaper than I supposed it would be. Knowing there are no bargains in life, I wondered what the "nigger in the woodpile" might be and why that article was so much cheaper, and I inquired of the clerk.

She said, "You know the crops last year were very poor and at this time of the year we usually have a great many of those people from up there in the farming country who come down to buy things from our city stores, but since the crops were not successful, they didn't have any money to spend and they stayed at home. We stocked up expecting this large crowd of customers that we usually have, and so we are going to be bad off. We are going to lose money because we haven't any market."

Don't you see that the city people are killing the goose that lays the golden egg when they do not realize that the stability of the country depends upon keeping a satisfied and a fine class of people, permanent owners, on the farms all over this country?

Speaking from that angle, what solution has the National Education Association to offer in its effort to help rural education for the finest citizenship? I think at the present time that probably our finest hope is in the education bill for which we all should work whether in the city or in the country, in order that we may have this great clearinghouse in Washington whereby these people who so much need this information

and inspiration may have a chance to get it as they have had a chance to get the new ideas and inspiration in agriculture which have done so much for real scientific farming all over this country.

I realize that in this audience tonight there are only a few rural workers comparatively, and later in the week we shall, in our groups of supervisors and country superintendents, take up more specifically these things I have hinted at tonight. I also know that in this audience there are a great many rural teachers. I found one group tonight who were fresh from normal school, about to teach their first school up in the country.

I also saw a city teacher today as I wended my way down to the auditorium and inquired for the rural department, and she said pityingly, "Oh! are you a rural teacher?" and I said, "Yes, I am."

She said, "That's too bad at your age, isn't it?" "Why don't you save your money and go to normal school and then you can get out of this drudgery and be a city teacher. I would be glad myself to help you because you look as though you would be a good teacher in some grade if you only had your chance."

I thought that was quite a recommendation, but I also went home and changed my speech somewhat, because I want to give those girls an idea that rural education in spite of what we talk about in the economic side, is not a failure and is not something to be ashamed of or to look down upon.

The time is going to come when this economic pressure is relieved and we shall see the finest trained teachers in the rural school and our most able administrators in charge of rural supervision.

What are some of the things which the rural teacher can take from this meeting for which she has paid hard earned money to come, and feel it was worthwhile, while thinking of this bigger economic status into which the bill will give her insight if she reads it carefully?

One reason, I think, why rural young men rush into the city, as David Starr Jordan has said, is because of the monotony of rural teaching, the lack of vision, because of that aspect I have just illustrated toward rural education. For example, we know that there has never been a time when young people in America have been so ambitious as they are today. We know there has never been a time when American youth has been so worthwhile, so moral, so altogether fine, and this is true of the country boy, and with this deeper keenness he no longer is contented if he finds himself in an environment where nothing is thrilling, where all day long there is a dead level and nothing to point the way, as it is often pointed in the fine city schools, toward that which makes education a live and burning thing.

May I illustrate? I went to a big rural conference in a part of this country where a fine program was given. On that program was a splendid speaker on rural education and he said to those rural teachers, nearly all of whom were teachers in one or two-room schools, "Here is your

chance this fall to go back home and teach history as it has never been taught before, so that we may have more presidents, if anybody wants to be president, and great leaders, out of all of these country schools as we used to have in the golden days gone by, according to our forefathers' stories.

"Let's take Colonel Lindbergh, for example. You are asked in your course of study in rural schools to teach the lives of the explorers. There is Cabot and there is Columbus, for example. Heretofore it has been hard for country children, a few in a group, to realize these adventures as living things and desire to be brave men like Columbus, but now that they have this splendid example of this young man only a few years older than themselves, the teacher can put such impetus into his acts that it will make them understand that all explorers were once like that, young men with burning ambition, so the whole thing will become an exciting tale.

One rural teacher who had been teaching for fifteen years in a rural school, and that wasn't altogether fortunate as you will see under the circumstances, said to me afterwards, "I don't believe a word that man said. I don't believe in going to work and teaching about all these young foolhardy boys and making children think they are heroes. When I go back to Smith's Corner School I am going to teach my regular course of study, my Cabot and my Ponce de Leon; wouldn't you if you were I?"

I thought to myself, "Yes, I suppose I would, if I were you, but I am glad I am not you on this particular occasion."

Another thing that I feel is very important in rural education, and, of course, tonight I can only speak of two or three things, is the power to understand what the teaching of agriculture really is. Many times in these conventions I am glad to hear arguments when we speak of culture, that because a child is in an isolated place, he should have even a broader education in music and drawing and all those things. However, we sometimes speak as though agriculture shouldn't be taught because it must be a prosaic subject, nose to the grindstone proposition, but agricultural teachers, scientific teachers in the high schools and elementary schools will tell you that there is no story so fascinating, no subject so beautifully possible of culture as the teaching of agriculture rightly understood.

Can you think of any miracle greater than the changing seasons and their effect upon the rotation of crops? Can you think of anything more wonderful than for the country boy to see a homely brown seed put into the earth and then watch it, with only a little care comparatively, until it becomes the beauteous flower or the productive crop? That is a miracle greater than anything wrought in any city by any machine, however, marvelous to behold.

Let's see about the moral issue. I don't know how it is with you. I have attended many churches. I have heard many wonderful anthems that have caused my heart to swell in worship and in praise, but after all, to me the greatest lesson of immortality is seen right in my country

school back home when I see one day along that dusty road the children picking up the caterpillars and taking them into school. Then, one day, the caterpillars wrap themselves beautifully in their soft white sheets, and all the world goes on as though the caterpillar were still crawling along the path, but after a time there is a flutter of wings and a beautiful moth, so exquisite it cannot be copied by any artist, comes out to say to you and to me, "‘There is no death. What seems so is transition.’ There is no such thing as a life that is lost." If this ugly worm that you know can experience such a wonderful transition, you, too, may well know that you some day will find your own fine place, and love and eternity will be yours for aye.

Isn't that what nature study, if rightly taught in the country school, means? "Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul," is certainly illustrated by these wonderful miracles of the seasons and the crops and the ordinary things for which the city boy pines and knows not what he lacks, and for which the country people need expression:

Do you know that the saddest thing in the world is to have wonderful emotions and have no way of expressing them? I have just received a letter from a rural woman who was an educated woman and who went with a great deal of enthusiasm back to work upon a farm when her children were little. She wrote to me and asked if it would be possible to get a position in the city and let her bring the children in there because she felt she wasn't amounting to anything and that life was lost. She said, "There is no music in the school; there is no drawing in the school; there are none of these things that have been life itself to me, and I want my children to have that chance."

You can appreciate how she felt.

In this Association today there is a fine group of people working so quietly that some of you never even know their names. If I should try to name them, I would leave some out that should be included but there are men like Peter Dykema of Columbia and Charles Fullerton of Cedar Falls, Iowa, and women like Ada Bickens of the Michigan State Department and Frances Clark of Camden, N. J., and others who are bringing the greatest joy to the country people that has yet been theirs in working to have every country school have some means of expressing itself in music, some means of hearing fine things over the radio and in other ways making it possible for the country child to find that joy and satisfaction that comes from the finer things of life, and without which no matter how prosperous we are, life becomes a barren thing. And this, my friends, I believe is what rural education should do for civilization: First, relieve the economic situation, because as was so finely said by the first speaker, no man can be happy or a useful citizen when he is worried continually about money affairs.

Second, the ability to take the common, every day events of life and transfigure into interesting stories. The next thing is to have the country

people see the bigness and the joy of their work, which is agriculture. And finally for us who labor in rural education to bring music and art and poetry into every one of those schools that they may have that big round culture that makes the citizen complete.

Friends, I think a professor in a university here in the West who labored very hard to do much for rural people has expressed this whole topic, better than any of us can say it, in the last verse of his poem particularly. The last few lines represent that great army of people that some of you here tonight know are working back home steadfastly. They are the backbone of this nation, all too often receiving little reward, and little praise, but so faithful are they that rural education even with the hard economic situation that still prevails, is a grand and glorious profession for any man or woman to enter who sees in a life of service the greatest reward on earth.

A fire mist and a planet,
A crystal and a cell,
A jellyfish and a saurian,
And caves where the cavemen dwelt.
Then a sense of law and beauty,
And a soul raised from the clod,
Some call it evolution,
And others call it God.

A haze on the far horizon,
The infinite, tender skies,
The bright rich tint of the cornfield,
And the wild geese sailing high;
And all over upland and lowland,
The charm of the goldenrod,
Some of us call it autumn,
And others call it God.

A picket frozen on duty,
A mother starved for her brood,
Socrates drinking the hemlock,
And Jesus on the rood;
And millions who humble and nameless
The straight, hard pathway plod,
Some call it consecration,
And others call it God.

EDUCATION AND TRUE PATRIOTISM

DANIEL L. MARSH, PRESIDENT, BOSTON UNIVERSITY, BOSTON, MASS.

Education is the indispensable means by which society shapes its ends and determines its progress. It is impossible to capitalize society so strongly that its accumulated moral strength will not subside and ultimately end in bankruptcy unless it be renewed with each new generation. Therefore each generation is faced with the necessity of saving society.

We are mistaken if we imagine that the only important thing is to get the oncoming generation properly educated. Proper education always starts with the older generation.

Edgar Guest's little poem, entitled "In the Garden," which appeared one week ago today, is beautiful and suggestive:

Old folks see the tulip red
Growing in my garden bed;
Childhood with a clearer sight
Peeps into the blossoms bright
And upon a silver chair
Sees her fairy sitting there.

Old folks walk my garden round
With an air that's most profound,
Seeing here and there a weed,
Noting blossoms gone to seed.
Little Janet, though, can tell
Visitors where goblins dwell.

Age which knows so much can see
All the dead limbs on the tree,
Every blemish round the place;
But Janet with a happier face
Has a thousand charms to show,
Charms which only children know.

We are glad for the vision of childhood that can see the fairy sitting on a silver chair in the tulip blossom, glad for the vision of childhood that sees the place where goblins dwell, but it was the older person that prepared the soil and planted the tulips. We are glad that the children see the bright and charming things instead of the dead limbs on the trees, and the weeds; but unless older persons prune the trees and keep away the dead wood, the trees will die. Unless older persons note the weeds and pull them out, the flowers will be smothered.

So the teacher stands between the generation that is passing on and the generation that is coming on. The teacher is the interpreter of the past, the preserver of the present, and the determiner of the future.

I was over in France in 1913 (the year before the World War started) with a friend of mine who was a superintendent of schools. I saw children placing flowers upon the monument to the lost provinces of Alsace-Lorraine. I said to my friend, "What does that suggest to your mind?" I wished to see if it impressed him the same way as it impressed me.

He said, "Simply this: That for forty years France has been training her children to hate, and when the time comes to strike, they will fight like demons to get back those lost provinces."

With the system of education that prevailed in Germany for forty years preceding 1914, it was utterly impossible not to have a war; but it was the older generation that was militarizing the minds of the children of Germany.

Sometimes ignorant folk talk about prohibition of the liquor traffic as having come upon this country as a result of war psychology. They do not know what they are talking about. Prohibition is the result of 100 years of agitation and legislation and education, and the greatest of these

is education. Those of us who remember our public school days will recall how, in the physiologies, at the end of every chapter there was an account of the result of the use of alcohol on whatever part of the body was being studied. Then we became teachers and we taught the same subject. It was absolutely inevitable that when the boys and girls who were in the public schools forty years ago, more or less, became voters, the saloon would have to go.

They talk about prohibition being slipped on the country overnight. It is a hundred years' growth. It is a century plant. A century plant is a cactus, is it not? I suspect the wets have sat down on that plant. That's what makes them yell so!

If the future is to be determined by the creation of a new intellectual and social and spiritual climate (and the technical name for the method of creating that new climate is education), and if we think of that education in terms of true patriotism, it is essential that we have a certain definite content in our education. I do not imply that this should be the total aim of education. I am limiting what I say to the subject assigned me, "Education and True Patriotism," and I would say that there are ten commandments for true patriots that must be taught to each new generation. The first commandment is this: Thou shalt put only good and worthy men into positions of power, for every one to whom unmerited power is given endangers the very essence of power.

In a democracy where we undertake to do our own kingship, we assume the obligations and responsibilities as well as the privileges of the function. Each new generation must be taught that good laws may be in need of good men, but good men never are in need of good laws.

I saw a suggested editorial this evening in one of the local papers about setting the cat to watch the canary. Only good men can be trusted in places of power.

The second commandment: Thou shalt enact just and equal laws, for it is by law that individual conduct is socially controlled. Law is the last result of human wisdom acting upon human experience for the benefit of the public. Social liberty is more important than personal liberty, and each new generation must be taught anew the necessity of enacting just and equal laws.

The third commandment: Thou shalt enforce the laws upon all alike without fear or favor and without delay, for delay causes fermentation of unholy propaganda and favoritism tips the scales of justice.

I know a man, a lawyer, a good friend of mine, who becomes very much concerned about disrespect shown our courts, about the irreverence with which our courts of justice are treated, and yet I have seen the very same lawyer in the courtroom use all the skill of a great legal mind to try to get some law violator free of the penalties of violating the law.

The surest way to breed disrespect for our courts of justice is to connive at the deliverance of certain law violators.

The fourth commandment: Thou shalt reverence and obey all laws as the political religion of the nation. It is not enough for a man to say that he is concerned about the enforcement of law. He must obey it. It is silly, it is childish for a man to say that whenever a law prohibits any sort of thing, it makes him want to violate the law, whereas before there was any law, he did not feel like violating it. I suppose a man like that would stop at every principal street intersection if there were no lights of warning; but whenever he sees the "stop" sign, then he steps on the gas and goes through like lightning! See how silly it sounds!

Abraham Lincoln saw more clearly and farther than most men, and Abraham Lincoln pled that obedience to the law and respect for the law should be taught in our schools, proclaimed in our legislative halls, preached from pulpits and enforced in courts of justice. He pled that it might be printed in speller and primer and almanac. He pled that reverence for the law and obedience to the law should become the political religion of the nation.

The Pilgrim sires, as the *Mayflower* was tossed about off Cape Cod, met around that old sea chest of Miles Standish and drew up the first written compact by which any group of people on earth ever agreed to govern themselves, and in that compact they declare that they will enact just and equal laws as may be for the good of the colony, and then they say, "To all of which we pledge ourselves to give due submission and obedience." That *Mayflower* compact is the cornerstone laying of our American democracy.

Fifth commandment: Thou shalt learn to think straight, or, to use the words of President Adair this morning, if I heard her correctly, to "learn to think straight and accurately," that mob psychology be not confounded with enlightened public opinion, and that license be not mistaken for liberty. Mob psychology is to an enlightened public opinion what lust is to love, what covetness is to the desire for the best things, what insanity is to sanity.

I was in Europe last summer at the time the Sacco-Vanzetti case reached its zenith. In Geneva, on Saturday evening preceding the execution, as Mrs. Marsh and I were going along the street in front of a theater, handbills in the French language were passed out calling a meeting at a certain time on the following Monday evening to avenge the "assassination of two innocent men." On Tuesday morning when we went down town past the American Express office, we found the windows of the American Express Company's office all broken in, the store of the Walk-Over Shoe Company smashed, the glass room of the League of Nations Building broken up, and they had killed a man in Geneva that night.

The same night there were demonstrations in Paris, starting out by attacking buildings that displayed American goods, and then going on to smash hotels where Americans stayed, and then just generally to break up windows of restaurants and cafes, and then—most unthinkable of all—to desecrate in an unnamable way the tomb of the Unknown Soldier at the Arc de Triomphe.

If you were to ask the leaders why they resorted to such violence, they would tell you that it was a "manifestation" (that was their word) against America for the execution of those men, or that it afforded an opportunity to exhibit their disfavor of America, and yet the man killed in Geneva that night was a Swiss carpenter. He was not an American. They broke up the League of Nations' Palace glass room; but America is not a member of the League of Nations. I wish she were, but she is not. And that unknown soldier whose tomb was indescribably defiled was a Frenchman, not an American.

Mob psychology means that a mob will do things that no individual member of the mob would think of doing. Mob psychology is as uncontrollable as the Johnstown flood and as insane as a lunatic asylum.

Lucien Bonaparte once wrote to his brother Napoleon: "Public opinion is the greatest force in the world. It is greater than the power of all the kings," and he was right.

Enlightened public opinion is the native air of a safe democracy; but we must have education so generally diffused that liberty will not be confused with license, nor public opinion with the clamor of mob psychology.

The sixth commandment: Thou shalt learn to appreciate solid attainments of national character. Our republic is the result of all that is great in bygone times. All of the political strivings of the past from Marathon, where the dauntless soldiers of loyal Greece achieved the liberty of Athens, to Runnymede, where the English wrung from a tyrant king the Magna Charta—all of these strivings are alive in our republic today.

In one way only, on the roaring loom of time, the framers of the American Constitution found the stuff woven for such a vesture of their thought and experience as they were contemplating. We need to have each new generation learn to appreciate what Washington did, what Jefferson did, what Jackson and Lincoln and Roosevelt and Wilson have done—to appreciate solid attainments of national character.

Seventh commandment: Thou shalt be tolerant of progressive change, for the surest way to avoid revolution is to encourage evolution. Revolutions come because people go forward while constitutions and governments stand still. Revolution always is destructive. Look at China. Look at Russia. Look at the French Revolution. Why did those destructive revolutions come?

In China there was no encouragement given on the part of the leaders for a natural unfolding and development of the nation's life, and therefore we need not be surprised to see the energy sublime of a century burst full blossom on the thorny stem of time.

In Russia the czar's government had tied the pendulum of progress away up on one side with the cord of autocratic power, and when the sword of revolution cut that cord, it was inevitable that the pendulum should swing to the opposite extreme.

And France. You remember Dickens' *Tale of Two Cities*. You remember Carlyle's history of the French Revolution. Was it not Carlyle

who said that the French Revolution was hell fire let loose? France had sowed the wind. She reaped the whirlwind. The wives of the aristocrats made wild the serfs. The nobles who betoiled the peasants were be-spoiled by the peasants. The starving populace who had hungered for bread until their faces were pinched, fed upon vengeance until their hearts were surfeited. Foulon, who had contemptuously said that the starving populace might eat grass, had his head cut off and stuck on a pike with his mouth stuffed full of grass. The streets of Paris that had been the em-purpled thoroughfares of royalty became crimson rivers of blood. The powerful who had recklessly driven in carriages over the children of the weak, were hauled in ox carts by those wrathful weak to have their heads cut off by the guillotine.

So I say the seventh commandment is: Thou shalt be tolerant of progres-sive change, for the surest way to avoid revolution is to encourage evolu-tion.

The eighth commandment: Thou shalt not glorify war. I suspect, my friends, that no matter how long I live, I shall never get free entirely of the teaching of history I received in the public school. I can remember in that ungraded country school which I attended as a boy, that usually we would reach the Revolutionary War by the time of the first snowfall and then the snows lasted long enough for us to get through the Revolutionary War, the second war with Great Britain, the Mexican War and the Civil War, and at recess and at noon we would fight over with snow ball am-munition and with snow forts the battles that we had been studying in the schoolroom, and that history was so taught that it made war the most glorious thing in the world.

If you raise up a generation that honestly believes that war is the most glorious thing there is, that war is the surest path to glory, you are going to continue having war. Not only in the schoolroom is it done, but most of the impressive monuments that the average boy sees are monuments erected to commemorate some battle or erected in honor of soldiers.

Military music is stirring. It can make us love the very thing we hate. And so we see the power of teaching and the call of music and the wealth of drama and of art consecrated to the glorification of war. But it is all lying. There is no glory in war. In order that I may not be misunder-stood, may I say that I was overseas in uniform during the World War. May I also say that for several years following the war I was an officer of an American Legion Post. I am not now, but I left it in good grace and in honor. I simply recall these facts so that I may not be misunderstood in what I am going to say.

There was a great deal of lying and cant and hypocrisy proclaimed dur-ing the World War. The simple truth of the matter is that practically every nation that participated in the World War was partly responsible for it, especially the European nations.

It is true that the crimson bloom of battle burst into flower first in Germany, but it was growing in all the other countries of Europe. It

is true that the war started by the firing of a pistol at the Archduke down in Serbia, but that was not the cause of the war. The seeds of strife had been planted in all of the psychological soil of Europe and they were growing everywhere. There are certain well meaning persons who get very much wrought up about "atrocities," as they call them. Now let us have the truth. There was not a single thing done by any army in that World War that was not done by every other army in it, if it knew how to do it. And there are persons who get very much excited about civilizing warfare and making war humane. You might as well try to sail the Atlantic in a ship of steel with sails of lead as to try to humanize warfare. It cannot be done. War is of the jungle. It is brutal and brutalizing. It is devilish, and it cannot be civilized or made humane.

The logic of war is destruction and death. That is what nations go to war for. It is to destroy the enemies' property. It is to kill the enemies' soldiers. When men talk about going into war that they might die to make the world free, they have misspoken themselves, they have thrown the whole thing into reverse gear. They may die—too many of them do—but they do not go there to die. They go there to kill. You cannot make war humane. Modern physics and biology and chemistry are every day making war more and more inglorious.

Those who were overseas during the World War know that there is no glory in mud and lice and being shot at by an enemy forty miles away and shooting at an enemy that you cannot see. There is no glory in that, and you cannot make it humane. Therefore when people try to pass rules about the use or non-use of poisonous gases, about the use or non-use of submarines, about the use or non-use of disease bacteria, it is all wasted time, for when a nation gets into war if it feels that it is being pushed to the wall, that it is likely to suffer defeat, it will resort to all the ingenuity of hell in order to win its cause.

You cannot make war humane. The logic of war is against it. In olden times, when tribes fought one another with stones, the first tribe to make use of bows and arrows and spears and javelins was roundly denounced for inhumanity by the other side, but as soon as the other side could get the spears and javelins and bows and arrows they used them too.

The first army to use gunpowder was roundly denounced for its lack of chivalry and honor, but as soon as the army doing the denouncing could get gunpowder they used it too.

You can just be sure that there is no glory in war. Napoleon Bonaparte probably knew more about war than any other warrior who has ever lived. Napoleon Bonaparte, after he had won his great victories and before he knew defeat, said, "One thing impresses me more than all else. It is the futility of war, the impotence of force to organize anything.

There are but two powers in the world, the sword and the spirit, and in the long run the spirit will win every time."

I have quoted exactly from Napoleon, and after he had known both victory and defeat, in the bitterness of his St. Helena exile, he wrote his political will to his son just a little while before his death, and in that political bequest he said (and these are his exact words), "War is an anachronism." Napoleon was right. It is more than an anachronism. It is organized insanity.

I told you a little while ago I was in Europe the year before the war started. I was in Europe during the war. I was in Europe last summer, and I want to tell you that everywhere I went last summer I could not help but note the contrast between the Europe of today and the Europe of 1913. Something has happened. Something more has happened than the loss of 20,000,000 of the finest young men that could be produced. Something uncharted and untabulated has happened with the blowing to pieces of genius hidden in the loins of 20,000,000 men. Something has happened to civilization with the snuffing out of talent that was there. Something has happened to the very soul of Europe. It seems flabby.

I tell you that unless our white civilization can find some method of settling its disputes without resorting to rude arbitrament of the sword, our white civilization will perish with the sword.

Ninth commandment: Thou shalt overcome fear. It is fear that leads to suspicion, and suspicion ripens into hatred, and hatred makes its appeal to physical force and violence. So each new generation should be taught to overcome fear. The modern psychologist knows that fear and rage are closely analogous emotions. Ninety percent of all the fighting the world has ever seen is the twisted reaction that comes from terror, from fear. Nations as well as individuals get certain prejudices in their minds, certain horrible fears. Nations make me think of a man I once heard of who went crazy, and his insanity took the peculiar form of making him think he was dead. Now, I have known some persons that were dead but didn't know it; but this man thought he was dead. It was a horrible thing for his family. He would go around moaning, "I am dead. I am dead." They tried every way to get the hallucination removed, but they could not succeed. He was driving them all to the verge of insanity. So they called in the family physician, and the physician attacked the problem in a practical way.

He said, "Now look here: You will agree with me that a dead man does not bleed. Let's start right there."

"Yes, that is so; but I am dead."

"Well now, wait. Say it over with me. 'A dead man does not bleed.'" He repeated it, "A dead man does not bleed."

The physician said, "All right, now I am going to stick my knife into you and if you are dead there will be no blood, but if you see any blood you will know you are not dead, for a dead man does not bleed." He

repeated it. Then the physician jabbed his knife into him and the blood spurted out. The crazy fellow looked at it and said, "By golly, a dead man does bleed, doesn't he?"

I have known some whole groups, whole communities, whole nations that were just as silly as that man. They would get an hallucination, a national hallucination, fear, and the fear leading to rage and the rage resulting in war.

We must teach each new generation the causes of war and the best way of avoiding conflicts when disputes arise. We must teach friendship and understanding and goodwill as a substitute for war. We must renounce war as an instrument of national policy—and when I use that phrase I am quoting from Secretary of State Kellogg in the treaties he is proposing to France and other nations of the earth—that we renounce war as an instrument of national policy. All honor to Secretary Kellogg. I wish him the highest success.

Overcoming fear means that we shall have a right sense of what constitutes courage and honor. I heard of a case where a man was going along the street. He had an enemy. The enemy was in the second story of a building, looking out of the window. He saw this man coming along and he poured a bucket of salt water upon the man. The drenched man looked up and saw who was there. He walked on.

A friend who saw it said, "Say, what's the matter with you? Are you going to let that fellow get away with that? If I were you, I would blow his head off. Have you no sense of honor?" And this man said, "Oh, he poured that salt water on what he *thinks* I am, but it never touched me."

Let me tell you a plainer illustration: A man was coming along the street and an Irishman hauled off and struck him in the face, and the man keeled over into the gutter. As the Irishman struck him he said, "There, take that you damned Swede."

The fellow picked himself up out of the gutter and began to brush off his clothes, smiled and started to move on, when somebody said, "Say, what's the matter with you? Go and paste him in the jaw! Haven't you any sense of honor at all?"

The fellow said, "Oh, the joke is on him. He tinks I bane a Swede, and I bane a Norwegian."

We need to teach the rising generation what real honor is, personal and national. We need to teach them that it is not true courage that is ready to fight at the drop of the hat. Let us make our appeal to reason rather than to physical force and violence as a means of settling disputes.

Tenth commandment: Thou shalt develop an intelligent and vital patriotism. Patriotism is one of the noblest impulses and one of the

most sovereign traits of a good man. The absence of it indicates a dead soul, as Sir Walter Scott indicated:

Breathes there a man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land.

But to Sir Walter Scott's idea of patriotism we ought to add the patriotism of the Hebrew Prophets. With them patriotism was more than an emotional thrill. To be sure, they had the emotion. Their longing for Jerusalem when they were in exile, and their joy on seeing the Holy City on their return, bear witness to the fervency of emotional patriotism; but to that emotion they added a certain ethical passion which made them denounce the sins of the people that were eating like a dry rot at the very vitals of national life.

They got what is usually given to true prophets: "O Jerusalem! that stoneth the prophets and killeth them that are sent unto thee."

It was the dictum of Samuel Johnson that "patriotism is the last refuge of a scoundrel." What did he mean? Simply that a man may use the phrases of patriotism to conceal the unpatriotic spirit which animates him. He may use the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States as some mere outside work, some squares of the trellis work up which the vines of selfishness climb. Of all liars, constitutional liars are the worst.

We must teach the rising generation that a man who makes this country worth dying for is as worthy of honor as the man who dies for it. We must teach the rising generation that a true patriot will, if need be, die for his country; but a true patriot, if need be, will also suffer social ostracism or even death to make his country right when his country is wrong.

The will to power is one of the most sovereign traits of normal human beings, in individuals and in nations. The will to power. How soon it asserts itself in childhood. It comes early, but inasmuch as destruction is easier than construction, whether it be a house of blocks or a state, destruction comes earlier than construction. The child, unable yet to build his house of blocks, wants you to build it, and he kicks it over—and laughs with glee to see it fall, because it is an expression of the will to power over other things. After a while he is able to build a house of blocks. He has power over these blocks. As time goes on, the will to power drives him to do various things for weal or woe.

America has been a pioneering nation. She has given the world a demonstration of the democracy of man. She is now big enough and strong enough and rich enough to pioneer in the great adventure of world peace. We may now show the world a democracy of nations. When President Wilson preached the doctrine of international Christianity, or Christianity applied to international relations, he was but giving expres-

sion to the conscience of America. And so I would have the school teachers take these ten commandments for true patriots as though they were the ten fingers of the hands, in order that the rising generation might be able to seize the tools of true patriotism and build a new world.

Beat down yon beetling mountain,
And raise yon jutting cape:
A world is on the anvil,
Now smite it into shape.

Whence comes that iron music
Whose sound is heard afar?
The hammers of the world's smiths
Are beating out a star.

And you are among the smiths of the world who are beating out a star, making a new world.

*GREETINGS FROM THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
TEACHERS IN COLORED SCHOOLS TO THE NATIONAL
EDUCATION ASSOCIATION*

W. J. HALE, PRINCIPAL, STATE AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL COLLEGE,
AND PRESIDENT, NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN COLORED
SCHOOLS, NASHVILLE, TENN.

In an examination in English in one of our schools the teacher asked "Who can give an example of prose and poetry?" Johnny's hand went up promptly, and he gave the following answer:

"There was an old woman,
She went up on a hill,
If she hasn't come down,
She's up there still."

That's poetry!

"There was an old woman,
She went up on a hill,
If she hasn't come down,
She's up there yet."

That's prose!"

"I can beat that, teacher," yelled Willie.

"All right, Willie," said the teacher.

Willie answered:

"There was an old woman,
She fell in the well,
If she doesn't quit falling,
She will land in —."

What do you want, teacher, prose or poetry?"

I come to bring greetings from the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools in prose, not poetry.

A few years ago you elected one of Tennessee's fairest daughters, Miss Williams of Memphis, president of your Association. We said then, "It won't be long now" (this was not slang at that time) before all countries

and all races will get a hearing." Now you have a daughter of Virginia, a princess from the capital of the Southern Confederacy, as your president, Miss Adair, who, working with you has put the Association on such a high plane that the prophecy has come true.

A few weeks ago one of the great national political parties in Kansas City discovered that the West is a part of the United States. Last week in Houston, another great political party served notice that the United States not only has a North and East, but also a South. The National Education Association is bigger than political parties, bigger than cardinal points because it includes in its program, all sections, all countries, and all races.

Our Association joins the people of America with bowed heads, in reverence to the National Education Association that has revolutionized education conditions in America. An organization that serves well its people or its country is a great organization of its time. But the N. E. A. in extending a helping hand to all people and all sections, is great not only for its time, but for all times. It belongs to the Ages.

There was a time when the trip between Jersey City and New York was made exclusively by boat. Finally it was decided to tunnel under the Hudson river. First there were failures. At last, two groups of men started to work on the opposite sides of the river. Years after the beginning of the gigantic task, the workers met under the middle of the Hudson river and were out of line only a fraction of an inch—a supreme example of cooperative achievement. Likewise, such a degree of understanding and cooperation is necessary for teachers and kindred workers who have for their goal the training of the nation's future citizens.

Before any great work can be done, it is imperatively necessary to establish confidence among the workers. To pursue such a course as would gradually establish confidence among Negroes themselves as well as among the whites was a great task. When the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools began 25 years ago in the Athens of the South, it was a puny organization of uncertain mortality. It had an enrolment of less than 100 teachers. The outlook in Negro education was not highly encouraging. The large majority of schools were poorly equipped, taught by untrained teachers, and ran short terms of two to five months. The present President of the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools worked for \$72 per year. Rural schools were dilapidated, uninviting, and in many cases unsanitary. Absenteeism and retardation were the rule rather than the exception. Public funds were difficult to secure, even for white schools. In the face of such discouraging conditions, the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools set up its standard for improvement. Today it has over five thousand members, drawn from all sections of the country, particularly from the South, publishes a professional educational journal, holds annual meetings which are attended by several thousand teachers, and enjoys the

friendship and cooperation of the state departments of education throughout the South, and such national educational agencies as the Rosenwald Fund, the Jeanes Fund, The John F. Slater Fund and the General Education Board. The 1928 meeting in Charleston, West Virginia, July 24-27 will probably be attended by more than three thousand teachers.

Until the second decade of the Twentieth Century the majority of institutions for Negro education were conducted under private auspices. The history of Fisk, Morehouse, Walden, Wilberforce, Atlanta University, Hampton and Tuskegee, and similar schools is an integral part of the history of Negro education. Today public institutions are gaining the ascendancy as a result of liberal appropriations by state and local governments. The future of Negro education will probably rest with public institutions.

"As Maine goes, so goes the Union," for many years was a political truism. Similarly, today, Tennessee is the educational weather vane for the South. The famous "Monkey Law" of Tennessee was but a smoke screen preceding one of the greatest periods of educational progress ever made by a state. The state whose legislature passed the anti-evolution law has recently established a uniform eight-month school term for all children, appropriated millions of dollars for state teachers colleges and elementary schools, and spent more than a million dollars for the Negro State College. What Tennessee is doing in education for the Negro is indicative in a large degree of the new order of things throughout the southland. Florida, Arkansas, North Carolina, and in fact southern states in general, are making substantial appropriations for Negro education.

Perhaps the greatest single factor in Negro education that has brought about substantial improvement on a large scale is the work of the philanthropic boards which have added in increasing the number of teachers, principals, and supervisors, in increasing the length of school terms and encouraging free medical examination in establishing and equipping libraries, in placing agriculture and vocational training on a high level, in expanding the curriculum of Negro colleges and normal schools and in encouraging advanced studies of Negro teachers by means of scholarships and fellowships. The work of such educational statemen as the late Wallace Buttrick, Julius Rosenwald, James H. Dillard, and Mabel Carney will live through the centuries in the hearts of a grateful people whom they have so nobly served.

The press is the advance guard of the advancing South. As a class the newspaper folk are among the soundest and sanest of our citizenship. The newspapers of the South are preaching fair play for Negro education. Especially noticeable among these papers is the *Chattanooga Times*. For more than a quarter of a century this newspaper, through its editor, Lapsley G. Walker, than whom the Negro has no better friend, has stood out demanding justice and a square deal.

The white man and the Negro both realize that Uncle Tom has made his contribution and passed on to his rich reward, "Well done, thou good and faithful servant." The Negro knows now that he must rise or fall by the laws of the game as other races have done and that the hour has arrived when he must take his place in thinking, working, serving and making his contribution as a worthy citizen of the world.

Not long ago, a group of engineers with their families and friends went out for a picnic in a boat on the Mississippi River, near Memphis. Almost without warning the boat began to sink. Rescue of any of the occupants seemed almost impossible, and no one dared to take a chance to help except one Negro who was passing by in his skiff. Dangerous as it was, he made trip after trip to save, from a watery grave, more than twenty of the victims. "He forgot that they were white." A month later a Negro returned to his home and found the officers of the law shooting his wife and daughter. They turned on him. The next day there was a funeral of one of the officers. The Negro was tried for murder and the jury brought in the following verdict: "Not guilty—The Negro was defending his home, his castle." They forgot that he was colored."

The teachers in American schools may well be astonished by the manipulation of the stock and bond markets of the world. We have noticed how the markets of the world are cornered. Capitalists secure a monopoly on oil, or wheat, or sugar; control the supply and raise the price to suit their purposes. Inventors have made machines than can fly, sing, run, talk, count, work problems, and etc., but none has invented a machine that can think. It is given to the teacher to develop the greatest of all machines—the human mind. In increasing the supply of virtues and in training the human mind to do its work efficiently the National Education Association and the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools are one in objective.

What the National Education Association desires for its members and through them for the students of America, the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools desires for its membership and for the students taught by them. If anything is wrong in America, it is our desire to join with you to help make it right.

This world that we're livin' in,
Is mighty hard to beat,
You get a thorn with every rose,
But ain't the roses sweet?

In the midst of American civilization, is a little child. Take wise and loving care of that child and all human interests are safe; neglect the child and all human interests are in danger.

The tumult and the shouting dies;
The captains and the kings depart:
Still stands Thine ancient sacrifice,
An humble and a contrite heart.
Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,
Lest we forget—lest we forget!

THE VALUE OF THE REGIONAL CONFERENCES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

JEAN L. SOULES, TEACHER, EMERSON SCHOOL, SPOKANE, WASH., PRESIDENT, DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

The term "Regional Conference" is in a measure a misnomer. It is applied to any meeting of classroom teachers held by an officer of the Department of Classroom Teachers. Theoretically, a regional conference is a meeting held at some convenient center and attended by teachers from nearby towns and rural districts. In practice, it is often limited to the teachers in one locality, since it is difficult for teachers to attend meetings away from their own districts; in many cases the expense of such attendance is a hindrance. Conferences held in connection with state and county conventions are regional, since teachers are in attendance from various points. These serve effectively as centers for disseminating information and for arousing enthusiasm. In such meetings are found many organization leaders whose contributions to the discussions are helpful to the less experienced workers, and who carry back to their respective localities, the benefits of the conference. Whether regional or local, the conferences are valuable in several ways:

1. They bring together classroom teachers in a manner which stimulates acquaintance among them, and gets them started to solving problems common to their group. They promote acquaintance among teachers in different sections of the United States. Each group finds encouragement and inspiration in the achievements of other groups. There develops a realization that there are many common problems. This tends toward solidarity of interest. The Conference is a unifying agency among teachers, as well as between teachers and school authorities.

2. The Regional Director brings near to teachers the great national organization. To thousands of classroom teachers who have not the opportunity to attend National Education Association conventions, and who have no representative in attendance to bring back to them information and inspiration, this great Association seems far away. Many teachers do not realize on how many sides it touches their professional lives.

School administrators often make use of statistics furnished by the National Education Association. These facts and figures are given to the teachers who make use of them without realizing their source. Individual teachers should be so closely in contact with the National Education Association that they will seek for themselves, from the national organization, material to use in solving their problems. I mean to say that each teacher should be conscious of a direct relationship with the national organization. The Regional Conference tends to bring about such realization on the part of individual teachers.

3. The conferences increase National Education Association membership and give meaning to it. Organizations are encouraged to affiliate

with the national association, and to bring up their membership so they will be entitled to a delegate to the representative assembly. There are still too many teachers who join the National Education Association because their membership is solicited by some person in authority; it means little more than a name on the National Education Association roll and two dollars in the treasury. This is good as far as it goes, but it does not go far enough.

One effect of the regional conferences is to vitalize this membership. If the National Education Association had one hundred thousand members reading its publications with interest and understanding, and working together to solve the problems of the profession, surely we should soon be in sight of the goal set up by this Association—"The Entire Profession at Work on its Problems."

4. Not only is there need of helping teachers throughout the country to become acquainted with their national association, but those who carry on the activities of the National Education Association and direct its progress, should know the teachers who make up its membership. The regional conference gives opportunity to learn what are teachers' needs as felt by themselves. With the best of intentions, the association may fall short of its full service to teachers, unless there is available first hand information concerning teachers' needs. The Officers of this Department, themselves classroom teachers, are the ones who can most effectively promote this mutual acquaintance.

5. There is usually some newspaper publicity given the conference. It pleases the community to know that its teachers are thus meeting to further professional interests, and it tends toward a greater appreciation of teachers whose good qualities and efficient service have hitherto been taken for granted. It promotes an understanding of teachers on the part of school authorities and the general public.

Our friendly custom of handshaking had its origin in fear and suspicion. When one man met another he extended his right hand, the hand which so often carried a weapon; this was to signify that he came as a friend. The other seized it quickly to guard against treachery. No doubt many a genuinely friendly gesture was thus misinterpreted. But if sincere on the part of both, there leaped from each to the other an impulse of good will, and the handclasp of distrust became the cordial handshake of friendship.

Organization provides machinery by which teachers make their gesture of goodwill to school authorities and to the community. The regional conference director can, in many cases, interpret this gesture so that it is received with the good faith in which it is made. Having shaken hands in genuine friendship, teachers, school authorities and the public can join forces to serve the interests of children.

To enable teachers to know and appreciate the National Education Association; to win new members to the National Association; to vitalize

merely nominal membership so that it is quickened into life; to bring to officials of the National Education Association the requests of teachers for specific kinds of service; to develop acquaintance among classroom teachers and to foster in them professional consciousness; to persuade educational leaders to draw upon the great reservoir of talent and enthusiasm which is available within the teaching body—these are things which have been accomplished in a measure, here and there, and those who are closest to this movement are convinced that the regional conferences are effective and that more of them should be held.

A response won by prodding or pressure from without must be constantly renewed. Growth from within is selfstimulating, and has great possibilities of further growth. The regional conferences plant the seed of a broad professional interest, loosen about the young plant the hard packed earth of indifference, part the mists of not-knowing to let in the sunshine of knowing, water and tend the new growth, and bring to the cause of education the fruit of a professional minded teaching body.

OUTLOOK FOR THE NEW DEPARTMENT

J. STEVENS KADESCH, HEADMASTER, MEDFORD HIGH SCHOOL, MEDFORD, MASS., PRESIDENT, DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

I was under the impression that I was merely to receive for the National Association of Secondary School Principals your congratulations on its admission as a Department of the National Education Association and then was to sit back and listen to the feast of reason and flow of soul emanating from the real geniuses: Teachers, principals, and superintendents here present.

All knowledge is correlated, says the philosopher, and proceeding from that premise my random remarks on the new Department may, by a miracle of correlation, bear on the subject I see has been assigned to me.

Modesty and the brief time allotted me forbid the enumeration of the past accomplishments of the new Department. That is ancient history and now serves merely as a background for the opportunities of service that have been opened up by our affiliation with the National Education Association. It is, therefore, with timidity that I quote from the welcome your kindly and most efficient secretary, Mr. Crabtree, gave to the new Department at the Boston meeting: "The National Association of Secondary School Principals—yesterday a noted national organization, co-operating with the National Education Association—today an integral part of the National Education Association itself with power and prestige almost on a par with that of the Department of Superintendence. What could mean more to the National Education Association for this outstanding organization to come in with its history rich in achievements, and with a complete leadership and control of policies in secondary education and administration! This is one of the greatest acquisitions of strength in the history of the Association."

I hope that the new Department will measure up to and continue to merit the kindly praise of Mr. Crabtree, but I am certain that the greatest acquisition has been ours. The new Department may now function with greater efficiency and effectiveness and become indeed "a link in the chain of strength of the greater Association."

In so brief a time allotment, it is impossible to enumerate in the secondary school field all the vital problems that demand immediate solution. If, for the present, the new Department were to concentrate its efforts upon the following five objectives, secondary education would indeed become more effective as well as more economical!

1. Scientific research work leading to the readjustment of the secondary school curricula that would fit young men and women better to meet the needs of the home and the community; a curricula simplified and including only the fundamental subjects necessary for adequate preparation in citizenship

2. The organization of a scientific technic in the administration and in the supervision of the secondary schools

3. The erection of simpler but adequately equipped high-school buildings with resultant economies in educational costs that might well be applied to the improvement of instruction and to higher salaries for adequately trained teachers

4. Articulation of the secondary groups with elementary and with higher education and articulation within the secondary groups

5. Insistence upon a high grade of scholarship by voluntary cooperation on the part of pupils to inculcate right habits of thinking and of work, for only by right thinking and hard work can true American character be developed.

The standards by which we had been measuring educational accomplishments passed out of existence a decade ago. The present generation must be educated in high school and college so that it will adjust itself to the tremendous changes that the world struggle effected in the commercial, social and intellectual life of America. It should not be our purpose to advocate ease and superficiality in this educational process. It is just that which we have to combat. Last week, I heard the president of a Phi Beta Kappa society, who was emphasizing this same point, quote the story of the college graduate travelling abroad who wrote home about his visit to the Louvre and said he covered it all in an hour and a half but thought that if he had had on his spiked shoes he could have done it in one hour flat. But radical adjustments are necessary in education. They have already taken place in industry and commerce, and in the social and intellectual life of the people. We educators are on doubtful ground—the shifting sands of flux and change. The procedures that led to the partial solution of social, industrial, and educational problems a decade ago have been thrown into the discard by the type of lessons that humanity learned in the varied and bitter experience of war.

The clearer vision superinduced by the war opened our eyes to colossal educational waste. "We wasted well intentioned effort upon fruitless things," says Monroe. "We wasted the time of youth upon work that meant as little to us as it did to them. We shrank from spending money

in experimentation but did not hesitate to waste vast sums for the perpetuation of traditional medieval methods of instruction."

We have built and are building splendid edifices that are the last word in structural beauty and purely mechanical equipment. But we must look to it that these modern and beautiful structures are not serving the old purpose that Stephen Leacock attributes to them; namely, "to successfully conceal the schoolmaster and his antiquated methods of instruction."

Education to become really efficient must be a factor in the training of youth both in and out of school; it must make use of the immense educative power of real work and real play and endeavor to direct the energies of the youth therein.

To that end, it must utilize numerous aids and forces outside the school. The home figures tremendously in the education of the child, yet at scarcely a single point do these forces of home, school and college co-operate or even remotely touch. Industry depends for its welfare upon the type of product turned out in the schools and colleges, yet only in isolated instances do these cooperate to the end that the one may be the training ground for those abilities and talents of which the other is the testing place.

Then, too, our people are no longer homogeneous; there is a great foreign element as yet unassimilated. The disintegrating influence of the war upon our thought and culture, the very general and growing indifference to the true and the good, not alone in literature and art, but in all departments of life, and the corresponding increase of indulgence in the follies and extravagances that characterize our present age—these are some of the problems that confront us in the schoolroom. How are we to solve them? By eternal vigilance, by untiring effort, but, most of all, by willing and intelligent cooperation. For if education as a science has its problems, it also has its postulates, notably that "Strength in Union" dictum which has become axiomatic. Shifting sands make poor foundations, and shifting responsibilities—those of one group upon the shoulders of another and vice-versa—is not less deterrent to the permanence and stability of the structure we hope to build.

And finally: "A little leaven leaveneth the whole lump."

This educational process is, shall we say, the stimulus which is to the development of the pupil as the leaven to the loaf. Let us expand the metaphor and complete the homely analogy. First, there is the introduction of the yeast into this mass of raw material, the dough—lumpish stuff, heavy, amorphous, inert. The leaven begins to work; the mass rises to notable heights and noble proportions; it looks ready for the proving ground, the oven. But is it? Watch the efficient and intelligent housewife, shall we say the teacher, who is not deceived by this specious inflation. She takes the dough and molds it anew, until the yeast has permeated the inmost recesses of the mass. She then sets it aside for a time in an atmosphere of warmth and geniality, where once more it assumes

promising and imposing proportions and is really ready for the oven—the “trial by fire,” to continue the symbolism, whence the finished product emerges, a thing of form and comeliness, of worth and substance.

The new Department with its splendid background of accomplishments in the field of secondary education and of efficiency in its administration by the exemplary leadership of its pioneers will, I am confident, with the support and the cooperation gained by its affiliation with the National Education Association, achieve great things. The new Department, Madame President and members of the National Education Association, is at your service.

PSYCHOLOGY OF CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

A. G. CRANE, PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING, LARAMIE, WYO.

The psychology of citizenship training sounds fearfully technical. The speaker, however, is not qualified to treat the subject in a scientifically technical fashion. The speaker's viewpoint is that of an ordinary student of education. Viewing the problem from the standpoint of the public school administrator, I may perhaps be charged with being in the position of the boy who was apparently deeply interested in the sand lot game of baseball. A bystander accosted him and said, “Young man, I suppose you know all about this game of baseball?” The reply was, “No, sir, I don't know a t'ing about it, I'se only de umpire.” The administrator is often required to be the umpire and as such he should know the general rules of the game, though perhaps those whom he supervises are vastly better detailed technicians than himself.

During the past few decades, the attention of educators has been closely centered upon the content of courses, the making of syllabi and curricula. Vocational and professional training have brought in the reign of the specialist, until in higher education and measurably in secondary education, we have seen the hyper-specialization of courses and the creation of student programs made up of highly specialized fragments in the various fields of knowledge. Educators are now beginning to cry that the graduates' schooling has failed to give an integrated whole; that there has been no coordination; that his acquaintance with the fields of human knowledge is scrappy and confused. The emphasis upon specialized subjectmatter has overemphasized the intellectual, often neglecting the social and moral needs of students. There is a refreshing reaction from this attitude now becoming evident in educational thought. Educators are recognizing that students and citizens are more than intellectual machines; that qualities of heart and soul and personality are fully as important as keen intellectual power. This trend of thought is showing itself in the establishment of student personnel departments, in the creation of new testing devices to show individual differences, in the student health programs, in an insistent demand for better citizenship training. The very

presence on the program of this great association of the topic of citizenship shows the attention being given to this topic by educators.

From the school administrator's standpoint, two very basic false assumptions have often been made in the plans for training citizens. The first false assumption has been a too narrow concept of citizenship. Citizenship is more than a knowledge of machinery of the government, more than the mere performance of voting, holding office, or watching government activities. We have had notable examples in the last decade of men who are highly successful in all these particulars and yet were arrant knaves in high places. Citizenship is a more complex thing. Essentially it means harmonious and efficient teamwork in society. Good citizens are good neighbors, good friends. The sum total of a man's social reactions determine his citizenship. His character, personality, his attitude toward public welfare, are all parts of his citizenship.

A second false assumption in which the schools have fallen readily because it is the line of least resistance, is the undue emphasis placed upon preachment. It has been assumed that an intellectual knowledge of right conduct would assure performance. It is the old mistake made in our boyhood days when the lad who recited the ten commandments most glibly was given the prize Bible and it was easily supposed that he would be the best boy. As a matter of fact, we lads knew him as the ring-leader in all the deviltry. The emphasis has been put upon intellectual knowledge. Americanization courses have relied for their efficiency upon a knowledge of the mechanics of government, a smattering of American history, a knowledge of the functions of county officers, as if this information would make good citizens. We have overlooked the fact that the best training agencies in America to make our foreign-born peoples good citizens, are the cooperative societies in which these men and women participate and experience the satisfactions of good team work. Codes of ethics, courses of instruction in morals, have been largely preachment giving information as to right conduct. It is true today as in days of old that he who knows best is not always the one who does best. Eyes they may have but they see not; ears they may have but they hear not. They may be hearers of the word only and not doers.

Citizenship depends upon the sum total of man's personality which has been described as the sum total of his habits, attitudes, ideals and prejudices, which determine his daily reactions. One's daily reactions are mostly a matter of habit and only partly a matter of formulated intellectual code. One might say that roughly one's social conduct is seventy-five percent habit, fifteen percent standards, and ten percent ideals. Habits, however, are not acquired by an enforced intellectual assent, by the ability to repeat at examination time preachments given by the teacher. They are not acquired by memory exercises, not by discussion of cases, but habits are acquired by satisfying experiences oft repeated. To acquire a personality which shall assure the proper social responses of a good

citizen, one must taste the satisfactions of good citizenship through good reactions. If the schools then are to train their students to become good citizens, the schools must afford the students opportunity to acquire habits of good citizenship, and these habits must be acquired through oft repeated satisfying experiences.

Habits alone, however automatic they may become, are not reliable in times of stress. A mere automaton does not possess the necessary flexibility required by changing conditions. The actions of an automaton will break in times of sore temptation. The habits must have for their support and as an aid in their acquisition some formulated standards. It is here that the intellectual guide of citizenship training makes its appearance. The standards will probably be highly specific, simple and applicable to a limited situation. Here again in a new complex situation the standards may break down and we need for the fullest assurance of right reaction, that the standards of conduct shall be illuminated and inspired by the light of ideals. We thus have a triumvirate of habits, standards and ideals, working together and a three-fold cord is not easily broken. We are most of us reasonably honest in small matters of money. We will return excessive change and we do it without any great mental struggle, almost automatically from a matter of habit. We would probably be honest to the extent of \$5. If it were a transaction involving \$100, we might give some serious thought to the question of returning the money. In this case the habits are threatened and the standard comes to their rescue and says: "A mistake in your favor should be rectified as readily as you would wish a mistake against you to be corrected." If the amount, however, should reach into the thousands there might be a very severe mental struggle. None of our existing standards would fit a situation of such magnitude. We would be tempted to find reasons and justifications for keeping the money. Here the thing which might save the situation would be a high ideal of honesty as an abstract virtue. Like some famous men, you might decide that you would rather be poor and honest than rich and a thief. Your ideal will say "It is not right" or "You must live with yourself, your selfrespect; your contentment is worth more than mere money." In the triumvirate of habits, standards, and ideals, each is reinforced by the others. The ideal makes possible the transfer from one situation to another. It is an intellectual thing which can be taught by the schools, but the mistake in the past has been in teaching this to the neglect of the acquisition of good habits or even in the face of contradictory habits. The mistake has been in teaching the ideal without the proper foundation of experience from which the ideal might have been built inductively.

Little Mary comes to the table with dirty hands. Her mother says: "Mary, you must go to the bathroom at once and wash your hands. The little dog next door wouldn't eat his dinner with such dirty paws. It is not nice to come to the table with such dirty hands. Other people do not

like to see such a dirty little girl." This experience is repeated inexorably on each day of the week, and it is surprising the amount of innate resistance which Mary possesses. After weeks and months of this training, however, she decides that it is more comfortable for her to wash her hands before she comes to the table. She reluctantly gives assent to the standard of clean hands at the table. She has acquired a habit of neatness, specific and exceedingly limited, which does not extend beyond meal time. She has acquired a standard equally limited which says: "Your hands must be clean when you appear at the table." Later she goes to school and here the teacher insists upon clean hands and Mary has repeated experiences formed perhaps a little more easily now than the first one, which forms habits of clean hands at school, and the standard which says: "Your hands must be clean when you go to school." Later she forms another specific habit by the same process which says that she must have clean hands when company appears and later again a habit of clean hands when playing with her pretty playthings. From these habits and along with them she has also acquired four standards which can be stated in intellectual terms: hands must be clean at table; hands must be clean at school; hands must be clean when company comes; and when playing with soilaible playthings. Later in life when more specific habits and standards of neatness have been formed, there may come a day when Mary will catch a glimpse of an ideal of neatness in the abstract: neatness and cleanliness of person, of mind, of thought, of her home, and her surroundings. From habits there came a generalized standard, not a generalized habit, but a formulated set of specific standards. From this set of standards, by process of abstraction, comes the ideal of cleanliness. This is a process of training, starting with experience and working out inductively to the highest thing—the ideal. Many of the attempts to teach morals, character, personality, citizenship, in the schools, have tended to reverse the process and force upon little children ideals first before there is comprehension or acceptance. The result has been mere memoriter acquisition of the information—unassimilated, unaccepted, and functionless.

How can the schools then obey these simple laws of citizenship training and afford their students opportunity to acquire harmonious social habits, useful formulated standards, and inspired, guiding ideals? Unconsciously in most cases, the schools are already doing much in this line and their most successful results are secured when following this psychological order of habits first, standards and ideals later. Punctuality, regularity, accuracy, honesty in individual classwork, courtesy, consideration for others, are all being taught in our public schools by the daily discipline of the schools. Our supervised playgrounds, our extracurriculum activities of students, are giving students first hand experience of good citizenship. My little boy came home proudly from the first grade and stated that he was Mayor. I said, "Mayor of what?" and he said, "Mayor of Happy Town." "Where is Happy Town?" "Why, Happy Town is our

school and I am Mayor. We have policemen and hostesses and other officers in our town." Later he came back with the proud announcement that he had been reelected Mayor of Happy Town. In his little childish way, he and the others were participating in the pleasures and satisfactions of good citizenship. The schools are indeed affording opportunity for their students to become good citizens but much is being overlooked and neglected. Much more must be done. The schools must be true social communities. The teacher must be the manipulator and creator of social situations. The teacher must thoroughly understand the laws of personality training, the standards and ideals to be secured. The teacher must look upon the students as individuals and the task of teaching as one greater and nobler than that of a mere impartation of subject-matter. The harmful tendencies which the little Marys and Johns and Pauls show must be suppressed, discouraged. The positively helpful attitudes must be put in their stead by creating situations in which the young people may primarily acquire correct habits. With the formation of the habits must go the formulation of standards, and as the standards multiply and the upper levels of the school life are reached, ideals must be abstracted and made to illuminate and interpret and strengthen the standards.

The object of this address is to endeavor to bring to the consciousness of our teaching profession the true and natural process whereby young people acquire harmonious social personalities. There must be in the forefront of the teacher's consciousness the realization that good habits are primary, but that good habits cannot be effectively formed or reliably maintained unless there accompanies these habits a stated standard, and that standards will in times of great stress be ineffective unless the whole is illuminated, interpreted, and inspired by ideals. This triumvirate must be vividly in the teacher's mind as manipulator, creator, and director of situations. The work of the school—the teaching of readin', writin', and 'rithmetic, must be made to afford the young people opportunities to acquire the pleasing habits which shall assure the student's individual happiness and success and make him a blessing to society.

SYMPOSIUM ON CITIZENSHIP TRAINING—THE NEBRASKA PLAN

F. M. GREGG, NEBRASKA WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, LINCOLN, NEBR.

When Moses, the great ethical law giver, had seen much of life in Egypt and among his own enslaved people, he went off into the land of Media to meditate for many years. On his return, seeing the depravities of his brother Israelites, he went up in due course of time into the heights of Sinai, there to receive, amid the thunderings and lightnings of that desert peak, the ten laws that have been made the basis of morality among the inheritors of the Hebrew religion and morals for over three thousand years. But now, after these thousands of years, and in our own America, a growing

number seem to be returning, in part at least, to the degeneracies of ancient peoples. All too many of us have put nots into the two positive Mosaic laws and taken the nots out of the eight remaining ones.

Greatly impressed by the numerous concrete instances of the practical following of this modernized Mosaic code, the men and women of the Nebraska legislature of 1927 passed a law requiring the preparation for, and adoption by, the schools of the state, of a course of study in character education. It may have been that the steadily increasing dangers to material prosperity and to human life acted as the chief incentive for the practically unanimous passing of this law, but the jeopardizing of other social values must also have been operative in the minds of all the thoughtful members of that lawmaking body.

Doubtless the reason for asking the schools of our state to undertake a larger program of character education was the widely recognized principle that whatever is desired for the citizenship of a commonwealth must first find a place in the public schools. But while this principle is a valid and, indeed, a sacred one, and in this instance of its application will yield an appreciable return in character values among our oncoming generations, there yet remains the necessity for a vast reenforcement to the work that the schools at best can do, before a high level of character regeneration can be achieved.

Character education is too complex and depends on too many factors to be wholly controlled by any formal system of public education. For instance, if the leading citizens of a community are known to patronize the hip flask on social occasions, and the report thereof becomes a matter of levity in social circles, any teaching of the schools on the subject of respect for law is promptly nullified. Nor would any teaching of the virtues of temperance and sobriety be effective in any high degree among a bibulous population whether or not there is any such thing as an Eighteenth Amendment. This same type of comment can be made with respect to honesty, regard for property, virtue in men and women, or any other moral quality that distinguishes civilized man from untutored savage. Our commonwealth and no other will ever be wholly restored to ideal citizenship through the work of the schools alone.

The present state of moral flux, we are reminded by Judge Kavanaugh's recent book on crime in America, is not to be attributed to the World War, to the Volstead act, or to any other single force or influence that the partial student of human society may chance to select. It is a combination of many causes that brings about what seems in some respects, at least, to be a moral breakdown of our times. Perhaps the nearest approach we can make toward the assignment of a single cause is the wide-spread use of cigarettes, which so quickly narcotize the moral sensitiveness of our boys and girls. Where the use of the cigarette abounds in school, all moral training is at once placed under an extremely heavy handicap.

To discover all the widely scattered demoralizing influences, and to seek the adequate way out, it would seem to be desirable in many common-

wealths to call a great congress on morals and character education for the consideration of important agenda to uncover the trends, forces, and influences that control the current type of citizenship and to seek, not to draw up more laws for the statute books, but to set into operation such a measure of public opinion as shall combat audacious evils that now go unchallenged, and to reinforce the struggling goods that are now too weak for victory. To such a congress of some hundreds of citizens there might well come high-minded men and women from among educational organizations, parent-teacher congresses, ecclesiastical groups, commercial clubs, luncheon clubs, credit men's associations, organizations of county attorneys and sheriffs, and every other kind of organization with altruistic objectives. It is not at all impossible that such a congress will be assembled next winter in Nebraska.

While still considering character education in general, it might be added that owing to many recent shifts in social and material life, there is a great need for evaluating and refining a code of morals for life as it now is and a need for determining what are the absolutely basic human virtues. Current history and sociology, conscientiously studied, could be made to yield a dependable list of desirable and of undesirable social practices and virtues, especially if these were reviewed by a group of widely experienced men and women with great moral vision. Imagine, for instance, the effect of the fine code that could have been worked out by such great spirits as Count Tolstoi, Cardinal Mercier, Pastor Wagner, Phillips Brooks, William E. Gladstone, Theodore Roosevelt, Woodrow Wilson, Frances Willard, and Alice Freeman Palmer. Endowed with high purpose and great human understanding, such a group as that could not have come far from thinking after Him the thoughts of the Great Intelligence, and in giving to our times an approximation to an ideal moral code.

Our great institutions of learning spend several hundred dollars a year on each of their students in developing skills in English, in finance, in linguistics, in agricultural practice, in hog-cholera control, in automobile manipulation, and a hundred other matters of material concern. They also make extensive studies of social psychology and the control of people's behavior in salesmanship, in advertising, and in the decisions of a jury; but definite set-up is rarely provided for the scientific discovery of moral fact. Is gambling, social or subterranean, good for society? Let someone examine all the facts and give us the scientific conclusion. Is the hip-flask the scientifically indicated remedy for human complexes and mental inhibitions? Is it wise or fatuous for a woman to spend a large part of her time at a bridge table to the neglect of her family? Is cigarette smoking among girls and women a harmless pastime? Is the reading of the *True Story* magazine and other salacious matter by the boys and girls of our junior and senior high schools an adequate return to the schools for their painstaking efforts to develop the art of silent reading? Surely the answer to all such questions can be revealed by scientific investigation.

Coming now more specifically to the work of character and citizenship training in Nebraska, it is fully recognized that the schools in our and every other commonwealth have always stressed moral education, both directly and indirectly, in many ways, and have been doing their full share in the making of good citizens. But by as much as there can be improvements in other aspects of school work, academic, organizational and administrative, the faith in which is fully evidenced by this great teachers' convention, so can there be improvement in the arts of character and citizenship training. What, therefore, the Nebraska course proposes to achieve, is, first, to introduce the teacher to perhaps a little clearer conception of the more effective underlying principles in character education, and second, to suggest ways and means for a more successful inculcation of ethical truth and practice.

To this end, a 200-page, tentative course of study was drawn up in the summer of 1927, which is designed, in part one, to furnish a basis for the study of character-education principles by the teachers of the state and by the students in normal-training high schools and in higher institutions for teacher training. Part two of the manual supplies many suggestions to teachers for applying the principles to the classroom situation. It is clearly recognized that the teaching of character and citizenship must utilize both direct and indirect methods.

It is assumed throughout that character is the sum total of one's tendencies to behavior, and that a pupil's will is resident in his character. It is further assumed that the theoretical basis of character education never lies wholly within the viewpoint of any extremist. The theory of the extreme mentalist that lost souls can instantly be redeemed by miracle is not recognized because the results of such procedure have not seemed to justify its claims. The theory of the biological fatalists that natural and artificial selection are the only adequate means of moral amelioration is not accepted, for to do so is to surrender at once all claims for character education in the schools, and to belie the sociological facts of history.

The theory of the extreme behaviorists that by the manipulation of environment one can make any kind of character out of any kind of normal baby is rejected because on such a theory there is nothing to guarantee that this would-be shaper of human destiny, governed by similar fortuitous controls, might chance to make anything at all out of any child. A second reason for rejecting this hypothesis is that it disregards ten lines of evidence for the functioning of instinctive nature and racial urge, namely, the anatomical, the neurological, the pathological, the genetic, the psychiatric, and the testimony of the feeble-minded, the senile, the depraved, the drug addict, the social manipulator, and the case of identical twins reared apart.

However, it must be said that any course of study in character education, to be consistent and effective must be organized on some definite basis of psychology and philosophy. The Nebraska course, therefore, very frankly takes a middle ground and assumes that heredity has much to do with what a person becomes; that environment always has been and always will be a

powerful factor; and finally that mental and spiritual values, when vital and genuine, have been shown time and again to be vastly important in the building of a beautiful life.

On such a background the Nebraska course regards the individual as dependent for what he is, on six forms of behavior, namely: (1) His reflex and automatic acts, (2) his emotions and instincts (I dare to use the word), (3) his disposition, that is, the relative intensities of his instincts, conditioned or reconditioned, (4) his sentiments or loves, (5) his "social gallery," and (6) his distinctly acquired forms of behavior both deliberate and habitual. The human creature is a behaving creature who is under control, both separately and jointly, of his spinal cord and brainstem, his thalami, and his cerebral cortex.

The problem of character education thus becomes one of organizing all the individual's forms of response in such a way as to serve a unified and socially acceptable human reactor. The four major opportunities for character education, so far as the schools are concerned, lie in influencing (1) a pupil's disposition, (2) his sentiments or ideals, (3) his habits, and (4) the character of his accepted "social gallery."

In dealing with dispositions, the teacher must necessarily do a lot of individual work and must know something of the arts of conditioning neglected instincts. She must also seek continually increasing skill in the art of reconditioning unfortunate snarls in emotional life. In this connection she must fully acquaint herself with the typical dispositions in the stage of unfoldment of original nature which she finds exhibited in the school grades with which she works.

Along with this study of childhood characteristics in successive periods, there needs yet to be worked out the appropriate traits and trait actions that can be most advantageously stimulated in each of the school-life stages. For instance, it is useless to talk about loyalty or patriotism in primary grades. The pupil there is an individualist, and any discussion of these traits falls on utterly uncomprehending ears. In later childhood and early adolescence, however, the situation is very different, for there the pupil is conspicuously gregarious and quickly appreciates the importance of being true to the group.

One of the most interesting sights I have seen this year in Nebraska was the operation of a club of Uncle Sam's boys and girls in a room made up of fourth, fifth, and sixth grade pupils. Time does not permit a description of the scene or a report of the positive character advances so enthusiastically described by the teacher. But corroborating her testimony is the testimony that has come in through reports to State Superintendent Taylor's office from the teachers of Nebraska. Only a relatively few of the teachers have tried out this feature of the Five-Point System of the Character Education Institution, adopted in the Nebraska manual, but those who have done so are almost unanimous in endorsing the method. Incidentally, I am requested by Secretary Fairchild to say that the Character Education Institu

tion at Chevy Chase, Washington, D. C., is a research station and not one for practically directing plans or systems.

A joint committee of the Nebraska State Teachers Association and of the state department of education will be actively at work the coming school year in making a careful survey of the technics of character education and will doubtless seek to discover the desirable character traits to be inculcated by the schools, the optimum school ages for their presentations, and the school situations, both curricular and extracurricular, through which they may best be developed. With this study there will probably also go an inquiry into the practicability of character surveys taken by the pupil himself, as the Iowa Plan provides, or by the teacher alone, as the Character Education Institution insists shall be the method. It is the Iowa plan of self-surveys that is incorporated in the Nebraska manual, but not many teachers this year have reported a trial of the survey method. Those who have done so, however, seem favorable to the taking of pupil surveys.

Of prime importance will also be the investigation of the problem of the direct versus the indirect method. Not a little confusion has come in the discussion of these two methods because of the two very different usages for the term "direct method." All are agreed that the indirect method begins with chance situations out of which trait actions and finally traits may emerge if the situations continue favorable. The direct method is popularly understood to be deductive and authoritative and is illustrated by the Sunday school teacher of the generation that is passing. But scientifically the direct method contemplates definitely selected traits as objectives, arrived at out of situations that are more or less controlled. The procedure is inductive and experimental and the movement is consciously toward moral conclusions or ideals organized into a system of ethics. This procedure might perhaps better be described as directedly indirect—indirect so far as the pupil is concerned, but direct and sum-clear so far as the teacher is concerned. It is the method toward which I predict we shall be moving in Nebraska—the method of "directed indirectness."

Touching now only briefly on the place of ideals in character education, it may be said that we need a clearer statement of technic than we now have. An ideal is an emotionalized concept. It is a sentiment, in McDougall's use of that term, and involves the exercise of emotions in connection with concepts. It is a cortico-thalamic activity. A pupil's ideals are his appreciations, his loves, what he really cares for. One of the finest of pedagogical arts is that of getting boys and girls to fall in love with many worthy things—art, music, literature, nature, native land, foreign peoples, splendid manners, and fine character-building ideals. Who shall teach us how best to do these wonderful things for our boys and girls?

Among the character-building ideals are, of course, the items in a code of morals. The Nebraska manual adopts, for the elementary grades, the Hutchins code as found in the Five-Point Plan developed by the Character Education Institution. For the high-school grades, the Squires code is offered as a model, with the recommendation that the pupils be stimulated

to revise the code as may seem good to them under teacher leadership. The tragedy of any code, however, is that teachers will too often attempt to teach its items as a mere catechism without providing a rich background of observation and experience of which each item of the code shall represent a crystallization. The emotional element is pretty certain to be lost and thus the bare cognitive truths cannot become idealized. Who again shall teach us how to convert codes of morals into functioning ideals?

The work of habit formation and the acquisition of skills is, of course, an ever present one in every schoolroom. What is most needed now is the application of the well-known laws of habit development to the fixing of trait actions and the acquisition of traits. We say to the pupil, "Put your books in your desk in an orderly way. Be neat. Put all scraps of paper in the waste basket. Be neat. Erase the blackboard, leaving it free from brush marks. Be neat." Thus, through persistent exactions of these responses, the pupil gets not only the concept but the generalized habit of neatness. There will also be transfer of training if a wise pedagogical baggage master is always on the job.

Last and most important of all the phases of character education is the building up of a wholesome "social gallery" in the life of the individual. More than on anything else, who one is depends on whom one cares for. One's selfregarding sentiment, the essence of one's personality, centers around the group of individuals of one's social orientation. Here conscience has its seat, for boys and girls get their consciences from the social group they most respect. The human mind is necessarily and inescapably social, and a supreme work of school and church is to assist the pupil to come under the influence of a wholesome "social gallery."

More specifically, if the worthy teacher can herself find a place in the choir invisible of a child's life, she will have done the greatest thing possible for her pupil. Happy indeed the boys and girls of America who have teachers that are to them as Greek divinities to whom they daily pour out sincere libations, and into whose likeness they steadily grow, provided those teachers live always on the Olympic heights of character, surrounded by the eternal snows of purity and goodness, and reflect ever the unfading sunlight of intelligence and of righteousness. Thus and thus only, in the last analysis, shall we have a better citizenship of boys and girls and ultimately of men and women in a better America.

THE SPIRITUALIZING ASPECTS

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The greatness of a nation is not truly measured by a summarization of her material progress; in the ultimate analysis, it depends upon her contribution to civilization. The grandeur of a cathedral may be described by its architecture, but the real glory of the structure lies in its use in establishing the relationship of the worshipper to his God. Costly tapes-

try and precious antiques may embellish a mansion, but the crucial test of a home is love. Real citizenship is better distinguished by the prosaic activities of everyday life than by poetic flag-waving on special occasions.

Likewise the work of the public school is not accurately appraised by a survey of the value of the school buildings; the number of books in the libraries, trees on the school grounds; state certificates on record; cost and enrolment figures; and other statistical data. Necessary as they are, these material manifestations do not constitute the real core of the program of public education. It is not properly explained by the findings of educational research, details of classroom practice and technic, investigations of curriculum, listing of objectives, or results of testing programs. No single item of the administration, the supervision, or the instruction serves as the criterion; the dominating purpose of the entire organization is to build citizenship, to advance character, and to help childhood "to achieve life of rich significance," as Dewey put it.¹

The national necessity for such a program was pointed out by Horace Mann in 1845: "If we do not prepare children to become good citizens; if we do not develop their capacities, if we do not enrich their minds with knowledge, imbue their hearts with the love of truth and duty, and a reverence for all things sacred and holy, then our republic must go down to destruction, as others have gone before it."² As recently stated by Charters, "The development of character and personality has always attracted the attention and elicited the energies of men and women who have in any way felt responsible for educating children for citizenship."³ Today in this citizenship symposium we are repeating this essential truth, and devoting the full program to a recapitulation of the pertinent facts in education for citizenship.

As we now turn from the composite idea of citizenship to its spiritual aspects, we approach the most difficult phase to analyse. There is a lack of educational research on this subject; it is not as concrete as spelling counts or diagnostic tests in arithmetic. Ideals are not as tangible as materials, procedures are still in the empirical stage.⁴ The progress of materials has always exceeded intellectual and spiritual advancement. "Things are in the saddle," said Emerson in 1842; "Things are in the saddle and ride mankind," said Whitman in 1859. In 1928 the stupendous achievements in things can ride mankind either to annihilation or to a more beautiful and enduring civilization. Man cannot live by bread alone, nor can real character and spiritual citizenship be organized on a theory of things. We are in greater need of idealism today than materialism; our future depends more upon character than intellect.

¹ Webster, W. F., *Music and the Sacred Seven, Addresses and Proceedings*, National Education Association, 1927, p. 859.

² Mann, Horace, *Common School Journal*, 1845, Vol. VII, pp. 140-141.

³ Charters, W. W., *Teaching of Ideals*, preface, pp. 119, 279.

⁴ Report of the Committee on Character Education of the National Education Association, p. 2.

The organized education of childhood is no longer limited to a mastery of facts; the common essentials do not consist merely of certain knowledges and skills.¹ To develop the abilities, habits, ideals, attitudes, insights, and appreciations that make for proper citizenship and adequate living is now considered the goal. This is only another way of saying that the curriculum is being spiritualized as well as intellectualized. This emphasis upon the spiritualizing aspects does not minimize the basic importance of academic training. The machinery must be adequate and in proper working order before the vital spark can transform it into rhythmic action. Fundamentals in character must be mastered before the personality can be polished.

The spiritualizing aspects are found in those outcomes of instruction dealing with ideals, attitudes, and appreciations—the hardest to teach. They have to do with enriching life, with developing the quality that makes life significant, and with building a wholesome philosophy of life. Every section of the public school curriculum has spiritualizing values. Our president says that all our science and all our arts will never be the means for the true advancement of our nation, will never remove us from the sphere of the superficial and the cynical, will never give us a civilization and a culture of any worthy and lasting importance unless we are able to see in them the outward manifestations of a spiritual reality; that unless our halls of learning are real temples approached by our youth in an attitude of reverence, consecrated by worship of the truth, they will all end in delusion; that our colleges will fail in their duty to their students unless they are able to inspire them with a broader understanding of the spiritual meaning of science, of literature, and of the arts.²

The possibilities of the language arts in establishing high ideals, proper attitudes, and fine appreciations are now being approached. Wonderful development is being made in the use of literature as inspiration stimuli through the delightful changes in children's books. The library as "the playground of the mind" is providing rich and vicarious reading experiences; incidentally we are discovering childhood in the process. A new classroom technic exalts pure enjoyment over critical analyses and tedious details; a better understanding of the psychology of teaching places emphasis upon satisfying learning situations. It is a scientific fact that children will read poetry if they are permitted to enjoy its meaning rather than required to analyze its form. Literature thus becomes a pleasure instead of a duty and "children's reading not a byproduct of the English course, an intelligence test, or anything else—a subject of limitless possibilities and life long implications."³

¹ Kilpatrick, Wm. H., *An Effort at Appraisal, Adapting the Schools to Individual Differences*, Twenty-fourth Yearbook, Part II, p. 181.

² Coolidge, Calvin, "Emphasis Must Be Given to Development of Moral Power," *School Life*, Vol. XIII, No. 2, Oct., 1927.

³ Moore, Annie C., *New Roads to Childhood*.

Charters says that so great is the effect of the literature of a nation upon its youth that the pupil who reads widely and intelligently is unable to escape the influence of the records of the past. Since the folk lore of the nation depicts the ideals dominating the lives of its people, stories and songs present ideals in a way that no agency can approximate. As the pages of great books acquaint the pupils with "all that mankind has done, thought, gained" in the words of Carlyle, as the heroes of all ages pass in panoramic view—Hercules, Roland, Sir Galahad, Robin Hood, Siegfried, William Tell, Portia, and hundreds of others, as the stories from Aesop to Brer Rabbit entertain their fancy, as they adventure among the great masterpieces of prose and poetry, as they enjoy the matchless majesty of the psalms and the monumental personification from Genesis to Revelation, as they discover the law of laws permeating the traditions and ideals of all nations, school children are gathering principles that cannot help but color their philosophy of life. With an enriched content and a happier technic literature has a better chance to function in life outside the school and to play a more direct and indirect part in perfecting that something which we call personality. The pages of literature are full of the most beautiful word pictures and the loftiest ideals of the ages; no subject in the curriculum has greater possibilities for developing right attitudes toward life or deeper appreciations of its values.

The spiritualizing aspects of the tool subjects may not seem as obvious as those of English, but there is beauty in mathematical order and in spelling precision. It is the business of the teacher so to spiritualize the facts that their primary values will be accompanied by certain concomitant learnings.¹ The development of standards of neatness, accuracy, workmanship, and a sense of values are not to be trusted to the magic of transfer but sought along with specific skills and knowledges. In no field does the psychology of achievement apply more easily than in arithmetic classroom where the bright child is challenged to higher levels of accomplishment and the dull pupil thrilled with the success of reaching a certain standard which he has done his very best to attain.

As the pupils perfect their technic in the manual and vocational arts, do they not gain a better concept of what is beautiful in form, honest in work, and fine in standards? As they increase their conscious enjoyment of the masterpieces of art, as they follow their urge to win the intellectual battle of freedom from prejudice, ignorance, and superstition, as they tune in on greater wave lengths of rhythm and sweetness and harmony of life through musical appreciation, are they not learning to evaluate life in terms of quality rather than quantity?

The facts of the sciences from the microscopic to the telescopic teach us that "it is man who sends out the only jarring note that mars the music of the spheres." What field is more appealing to the modern youth than that of science? What has captured his fancy like the story of the

¹ Kilpatrick, Wm. H., *Foundation of Method*, Chap. VIII, p. 103.

conquest of the air? Have not Colonel Charles A. Lindbergh's aviation flights spiritualized the whole world? Does he not hold the boyhood of the world in his hands? As the boundaries of human knowledge are being pushed back, is not the outlook for our school children being broadened? Are not the concomitant values of tolerance, open-mindedness, and willingness to seek and accept the truth, desirable outcomes that will remain to bless the personality after the laboratory drawings are forgotten? Think also of the poise, balance, and happiness objectives of the modern health program. The responses to the objective stimuli of nature study are attitudes, ideals, and appreciations relating to the conservation of natural beauty and the worthy use of leisure time.

The inspirational uses of the formal facts in the social sciences are being emphasized in the modern course of study. If geography is to function in the spiritual as well as the economic life of the world, the facts are to be taught in such a way that the child's eyes and heart are opened to a greater world appreciation, enjoyment, sympathy, and understanding. No true teacher of history fails to incorporate in her lesson aim the cultivation of the attitudes of respect and appreciation for those who have made present day civilization possible. In civics she does not forget that personal and civic ideals are as necessary as specific knowledges. If the study of our country's glorious history does not provide high-school and college students with patriotic and lofty action patterns, if the work in civics does not make them better participators in the adventures of citizenship, the courses must surely be in need of revamping.

Unless special days are observed for their spiritualizing purposes, they do not serve their highest functions. Instead of being merely perfunctory celebrations they should crystallize the regular instruction into moments of high spirituality. Take the meaning of our country, the spirit of Americanism, as a topic for a patriotic program. Our country should mean more to our school children than a spot of color on the map of the geography, more than resources, institutions, codes, and boundaries. The spirit of America should be traced through the crosses at Flanders Field, through the emancipating pen of Lincoln, through the provisions of the Constitution—that greatest document of democracy, through Washington on his knees in the winter snow in prayer at Valley Forge, through the Magna Charta—that other great charter of human liberty to which we are indebted, through the long caravan of humanity that has struggled throughout the centuries to hold aloft the torchlight of human brotherhood, justice, and liberty. Old glory should signify more than a beautiful glare of color; it represents the spirit of America. It will not hurt this cold-blooded age to be moved to deep emotions along with the children at the sight of this glare of color, for it symbolizes the result of centuries of struggle from the valley of tyranny to the mountain top of freedom; the story of the human family's struggle since the dawn of history to substitute the ballot for the sceptre, the home for the castle,

the plow for the sword, the freeman for the slave, the school for the citadel.

As our school children are thrilled by the romantic stories of Benjamin Franklin's statesmanship, John Marshall's legal learning, Horace Mann's activities in behalf of the common school, Daniel Boone's hunting expeditions, Mary Lyon's opening college doors to women, U. S. Grant's siege of Vicksburg, Stonewall Jackson's matchless cavalry, Frances E. Willard's crusading for temperance, Dr. Anna Howard Shaw's championing of the suffrage reform, Clara Barton's bringing the American Red Cross to our country, Dr. Walter Reed's conquering Yellow Fever, General George W. Goethal's building the Panama Canal, Ezra Meeker's blazing the northwest trail, Luther Burbank's plant creations, Thomas A. Edison's marvelous inventions, Colonel Charles A. Lindbergh's aviation record, and the ideals and achievements of the many other interesting pioneers in high adventure for the benefit of civilization, they are learning to appreciate and interpret the spirit of America.

"The spiritual values which education should make clear are: The integration or spiritualizing of the community; the law of love; the idea of citizenship; the new significance of work and culture; our service to the next generation. We need in our educational scheme no less mastery of facts, but greater wisdom in teaching the spiritual significance of facts—that deeper significance of fact values which when put into action gives us vision, understanding, and guidance in our attempt to solve our daily problems."¹ If the work of the school is to develop citizenship of the American Beauty Rose type, the facts compose the roots and the stem, while the spiritualization of the facts constitute the fragrance and beauty of the flower.

The crux of the whole matter is, therefore, not what the child is to know, important as that is, nor what he is to believe, important as that is, but what he is to be. How is public education adjusting itself to this problem? How are the facts to be vitalized? How are ideals to be translated into character? Who is to give the commonplace a spiritualized setting?

The answer for the public school is the classroom teacher. Like everything else in the whole scheme of education—when policies have been decided, objectives proposed, curriculums formulated, textbooks written—it still remains for the classroom teacher to breathe into it the breath of life that it may become a living soul pulsating with life. Fine school plants, costly apparatus, highly organized administrative or supervisory technic all depend upon the presence and leadership of the real teacher. Upon her devolves responsibility second only to parentage. Throughout the ages, it has been so—the readings from Homer, the Indian lad stretched out on the sand before the chieftain's tent listening to the folk-lore of the tribe, the school child looking up into the face of the beloved Pestalozzi,

¹ Clark, M. G., *Spiritualizing the Facts*, National Education Association Proceedings, 1927, p. 800.

the modern pupil being introduced into the mysteries of language through the new primer—the teacher has inspired and idealized the youth. An unseen and immeasurable influence may be builded into the lives of our youth by the living example and loving services of the one whom Henry Van Dyke calls the Unknown Teacher.¹ Like the one whose body lies in stately grandeur in the tomb of the unknown soldier at Washington representing legions of those who died like him that civilization might be preserved, our unknown teacher also represents a countless multitude of those who enrich the lives of those entrusted to their care.

She does her work so quietly that often she is unknown outside of her own community. For her there are no headlines of publicity, no functions of honor, no demonstrations of spectacular character. She goes daily to her task of encouraging the timid, quickening the slow, lending a helping hand to the faltering. She communicates to them her own joy of learning and leads them to discover the treasures of knowledge. She causes them to work for a mastery of self and the satisfaction of an approving conscience. Every one of us recalls such a teacher of our childhood whose memory comes to us as a benediction.

Who shall be sufficient for these things? She who is not too scientific to be motherly nor too motherly to be scientific; she who is not too pedagogical to be social nor too social to be pedagogic. She who hath clean hands and a pure heart, who has concrete fineness, whose soul is afire with a consuming love for all God's little ones. Her tangible work with lesson materials may end with the marks entered on report cards, but her intangible work of love continues to bless those whom she has inspired to achieve lives of rich significance.

LAYING THE CORNERSTONE OF TOMORROW'S HEALTHY CITIZEN

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"To prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge," says Herbert Spencer. Methods and ways of imparting knowledge may change and shift with time and changing conditions. Knowledge itself may be added to but the function of education remains ever the same—"to prepare us for complete living."

That health is vital for complete living is incontrovertible and it therefore follows that education must bend its efforts to secure for every child that "state of being hale, sound and whole in body, mind and soul"—which is health. How best to acquire this for our children is a very definite question in the mind of all educators.

It has been only about ten years since the so-called modern school health program was introduced, and, though the progress has been great, the results in healthier children cannot be said to satisfy educational adminis-

¹ Van Dyke, Henry, "The Unknown Teacher," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Jan., 1927.

trators who are responsible for programs, or the public who supplies the funds.

There is a distinct difference between the service, the environmental and the instructional phases of the program, and all must be taken into consideration in evolving an effective plan.

In scarcely any school system have all three of these factors been equally well developed. Some phases have received more attention in one place—others in another place. However, it is but the part of wisdom to profit by experience—to select what is best in each place as we find it and use it in our developments and plans for the future.

The old school health program consisted of the detection and correction of physical defects and disease through medical inspection and school nursing, the imparting of knowledge principally through the teaching of formal physiology, and the sanitary construction of buildings consistent with the best sanitary standards of the time.

Medical inspection and school nursing—The work of doctors and nurses in the schools has been of great value to the health of the nation. Its importance cannot be estimated, but this factor in the program has not kept pace with modern knowledge.

It cannot be said that this is the fault of doctors or of nurses, as the situation is caused by a lack of realization on the part of the public of the value of these activities. This has resulted in insufficient funds being appropriated to the department responsible for the work.

Medical inspection usually has come to mean a superficial inspection of all elementary school children at intervals, by doctors appointed for that purpose; the number of children examined within a given time being dependent upon the hours the doctor is paid to devote to the service.

In many places the law requires that all children in the elementary schools be inspected by a school doctor once or twice a year, or thrice or four times during the child's school life.

If the amount appropriated for the work permits the doctor to spend only as much time as will allow the children to pass rapidly before him, obviously little effect can be expected. The result is that parents who, to some extent at least, decide appropriations, are not sufficiently enthusiastic about this phase of the school health program to promote it. An effective break has, however, been made in the apparently vicious circle.

In some cities and counties thorough physical examinations are given all children at regular intervals during their school life, with special attention by both doctor and nurse to those children requiring care between the regular periods.

The type of physical examination that can be expected to influence parents favorably and to effect the health of the children themselves is that given by the well-trained physician in the presence of the teacher, the nurse and at least one of the child's adult guardians—the mother preferably, the child being stripped to the waist.

The annual health examination is advocated by all health authorities for adults as well as children, but this goal can only be reached through the awakening of public consciousness to the value of a thorough examination by a physician.

The impression made upon children in school by the thorough physical examination of the child's body by a sympathetic understanding doctor will help to create an attitude of mind which must exist toward this important factor of health if it is to become a national custom.

A part of the cornerstone of this future citizen has been laid when, through his school experience, he attains a knowledge of what a thorough health examination can be and gains a desire for this health service.

The Health Section of the Edinburgh Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations in 1925 passed the following resolution:

1. Arrangements for the promotion of health should include physical examination of all children by a qualified physician at least three times during the school life—at the period of school entry, at the age of about nine years, and also shortly before leaving school.

The community providing a small appropriation which permits only a few hours weekly being devoted by a doctor to school examinations, and a law that demands that all children be inspected by a doctor annually, may well consider changing their law. A demonstration of thorough health examinations in one school will influence parents sufficiently to ensure their support for such a measure.

In a community in which such a demonstration was tried in one school, some of the most indifferent parents, with children in other schools, because indignant that their children were not having the same type of examination as that given in the demonstration school. "Why were their children being discriminated against and missing the privilege?" was the question sent to the city council.

Some public opinion was created to secure the necessary appropriation.

Health education—The formal physiology and hygiene of the past was based on the assumption that knowledge would result in practice. However, the results of years of such instruction convinced both health and educational authorities that the nation's people who had passed through the schools during the twenty-five years preceding the great war had not had their health practices favorably affected by the information imparted to them.

With this conviction came a definite effort to develop a form of health instruction which would not only affect the child today, but would assist in developing health habits for life.

Shifting the emphasis from disease and its symptoms to positive health and the attaining and sustaining a strong body, has been a most powerful factor in the new health teaching.

Means of arousing and keeping the child's interest in his own health, without creating either morbidness or hypersensitiveness in regard to himself, has been accepted as vital in the instructional program.

This belief has led to the adoption of methods and devices for health teaching many of which cannot be entirely approved. But as the trial and error method necessarily had to be followed, such a situation was to be expected.

Out of the many efforts to find ways to capture and sustain the interest of the child in health practice without making him introspective and hypocritical, has come much definite light which it is safe to follow:

Weighing and measuring—One of the most important of the newer methods has been the establishing, in the child's mind, of a goal to be attained in health.

Average weight for height and age offers a definite objective which even the youngest child can comprehend and in which all age children can be interested. The reason for this interest is not only the one which is apparent, that of being able to see the hand on the dial revolve, or the bar of the scale indicate a higher number, but a fundamental one, the normal interest of all human beings in growth.

The regular monthly weighing of school children has probably more than any other one factor resulted in a greater increase in health practices. Even though the process is not scientifically carried through and records are inaccurate, the child himself has gained tremendously by this one device. On the scale he sees for himself that there is a relationship between his own practices and his weight, and a foundation is established for further consideration on his part as to what he shall eat, how long he shall sleep and the number he knows he is expected to reach next weighing day.

Only those unfamiliar with regular weighing of school children as a part of a progressive school health program, can doubt the value of the process.

It can be a perfunctory, useless affair when teacher or nurse conducts the weighing as a task to be accomplished and only records are supposed to result from the occasion. However, wherever the weighing day is used as a means of positive health teaching, with the emphasis placed on accomplishment, it arouses the enthusiasm of school authorities, parents, and children.

Much has been said of the evils of competition; i. e., that the children are overstimulated in their effort to reach their average weight for height and age, or to excell their fellows. If one studies this possible over-emphasis usually it will be found that it can be traced to an overzealous, highly trained teacher or nurse who has not yet learned that the weight of a child is only one factor in the health program and that the weighing and measuring is only a means to encourage the child to follow a whole health program involving the advice of a physician.

Henry James in "Talks to Teachers" says:

Among the recent modern reforms of teaching methods a certain disparagement of emulation as a laudable spring of action in the schoolroom has often made itself heard.

Unquestionably, emulation with one's former self is a noble form of the passion of rivalry, and has a wide scope in the training of the young. But to veto and taboo all possible rivalry of one youth with another because such rivalry may

degenerate into greedy and selfish excess does seem to savour somewhat of sentimentality or even fanaticism. The feeling of rivalry lies at the very basis of our being, all social improvement being largely due to it. There is a noble and generous kind of rivalry as well as a spiteful and greedy kind.

All games owe the zest which they bring with them to the fact that they are rooted in emulous passion; yet they are the chief means of training in fairness and magnanimity. Can the teacher afford to throw such an ally away?

The late Dr. L. Emmett Holt, the eminent authority on child health, has said:

So far as the children themselves are concerned and their parents, the great advantage of regular weighing is to maintain the interest of the children and to interest their parents in the general truth that a healthy child gains every year and usually a pretty definite amount. A child who is not making such growth and such gain cannot be considered in the healthy group. . . . In the classroom the scale can, I believe, be used as a means of interesting the child only through regular and systematic weighings. Though monthly weighing may not give us an accurate picture of the child's growth, it does serve to interest the child in his growth.

The child who learns that he is expected to gain month by month rather than to gain a definite weight and that this growth is desirable if he is to accomplish his purposes, such as strength and agility in games, has had planted within his consciousness one of the fundamental elements upon which a health regime can be developed, and has added to the community a citizen who is health minded.

Health practices—"Interest in growth arouses a natural curiosity in the things which make for growth" and as the kind and quality of food is largely responsible for growth, questions about food and other habits follow the interest in weight.

"How much milk shall I drink every day to gain my half pound next month?" leads very naturally to a discussion of this important element.

Dr. E. V. McCollum, the eminent nutritionist of Johns Hopkins, has said, "Everyone should take daily throughout life approximately the equivalent of a quart of milk."

This belief is held by a sufficient number of thoughtful physicians to warrant acceptance by the laity and yet as a nation we are taking less than half this amount.

Milk, whole milk, for every child, every day, is essential for normal growth unless a greater quantity of green leafy foods are eaten than we in America are willing to consume.

We are becoming a milk drinking, butter eating people, but there is much work to be done in the classrooms before all children can be expected to receive their daily share of these essential commodities.

The milk lunch helps to create a taste for milk as children will take foods furnished in the school which they may scorn at home. Converting one child to the milk and butter habit is worth much effort. In this connection it is of importance to recognize the significance of the movement to secure good milk.

Most of the large cities and towns now require that their milk supply come from tuberculin tested herds. According to a recent bulletin of the U. S. Department of Agriculture more than 2,000,000 cattle owners have placed their herds under federal and state supervision for tuberculosis eradication and many more have applied for testing.

The task of eradicating the disease from cattle is approximately half completed. Creating public opinion in favor of this measure is one method of lessening the prevalence of tuberculosis in human beings. Informing the older school children about this matter and stimulating their interest is a sure means of arousing interest in the grownups.

Pasteurization of milk is another health factor about which children are especially keen. In the new supplementary reader by Andress and Bragg, *The Sunshine School*, a lesson on this subject is presented to children who are learning to read. Though absolutely accurate and uptodate as to the methods used in a modern pasteurization plant, it proves fascinating to the children of seven, eight, and nine years of age. Both information and practice is the aim of the book.

For the older children *The Path of the Gopatis*, a history of dairying through the ages, covering a period of five thousand years, has been published by the National Dairy Council. It is a delightful story which relates the trials and tribulations our forebears have withstood to protect the milk supply. The glass of white fluid assumes a new rôle as a child pursues its pages, becoming a priceless possession for which men have fought and died. Other excellent aids are offered by the council.

There is romance even in milk.

The dairy industry realizes more and more their responsibility to make the milk supply safe and in most large cities, pasteurization is compulsory.

See that the milk your school children drink either comes from tuberculin tested cows or is properly pasteurized.

Midday school lunch—Wherever children are gathered together for many hours, food—simple nourishing food—should be available.

Not all children require food between regular meals but many children do, and all children may have their food customs influenced by the school lunch; certain foods, placed before them for selection are declined until they are made popular, fashionable. One cafeteria director said, "I just can't supply them with baked apples now we are having a run on them. Perhaps its the new cinnamon or the brown sugar." Again the milk consumption and carrot orders have jumped up amazingly. This the wise principal attributed to the posting of rules for athletic training.

Whether it is a mid-morning lunch of milk and crackers, or the mid-day lunch furnished to supplement the food brought from home, the school lunch should be part of the health education program, and the various factors discussed in class. The Cleveland schools place small placards on each tray as the pupils file by after selecting their luncheon. Fruit, milk, cereal, etc., indicates type of additional food required for a well-balanced meal. No placard means the lunch selected is approved.

The children afterwards discuss in class the placards received and strive daily to reach 100 percent classes of "no placards."

The school lunch can only be called successful if the food cost is carried by the money paid. School systems have found, as do business concerns, that the school lunch pays dividends (not in cash to be used for the purchasing of athletic equipment) but in the ability of the children to carry on equally well through the whole day.

The good school lunch offers an opportunity which no school system can afford to neglect.

Environment factors—The school buildings, such as they are, must usually be used. Taxpayers are not willing to appropriate sums for new structures as rapidly as the newer knowledge of school architecture comes into being.

Much can be done to use more effectively the apparently inadequate school buildings, whether the one-room type, the small town school with a few rooms or the large city building, though the latter when antiquated is the most difficult to adjust to present needs.

Ventilation—According to the report of the New York Ventilation Commission, good ventilation is a matter of low temperature (not higher than 68° F.); air in motion, with a moderate degree of humidity.

The findings place satisfactory ventilation within reach of all teachers, except perhaps those in buildings having mechanical ventilation. Here it is necessary to depend upon the intelligence, good humor and conscientiousness of the school janitor. This official plays a very important part in the school health program and should be taken into consideration in planning any program to improve, through the school, the health of children.

Limitation of time does not permit a discussion of this subject but you will find *The Janitor and the School Child*, a publication of the School Health Bureau of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, offers much helpful information.

Ventilation and Health by Wood and Hendriksen, is also a mine of practical suggestions.

The reading of the thermometer hourly in each class is becoming usual but all too often is a perfunctory task. The most effective means of creating a sense of the desirability of fresh air is to accustom children to living in the fresh air. The habit once acquired cannot be easily lost.

In one school system where pupils record temperature hourly, large figures are placed on the board. This is not a small neat record for the principal's files, but numbers the entire class can easily see; red being used when the temperature rises above 68°.

The community consciousness as to the importance of cool air in class rooms can be aroused by this simple device; the children carry home the message about "our class record today, etc." When a sufficient number of children have become accustomed to a low temperature and air in mo-

tion as their daily ration at school they will have an effect upon the habits of adults at home. Thus another piece of the cornerstone of health will be laid, cleanliness.

As to the condition in which the school building is kept we must return to the janitor.

Not only is he responsible for the air the children breathe (at least in large mechanically ventilated schools), but also for the state of cleanliness which prevails.

Inadequate janitor service, old splintery floors and desks fastened to the floor, with soot and dust pouring in from the streets, make cleanliness of school buildings a great problem; but the results obtained by the application of good housekeeping methods, under the supervision of a committee of mothers, accomplish the impossible. A folder recently issued by Cleanliness Institute, "Good Housekeeping in Schools," contains helpful suggestions.

A survey by the older children of the conditions of their own classrooms and later by the whole building, arouses interest in caring for existing facilities and also furnishes a background for improving conditions through the creating of public opinion.

Children intelligently aware of undesirable conditions in their schools are excellent publicity agents.

Modern lavatories, washing facilities and drinking fountains are expensive affairs, but we recognize their importance. While striving toward the securing of the best models let us look into the possibility of better use of those existing.

A place for children to wash their hands under pleasant circumstances is essential if the handwashing process which all teachers urge is to be frequently practiced, but the tin basin on a bench with liquid soap made by boiling down remnants of old soap, with paper towels, offers an example of handwashing equipment which may be satisfactory to the children at least and assists in establishing the habit of handwashing.

The wash basins in connection with basement toilets are not usually clean or pleasant and pleasurable association helps tremendously to form this essential habit.

Clean hands are desirable. They are pleasant and they help to prevent disease spreading. Let's establish in all schools satisfactory conditions under which children can wash their hands frequently, especially before eating.

Running water, hot and cold, soap and towels (all situated not too far away from the classroom) are essential for the process. We can look toward the day when at least every two classrooms will have these facilities provided. Then, and only then, can we expect children to establish this habit during school days.

The cornerstone of the Nation's health will have been laid when all children have a desire for health and the knowledge of how to obtain it.

This time will come when all the health factors in the school are co-ordinated and a health atmosphere is created.

Health can be made as contagious as disease!

The whole world is looking to America to show them the way and each effective school health program which is developed influences countless thousands of children in other lands.

To succeed in making health our first objective in education a thorough success all forces must work together—the department of health and the department of education, the administration of the program being directed by one person agreeable to both departments.

In large cities there is usually found a director of medical inspection, a director of nursing, a director of homemaking or cookery, and a director of health education. All of these may exist and yet the program fail because coordination of the various activities is lacking.

The time has come to create programs using all of the available facilities. The school of today offers a great medium, unequalled in the history of the world, for the establishment of a race of healthy human beings.

CITIZENSHIP IN THE MAKING

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We learn by doing—and the only way one can become a good citizen is to practice being a good citizen. If youth is to learn citizenship and develop ethical character, then it must be by practice of the qualities of honesty, fair dealing, consideration for rights of others, unselfishness, co-operation, and industry. These qualities are made possible by regular studies and by what we are pleased to call extracurriculum activities. The development of character is a matter of growth day by day in all the situations of life.

The making of the citizen commences when this untrained bit of humanity enters the kindergarten, or the lowest elementary grade. Little by little there must be implanted in this child's mind new ideas. He must understand at once that above his fancies there exists certain fixed standards that must mold his life; that the Golden Rule and due regard for others are still dominating this world; that authority is to be respected primarily as a principle, not because of the personality of those presenting it.

Through games, nursery rhymes, and simple stories, the child gets a background of experience which lays the foundation for the more formal work which follows later.

The time has long since gone when training in the three R's is sufficient to make our citizen of today able to meet the living conditions. We have radio sermons for church worship, Sunday auto trips for the Sunday School classes, movies for home entertainment, mother's and father's joint contribution to the budget as compared with father's supporting the family, no longer the large home, where the family can entertain, but a hole-in-the-

wall apartment which drives the future citizens away from home for amusement. These are a few of the changes that we find in society today. In the school we must keep pace with the changing civilization. The curriculum of our public schools is built around the social studies, in order to bring out the most desirable traits that a citizen must possess.

I visited a history class in the fifth grade. The pupils had been reading about King Arthur. They had read all the stories they could find about King Arthur and his knights. They were eager to take part in a discussion which brought out traits such as bravery, loyalty, and courtesy.

They were then asked to give instances in which traits of loyalty and bravery were demonstrated in the stories. "When do you think Lancelot showed bravery?" This was then put in the form of a written composition, but not before the words were given as a spelling lesson.

One child made a drawing to illustrate his composition. This brought about a discussion which finally led to this conclusion—that the best way the stories of King Arthur and his knights could be illustrated was to have a movie. The class then spent the next two weeks in designing the costumes of the time and the construction work of the play. The curtains for the stage were made by the girls; the boys worked out the ways and means of making the pictures to go into the moving picture story.

These boys and girls found zestful social living under the wise guidance of this teacher. They had training in the three R's, also history, drawing and construction work, and in addition they had the illustration and inculcation of traits of citizenship such as Honesty, Courtesy, Selfcontrol, Obedience, Loyalty, Kindness, Trustworthiness, and Patriotism.

In Norfolk this year, we tried to find out how elementary schools may function in moral and civic training. We decided first, to determine the desirable traits to be taught in elementary schools; second to find out how character education represented by these traits may become an integral part of the school program; third, how these character traits may be checked; fourth, how these desirable citizenship traits may be measured.

Lists of character traits were obtained from four sources: Parents, teachers, elementary school faculties, and elementary school pupils. The parents gave a list of 150 traits, teachers 118, elementary school faculties 94 traits, and elementary school pupils 124 traits. These four lists were then combined giving each of the thirty most popular traits in each group. This list will be used in developing this study. Committees from the kindergarten to the seventh grade are at work. The members of these groups are busy experimenting with their classes. They hope to be able to present some of the best methods for making this combined list of traits a more vital and integral part of the program of school life. McCall, quoting Thorndike in his "How to Measure in Education" sets up for his first thesis, "What exists—at all, exists in some amount." Measuring of character is a difficult problem, but we hope to get a better system for measuring character traits as these citizens continue in their school life.

No longer do we say "world out of school," but "world in school." The pupils of today are experiencing most of the forms of the social order; they select their leaders, and have intense activity within the group. The school trains not only the child's mind but his social habits as well; it instills ideas of honesty, fair dealing, and it trains leaders. As Aristotle says "They who are to be the judges must be the performers." The pupils are trained to choose their leaders. These leaders must be able to think straight, to distinguish between right and wrong, and to act promptly for the right. A leader must be able to serve his companions whenever and wherever he has an opportunity. In this practice of working together, pupils come to realize that leaders must be supported if they expect to accomplish anything worth while. They learn to cooperate with others for the common good and to place service above self. These activities help boys and girls make the necessary adjustment, so that they can live peaceably with other members of the social group.

The curriculums of the high schools are also built around the social studies. For example:

In history we have the opportunity to instill the ideals of honor, love of country, truthfulness, and loyalty. We must make our history a living thing. Historical characters must seem real. The lives of such characters as George Washington, Robert E. Lee, and Abraham Lincoln set up a definite and potent reaction in the mind of the child.

We attempt to inculcate within this child a love of honor and truth, and a hatred for dishonor and falsehood. There has been no time in the history of the nation when there was more need for honest men, men who will fearlessly stand for the truth, men who will practice honesty, and live up to the best standards of life. I know this year in selecting the cast for a play we had one part a rather despicable villain. The boy who was offered the part said, "I don't like to be that kind of man." You see he had the right kind of ideals for a man. He said, "However, I will be a good scout and take it." Thus he puts cooperation above his personal feeling.

In all schools we find a desire to organize clubs. Americans love to organize. Of course these clubs have varied objectives and diversity of membership, but results are the same. Our government is based on certain underlying principles, and interest arises in organization. Now comes a need for rules and regulations which leads to a study of parliamentary law. A constitution is necessary; a detailed study of our national constitution and probably of the constitutions of other student organizations follows. Officers to be elected must be competent. The president must appoint his committees intelligently if desired results are to be accomplished. Each member must do his part willingly and promptly or the proposed project will fail, and thus the necessity for cooperation becomes a recognized fact. Every time an election is held the democratic principle of the rule of the majority is demonstrated. Intelligent voting is necessary or disaster comes. Is this not true in our own national affairs?

The highest duty of a citizen is not voting but helping to make the public opinion which controls government. The ballot is important chiefly insofar as it expresses intelligent opinion. It devolves upon the graduates of our high schools, colleges, and professional schools to mold this public opinion. It is the educational element in the community that must lead in public thought. There never has been a time before in our own history or in the history of the world when the safety of society depends so directly on intelligent public opinion.

Frequently young club members find in themselves unsuspected abilities which when properly encouraged give poise and selfconfidence that will be of value through life. Will not the realization of the necessity of law and order, cooperation, submission to the will by the majority, and loyalty to fundamental principles function as these new citizens take up the business of the nation?

Through all the grades the teacher is molding the thoughts and habits of those under his care. When the high-school stage is reached, the impression of the most high ideals can be carried most rapidly to the desired end, as this is the susceptible age. They want to know the reason of things—why such an economic policy is allowed; why some men are put into office. It is to the everlasting, “why” and “what” of these minds that a sane answer must be given. The teacher must not side step; but with great care and keen vision, present lofty ideals that influence these boys and girls to become the ideal citizen of today. We as teachers must live up to what we teach. No teacher is fit to train these future citizens who does not personify the highest type of citizen.

We realize the truth of Bismarck's statement made in the '70's: “Whatever you wish to appear in the life of a nation you must put into the school.” Germany put militarism into her schools, and the world is reaping the harvest of desolation and devastation. If our boys and girls are to become citizens of a democracy—that form of government where the governed are the governors—the school must give opportunity to learn citizenship in the school by permitting the pupils to assume and discharge its responsibilities under guidance. You cannot teach social science without having laboratory practice any more than you can any other science. Leadership, selfcontrol, poise, service, and group responsibility cannot be developed by the lecture method any more than swimming can be learned by correspondence. Everyone knows that our youth must have guidance in student or co-operative government, in athletics, in the club, and social affairs.

The teacher who guides the youth must be able to devise methods so that each pupil may participate in the life of the school. He must inspire the pupil to want to practice being a good citizen until lofty ideals, habits, and right attitudes toward citizenship responsibilities become the real aim of the life of the next generation of adult citizens. The customs, traditions, ideals, and habits of a people are the results of having lived them.

TRAINING FOR EFFICIENT AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP THROUGH THE JUNIOR RED CROSS

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Our problem tonight is consideration of the making of good American citizens—what the result is that we seek, how this result may be attained, the procedures employed, the materials used, and the agencies at work in the development of one hundred percent American citizens. Not only are we interested to set forth and emphasize those qualities, attitudes, and general equipment which definitely characterize a good citizen, but especially to stress the educational forces and socializing agencies which are peculiarly helpful and deeply concerned in producing efficient American citizens.

My particular concern is to indicate how the American Junior Red Cross has related itself to the training of citizens and to show what contributions it has made toward the end of developing good American citizenship understanding and practice. I shall seek simply to recall to your minds the efforts made and the work done by you, the American public school teachers and leaders, during the past ten years, through using the Junior Red Cross program to assist in educating and socializing the school children for whose welfare you have worked.

In approaching our problem we should be conscious of three fundamental changes which have been and still are taking place in American thought and procedure. Each of these changes, together with its effects is vitally related to the task of developing good American citizens. It is basically important briefly to indicate these changes.

In the first place, since the American colonies declared and won their independence, our ideas of the good democratic citizen have been growing and changing. In the early days of the Republic, the good American citizen was deeply devoted to a belief in freedom, equality, and democracy, all realized in a union under such adequate law as would insure such safety and order as would promote the general welfare and preserve the liberties which had been won. The citizen that we are called upon to produce, is devoted also to these earlier ideals, but he is broader, more liberal in his point of view, and more international in his interests and concerns than were his forebears. Through the Monroe Doctrine, the Emancipation Proclamation, and the declarations and experiences of the Great War, breadth, liberality and a growing international mindedness have become characteristic of the fundamentally educated American citizen. So certain of the virtues and values of democracy is the true citizen, that he is anxious to extend the rights and privileges of democracy to all the peoples of the world. The accomplishment of that result was an actuating purpose with the United States in entering the great World War.

In the second place, the educator's idea of how fundamental, useful learning takes place has changed greatly in recent years. The schools formerly believed and practiced that education was accomplished by mastering the

content of the textbooks in use, whether there was any known need for what was acquired or not. Progressive educators now generally believe and practice that learning is to make possible the doing of something important. So, important and meaningful things needing to be done are discovered by children and teachers. Under the responsibility for completing an undertaking, or of discharging a responsibility, pupils, guided by artistic teachers, determine the information and habits they need to acquire in order to do what they have set themselves to accomplish. This defining of their tasks guides them in determining just what they need and provides the requisite motive for mastering what seems necessary.

In the third place, and resulting in part from the effects of the second change just noted, the educator's ideas of the materials which are important for mastery in the process of education have changed greatly. The content that is now recommended and stressed for mastery is socialized. It is useful. It functions in living and in the doing of life's duties. The effort to provide such a content for use in the work of the public schools, explains the extensive program in curriculum revision which has been in progress during the last fifteen years. This program has eliminated great quantities of useless, functionless material. It has likewise added rich materials needed in realizing the great ends of public education.

These changes in our conceptions of the good American citizen, of how one learns, and of what it is important to learn, are vital and basic in relation to the problem of educating for citizenship. Within the last decade, during which the Junior Red Cross was born and has been at work as an educative agency, these changing concepts have exerted a deep and far reaching influence upon public education. It is due to modifications in educational procedures which these changing conceptions have affected that the schools have been able to use the Junior Red Cross program to aid them in doing their work. In the older type of school, where the procedure is more formal and the problems attacked and the work done are dictated by the textbooks in use, the Junior Red Cross program is less apt to be used effectively. Its program is suited to the development of the broader type of American citizen who learns in order to do and in the process of doing, and who selects for mastery that information and those habits which he expects to use in doing that for which he has become responsible.

The Junior Red Cross was born of a need. Until it was organized, there was no way provided to do certain things that needed to be done. Under the influence of leading educators and social engineers, the public schools and the American Red Cross became the parents of the Junior Red Cross. It is their child. Its aims and purposes are those of the public schools and the American Red Cross. The Junior Red Cross came as an addition to the school to aid it in broadening and doing its work.

It is both fundamentally interesting and significant that the children in the schools were at work and organizing themselves before the Junior Red Cross was established. It came into existence to provide machinery to enable them to work effectively, and with the immediate objective of enabling

them to learn and serve as citizens. That President Wilson clearly saw this is shown in his September, 1917, letter of proclamation to the school children, where he said:

The American Red Cross has prepared a junior membership with school activities in which every pupil in the United States can find a chance to serve our country. The school is the natural center of your life. Through it you can best work in the great cause of freedom to which we have all pledged ourselves. And best of all, more perfectly than through any other of your school lessons, you will learn by doing those kind things under your teacher's direction to be the future good citizens of this great country which we all love.

Since the war the Junior Red Cross has been thought of definitely and chiefly, as a citizenship training agency, as will become evident to any one who studies and uses its program intelligently. This is seen also in discussions by many educators and in the statements of those officials who were responsible for continuing and developing the Junior Red Cross as an intimate ally and assistant to the public schools in pursuing their great objectives.

Dr. Farrand, who was the head of the American Red Cross at the close of the War, saw clearly its value in promoting citizenship training, for he said:

If this machine can be so treated as to make a real contribution of service to the American people, to American democracy, to American citizenship—then it should be conserved to them.

The thing that is needed is not merely a perpetuation of the Junior Red Cross * * * but the training and breeding of sound American citizenship—citizenship inspired by the true, fundamental ideals of sound democracy. * * * The whole fabric of our American democracy rests on the school. Nothing must be done by any organization that does not fit in with, and is not welcomed by the educational authorities. * * * What it must be is simply a toll at hand, wisely directed, working with the educational equipment of the country, to produce certain results.

"One of the greatest things that can be produced in the child is the habit of service—the object of doing something for somebody besides himself. * * * He has been started right during the War, and, if we can perpetuate that thing, if we can show him that by being of service * * * he is expressing what is, after all, the fundamental emblem of democracy, and * * * that, to be a citizen of a democracy carries with it not merely a benefit but a responsibility of service, * * * we are doing the best possible thing to breed sound, faithful citizenship.

Arthur D. Dunn, my immediate predecessor as director of the American Junior Red Cross, also said:

The Junior Red Cross conceives its first duty to be that of furthering a high type of American citizenship. It has, therefore, asked that it be allowed to lend its assistance in reaching the children of our elementary and high schools with a program of civic activity and instruction. In thus offering its assistance to the school authorities the Junior Red Cross has no thought of imposing upon the schools a new program of its own, but proposes merely to lend its facilities in support of principles of civic training which are already widely recognized, by the schools themselves, and which they are endeavoring to inculcate, sometimes with inadequate facilities.

In the following sentences Mr. Dunn emphasized that the good citizenship for which the Junior Red Cross stands is thoroughly American and much broader than mere Good Samaritanism:

Even the enterprise of earning a living, in which selfinterest occupies a prominent place, means earning the services of others by the performance of service for them. It is this broad conception of service, of exchange of services, of teamwork in service for the common good, as the basis of normal community life and of efficient democracy, that lies at the foundation of good citizenship.

If the major work of the Junior Red Cross is training for citizenship, how does it go about making this contribution, and what has it done? As you well know, it develops a program of action, of doing, of achievement, into which the children enter with joy and inspiration. The annual calendar, which is the course of study in outline, of the Junior Red Cross, provides a program of doing in terms of "Suggested Activities." In the process of the performance of duties, the meaning of service and citizenship is expressed, and fundamental citizenship training is secured by the pupils of the schools. The Junior Red Cross program is essentially one of action, not one of merely reading and reporting. It entails taking on and carrying out obligations with such learning as is necessary to successful doing. Thus through doing and discharging duties, does the Junior Red Cross program promote citizenship development. As William H. Kilpatrick has so effectively pointed out:

Pupils learn their citizenship through living their citizenship. If our pupils will, under proper guidance, assume active responsibility for citizenship enterprises of varied kinds, we can reasonably hope for the increase in knowledge, insight, sensitivity, ideals, attitudes, and habits necessary to make up education in and for citizenship. Being learned thus in actual living connections, they will be applied, more likely, when they may later be called for in life. In this way may we expect our pupils to learn citizenship by living citizenship.

There are three aspects to the complete education of a good citizen—one is a good citizen in his home community, in the nation where he lives, and internationally. The Junior Red Cross, in its triple program, seeks to develop a good citizen in this three-fold aspect. It provides, definitely, for enabling each pupil to participate in doing needed and important things in the community where he lives, in the nation where he is a citizen, and in the great family of nations. In the process of carrying these responsibilities, requisite learning takes place.

What training for the practice of good citizenship at home, does the pupil receive through his membership in the Junior Red Cross, and through participation in its program of activities, as a learner? You know well the program set up in your schools for training your pupils in the understanding and practice of good citizenship. Provision is made whereby your pupils enter democratically and cooperatively into the doing of those things that enable them to live helpfully together. They counsel about the school's standards of conduct and achievement and find ways to improve them. They consider the cleanliness and neatness of the school plant, and assist in bettering them. They take an interest in the immediate

school community and try to aid its order and attractiveness. They interest themselves in community and state movements for improving the safety of the lives of the people, and for increasing the security of property. All of these types of effort obtain in progressive schools where there is no Junior Red Cross effort and program assisting in the education of the pupils.

If there is a Junior Red Cross in the school, its supports all of the interests and citizenship training opportunities which the school offered without it, but it opens, also, new lines of interest and concern. If there is need for production work, classes in sewing, manual training and other lines of work participate in helping to meet the need. Last year the schools of one large city made over 10,000 garments and 27 layettes from materials furnished by the Junior Red Cross. They also supplied 37 knitted articles for city institutions, and 325 children's garments for a foreign hospital. Seven hundred and fourteen miscellaneous gifts of various sorts were distributed to needy children. The ex-service men were likewise remembered by this same chapter, 2800 Christmas stockings being filled, while 25 Christmas trees were supplied to veterans hospitals. Many other types of remembrance were also sent. This same city sent to veterans in hospitals, 777 articles such as smoking stands, checker boards, ash trays, table lamps, and the like. Favors in quantity were made and sent; 1000 Shamrock bows, and over 1000 placecards were made. Another city sent almost 1600 Easter favors. Another made 12,000 Christmas menu cards for use of the boys in the naval service. So well pleased were they with this remembrance that next year the Navy has asked for 40,000 to 50,000 similar cards. Work of this sort is done by every school system where the Junior Red Cross is well organized.

The values of the Junior Red Cross in providing fundamental citizenship training are greatly increased when the work is so conducted that the children participate in laying out their program of activities and in selecting, from time to time, those things to do which make a strong appeal to them. In many of the best managed communities, the Junior Red Cross Council does very efficient work from this standpoint.

In Utica, New York, for illustration, they saw the need of knowing more accurately than they did, their city and its needs, in terms of the types of work which the Junior Red Cross does. Accordingly they decided to make a survey, using an appropriate questionnaire for each institution investigated. The result was that a total of thirty-three Juniors, representing nineteen schools, made a survey of fifteen institutions in the city. When they had finished they had a result on which to build future programs of action.

Every Junior Red Cross should have the needs which it tries to meet, budgeted in detail, so that its service may be well balanced and evenly distributed. The work done by the Utica Junior Council was the basis of a similar procedure in Syracuse. In both cities the Junior Red Cross Council carried the responsibility. In other communities similar pieces

of work have been done, the Junior Red Cross Council functioning in large ways.

All types of Junior Red Cross responsibility are usually assumed by the children, with great seriousness and with a large understanding of the meaning of what they are doing. Each child in an Indian school indicated what he would do in the way of service in order to earn his Red Cross button. One of the boys whose surname, significantly, was "Pipe-stem," announced that he would quit using tobacco. The third grade children of a school organized for Junior Red Cross work, adopted a Constitution. In one of their meetings the President of the group gave a talk about being good American citizens. She urged that each member should teach any one who did not know, how to read and write. On another occasion the same President gave a talk about February celebrations, and in the course of her remarks urged the importance of being quiet when passing or playing about any house where there might be illness.

All of the work that the Junior Red Cross does in its local program is usually much appreciated by those who benefit thereby. The Chicago Junior Red Cross has the custom of giving a monthly Saturday afternoon entertainment for the benefit of the patients in the Government Hospital at North Chicago. After one of these entertainments the Director of the Red Cross Service sent the following note of appreciation:

We hope the students realize how much happiness they are bringing when they put on an entertainment for us and what a joy it is to look forward to these monthly events.

The number of corresponding expressions could be endlessly extended. I attended a meeting of the New York City Junior Red Cross Executive Committee just after the Juniors had gladdened the hearts and brought good cheer to the various hospital inmates of that city. In the meeting many letters of appreciation, expressing gratitude and thankfulness were read.

Through the activities that are undertaken and executed in carrying out successfully the responsibilities they assume, pupils are continually using and exercising those abilities such as are manifest in the good citizen. The good citizen is thoughtful. He is altruistic and considerate. Particularly is he fair in his recognition of needs and in rendering service. Through continual experience in and exercise of good citizenship, the children are learning it for practical use. Not only do they work co-operatively themselves, but when pupils become members of the Junior Red Cross they also become members of an organization, the American National Red Cross, to which their parents and other adults belong, and participate with them in work of great public importance. Through thinking and carrying responsibilities they thus learn how the thoughtful, responsible citizens of a community care for and promote its welfare.

What training for the understanding and practice of good citizenship within the nation does Junior Red Cross membership and participation

in its work, afford? The Junior Red Cross, as you know, provides many opportunities not otherwise available for pupils to consider and participate in large national undertakings. As a result of the stimulus which the Junior Red Cross supplies, and through using its machinery, schools in different parts of the United States write to each other. A total of forty school systems thus exchanged correspondence this year. This exchange of correspondence extends their acquaintance. They thus come to know, intimately and concretely, of the interdependence of different parts of our country. All of these types of insight increase their mastery and understanding, and likewise promote a feeling of helpfulness and goodwill, and a splendid spirit of cooperation, between the children of the different sections of our country.

Not only do the children in the American public schools write to each other, but white children are paired with children of the Indian schools in correspondence and in the exchange of other school products. During this year there were ninety-five pairings of American schools with Indian schools. Among the exchanges, aside from the correspondence, were such as the following: A beautiful Navajo rug was made for a junior high school, which reciprocated with a five-tube radio set. Another American school sent a fine set of Compton's Encyclopædia, and the Indian school reciprocated with Indian designs, stories, petrified wood, and an Indian rug. The American juniors have placed a number of libraries in Indian schools, as a result of these pairings. Through the National Children's Fund, supported by the American Junior Red Cross membership, teachers of blanket and rug weaving, basketry, and pottery making, are employed. In this way their arts, which are fast disappearing, are being preserved in the schools attended by Indian children.

The American juniors, likewise, participate in affording needed help and relief in times of disaster. Some of their outstanding experiences in this type of citizenship effort were fully set forth in an extended article in the *Ohio Teacher* for May, 1928. Using funds contributed by the children, the American Junior Red Cross arranged for gifts of small libraries for schools in the flooded areas of Arkansas, Louisiana, and Mississippi. One hundred and thirty libraries were supplied to Arkansas schools; 44 were furnished to Mississippi schools, and 40 to Louisiana schools. Each library was carefully selected, each book was supplied with a junior bookplate, and each offering was accompanied by a greeting. The responses from the pupils benefiting from these libraries, were heartening indeed. In corresponding ways the children in other stricken areas, such as Florida and Vermont, were remembered by the American juniors. In all of these, and in many other ways which there is not time to detail, do the children throughout the United States become acquainted, enter into cooperative national relations, and render helpful service to each other. Through citizenship experiences of this sort are pupils receiving training for participating nationally as good citizens.

The American juniors are also trained to think nationally, as citizens, through participating in the Annual National Convention of the American Red Cross. Fifty-three high-school delegates participated in this meeting in October, 1927. Large numbers are planning to attend and take part in the next annual meeting. Their contacts and efforts in this National Conference, working along side of mature delegates brought training of a valuable sort for participating nationally as citizens, in matters of great importance.

Alice Russell, the delegate from the Curtis High School of New York, said, in reporting to her school on the values of the National Convention:

If I have remembered and digested a small part of all that I experienced in Washington, my knowledge of the good and beautiful things in life has been increased one hundred fold.

Alma Gage, a junior delegate from Dayton, Ohio, wrote in the December issue of *High School Service*:

It wasn't the beautiful memorials and monuments that I saw, and it wasn't the historical places which I visited that made me feel as I did. It was something deeper, more impressive and gripping, something that made one have a longing to serve and a feeling that he was being needed, which affected me, and, I venture to say, every other delegate.

As Miss Gage implies, the deepest human interest clusters about efforts to render service to some one needing it. Meeting such needs has given heart, soul and deep purpose to all pupil activities growing out of aiding the Junior Red Cross to do its work.

Membership in a national organization, such as the American Red Cross, involving thinking and participating on a national scale, is within itself, valuable training for citizenship nationally. Such experiences supplement and extend greatly the training provided through the study of geography, history, civics, and the songs and literature of our country.

The most unique and distinct citizenship training provided by the Junior Red Cross is afforded through its international program of activities and responsibilities. Fine, adequate training for citizenship, although somewhat more limited without the Junior Red Cross program, is provided locally and nationally by the public schools. Without the Junior Red Cross machinery and relationships, however, certain types of training, invaluable for international understanding, friendship, and world citizenship, would be practically impossible. It is here that the Junior Red Cross program of international relations is unique and of inestimable value.

The various types of international undertakings, together with their effects in training for world citizenship, will be briefly noted. Four types of undertakings are outstanding. The first of these is the giving of needed help of all sorts. Since the war, through the National Children's Fund, the American juniors have spent more than a million dollars in aiding and encouraging the children of other nations who were in need. This aid has not been given patronizingly but cooperatively, through pro-

viding help to encourage the doing of important work that was in contemplation, or in process of being done. Just following the war the needs were great and widespread, and it was necessary to select with much care those things which could be financed. The undertakings requiring money have been gradually reduced until this year there was budgeted from the National Children's Fund only \$25,000 to be spent outside of the United States. Of this amount, \$20,000 went in support of the Albanian Vocational School, which has thus far been financed and developed by this fund, with particular reference to the type of education most needed by Albanian youth.

The permanent result of giving such help became evident during the great floods of 1927, in Mississippi, Vermont, and elsewhere. Letters of deep sympathy came to the children of America in diaster zones from the children of other nations with whom they were in correspondence. Contributions of money were likewise sent. The Polish children sent a contribution of \$1900. Children of a Russian refugee school sent a check for \$5, which they were able to give by doing without their breakfasts of bread and tea for several days.

Not only have the children of the American Junior Red Cross given actual help that was needed, but they have interested themselves to send good cheer to the four corners of the earth. Since the war, annually at Christmas time, approximately 100,000 Christmas cartons have been sent to the children of other lands, carrying greetings, such as our children enjoy sending. That these remembrances came from the hearts of American children, and were responded to with deep feeling by those to whom they were sent, will become evident to anyone who reads the letters of appreciation exchanged by the participants. These letters from Estonian children are very expressive and impress one with their naturalness:

I thank you Southern children! As the sun when it shines brightly, thus warms and gladdens us, also the presents. I wept happy tears when I got them. It was winter yet, and the sunshine did not warm, but the feeling was as if spring had come. The heart beat fast and rejoiced.

Many thanks for the Christmas present you sent us. It made me and my little sister so very happy. She also would love to thank you personally but she cannot as she is only four years old.

Many additional letters might be quoted from numerous communications which have been received at National Headquarters. Out of this exchange of presents and from other relationships, it seems that it may literally become true that "the children of the nations may be allied; and peace may be born of their union."

A third type of international contact is through international school correspondence. Through this activity the eleven million children enrolled in the Junior Red Cross organizations of forty-eight nations, are writing to each other. You know the nature of the content of these correspondence portfolios. Not only are friendly letters transmitted, but a wide variety of materials of high educative value are exchanged. Various

topics are written upon, with the result of bringing intimacy, concreteness and clearness of understanding to the children who are the recipients of the letters. The wide variety of materials and ideals exchanged by the boys and girls of the schools of the world, through international school correspondence, is proving of inestimable value in supplementing textbook materials, and establishing sympathetic understanding. The values of this correspondence extend far beyond the giving of correct information. It fosters sympathetic understanding and appreciation. It tends to break down long established prejudices. It tends to cultivate international friendship. No textbook can give the intimate, human touch that these letters give. The Junior Red Cross provides the plan and the mechanism of international association and exchange. It also provides the stimulating appeal and adequate social motive.

That the children see deep meaning and significance in the possible ultimate effects of the correspondence that is taking place between them, is frequently borne out by their letters, as the following quotations plainly show:

From a Canadian school to Dubuque, Iowa:

We feel we already know you and we surely love you though we are separated hundreds of miles geographically, yet through our Junior Red Cross we are very close in our warm friendship.

From the Stone Arabia School to a Junior Red Cross Secretary:

I hope we don't have any more war because we are getting friends with the ones across the ocean. The juniors of Stone Arabia think there will never be another war because the Juniors of America are writing letters to other countries. Then when we grow big we will not go and fight our own friends.

From a school in Poland to Mitchell, South Dakota:

Don't forget about us and preserve also in your hearts a little spark of true feeling for our beloved fatherland which owes in a great measure its restoration to the intervention of your great statesmen.

The ties of friendship united us since a long time, confirmed by the blood of Poles shed on your battlefields. Let the union of blood strengthen the alliance of hearts and make it more solid and splendid.

From a Japanese school to an American school:

We understand that you, the members of the American Junior Red Cross, pay special attention to the development of your sound bodies, and that you strive for the betterment of human relations. To your manly attitude toward life, we pay our profound respect.

We, therefore, should like to shake hands with you, and fully cooperate with you in your attempt to bring about world peace. We are determined to carry out our program of the Junior Red Cross on the other side of the ocean.

From a Polish school to Minot, North Dakota:

We wish to spin further this golden thread of love, that is written so gloriously on the pages of history; and which teaches us that 'the brotherhood of nations' is not a fiction. We wish to build further a bridge of common understanding and mutual friendship, in spite of the ocean, in spite of the distance that separates us.

Mrs. Gladys B. Potter, County Superintendent of Schools, San Bernardino, California, feels that international school correspondence has

been a real boon, especially to the small school. The schools of her county have corresponded with Canada, Bulgaria, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Germany, Hungary, Greece, Switzerland, South America, Spain, Austria, Albania, Hawaii, and South Africa. Many other superintendents in both counties and cities have similarly expressed themselves.

The fourth type of contact that takes place between the children of the United States and the other nations of the world that publish school magazines in the English language, consists in exchanging their school magazines. This year, 127 schools are paired in such exchanges. The value of such relations in promoting friendship, understanding and good citizenship, are too evident to require discussion.

The international infiltration of reading matter which takes place, also, between the twenty-seven Junior Red Cross National Magazines, through exchange with each other, is very great. A tabulation shows that during the period of a year, the twenty-seven magazines made 200 uses of each other. That is an average of twenty uses per publication month. Through thus quoting each other, from east to west, over eleven million children become acquainted with each other through the stories, history, customs, and songs that appear in the various issues of these magazines. The total result is inevitably a certain common fund of knowledge and some similar literary experiences.

Principal L. W. Brooks, of the Wichita, Kansas, high school, in his inaugural address at the national meeting of secondary school principals in February, 1925, said, in advocating training of pupils for international understanding:

If we implant faith and trust, cooperation, intellectual concord, mutual helpfulness, "Peace on Earth, Good Will toward Men," the American citizen will gradually evolve into a higher one, while militarism, greed, and distrust will give way to the loftier things of the spirit.

Following Principal Brooks, Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, of the World Federation of Education Associations, speaking on the opportunities of the high school to train for American citizenship, said:

Citizenship today must be broader than nationalism. There must be an international consciousness, an international heart, and a world mind. This "world mind" is largely an attitude, or habit of thinking in large units, and a habit of regarding the nations as cooperating parts in the great whole. It is learning to measure other people by their own standards, and getting their points of view. It is recognition of those great virtues, attitudes, traditions and ideals which constitute national character.

The Junior Red Cross, in training for world citizenship, seeks to give to the children and youth of all nations a body of usable knowledge, and to foster in them attitudes and habits that will promote living together internationally, as well as in nations and in smaller groups. If public education, through using the Junior Red Cross international machinery, can promote the development of a world consciousness and a world point of view, and right ideals of thinking and working internationally, it will have accomplished what is now so fundamentally needed in America.

As Dr. Thomas said, citizenship today must be broader than nationalism. Yes, this is an international world, with an international organization for sustaining relationships and transacting business. The call in America is to relate ourselves without anxiety or uneasiness to the rest of the world. Loyalty to America doesn't necessarily mean that there may be no higher interests than loyalty to the nation. We can understand that loyalty to the family, the community and the state, is normally harmonious with loyalty to the nation. As a people we must come to understand that it is not disloyalty to our nation to recognize the internationality of the world. It is not disloyalty to the nation to try to understand the other nation's point of view, and to attempt to do the thing that is right for both, rather than merely to stand narrowly for the rights of one's own. How frankly the children appreciate each other is shown in this letter from Parma, Italy, to a school in Knoxville, Tennessee; they are very fair and justly praise each other:

Our love has lifted the frontiers of the fatherland and has extended itself to all humanity.

How beautiful is your state: How many lovely things you get at Tennessee! We, too, are proud of our country. Italy is but a small peninsula; however, it is glorious and beautiful.

May I emphasize, in closing, that the great effectiveness of the Junior Red Cross lies in the fact that it belongs to the children; that behind them stand the ideals of public education and the traditions and ideals of unselfish service of the Red Cross. The children work together cooperatively, in undertaking various humanitarian tasks and find in their work an appeal to latent spiritual forces which leads them to higher levels of character, and to greater citizenship understanding and practice.

Sir Philip Gibbs well said:

The front door of any little school which has membership in the Junior Red Cross opens to the wide world, and the spirit of the school is directly in touch with the children of many countries.

This, in brief outline, fellow teachers, is the type of influence the Junior Red Cross exercises in helping to train the pupils of the public schools for citizenship. We have seen that it trains for the three-fold expression of citizenship, locally, nationally and internationally. This is the Junior Red Cross which, after the war, was saved to the schools through the leadership of educators, was extended to forty-seven other nations by the values which the public school teachers of the United States showed it possessed, and was guided and influenced in the details of its development by the able leadership of its Director, Arthur W. Dunn. It is not a method of education, nor does it offer a heavy educational program, but, as has been well said, it is "a great free spirit that quickens the life of the school" wherever it is operating. Its influence in developing good citizens, i. e., "thoroughly effective and serviceable members of society," as John Dewey defines the good citizen, is deep, far reaching and fundamental.

Through working in the American Junior Red Cross, the children receive a broader and more humanitarian citizenship point of view and training than would be possible without it. The truest and most humanitarian citizenship and the most lasting happiness come from rendering distinterested service, such as the children have manifold opportunity to extend through the Junior Red Cross. Their work is great, for they are servants of all; yes, "a little child shall lead them."

WORLD CITIZENSHIP

WALTER R. SIDERS, FIELD REPRESENTATIVE OF THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

I have understood that in these later days there is a stereotyped form of making a speech; that you should first indulge in a bit of facetiousness which is more or less venerable, that you should next comment on what a wonderful world this is, then upon the great age in which we live, then what a wonderful people we are, and having gotten that far along, you are ready for a discussion of the White Man's Burden.

But I am going to entitle it "The White Man's Privilege." Constituting as we do over fifty-five percent of the population of the world, leading, as the Caucasian undoubtedly does, the world, it is not a duty so much as an inestimable privilege to bring all the peoples of the earth into one great world unity, that the dream of the poet may be realized—of a parliament of man and a federation of the world.

Citizenship in its essential elements means equality before the law. It is not necessary that we have the same stage of civilization. It is not necessary that we have the same degree of culture. The citizens of a town are of varying degrees of culture and of different nationalities and of different occupations. There are all kinds of peoples in the towns making up the state, and in the various states making up the nation. Similarly we can have a world community made up of various races and peoples. They can be coherent in a common interest and in a common protection. We can be a federation of states in which there are citizen states, or there can be a superstate of which all will be citizens.

I suppose every one of you has a vision of how this world is shrinking and shrinking, growing smaller, smaller, and still smaller. In our lifetime we have seen it shrink amazingly. The rapidity of travel! I get on a train. I go to sleep. The next morning I am there. I step into the airplane and in a few hours I am there.

Take the Atlantic—formerly an ocean, now a lake. It used to take months to cross the Atlantic Ocean, now the flying machine has made it a lake.

I saw a sign in Boston, "Anthracite coal from Wales at the same price as Pennsylvania anthracite. More heat and less ash." I do not know of the merits of Wales anthracite. I cite the example to show how cheap Atlantic transportation is.

The world is shrinking. It was the night before last that a friend of mine desired to communicate with his father who was on a ship going

from Cape Town, Africa, to Europe. He talked with his father by sending a cable to the Canary Islands, they put it on the radio and picked up the ship, and father had from his son, "Best wishes and many happy returns of the day. We are all well." Six dollars and thirty cents, from Minneapolis, Minnesota, to hunt up father on the trackless ocean and wish him many happy returns of the day and to tell him all are well.

The world is shrinking. We communicate everywhere in the world. We communicate with our trains. Haven't you ridden along on the train with a radio telling you everything that is going on? We communicate with our friend on the ship in the ocean. We talk with the airplanes in the air and they go chattering all the way across the Pacific Lake telling us what kind of weather there is and that everything is going fine and how the machine is working.

The other evening I heard music in the air. I looked up. There was a muffled airplane with a radio and a loud speaker casting down music to the ground. Voices came out of the air. Music came out of the air.

The world becomes smaller. Space is almost a negligible factor. Everything is becoming so bound into a community of interest that we are perforce compelled to look forward to the time in the very near future when world citizenship will be forced upon us from commercial reasons, and from reasons of communication. Nations that have lived in isolation are approaching the age when they will have no more privacy than a gold fish.

Because we approach a world citizenship, I should like to ask a few questions to determine if we are becoming internationally minded, and what is necessary that we may become such.

Suppose we consider first of all the legal phase of the question. In our Declaration of Independence we wrote down our belief in certain inalienable rights among which were life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Are we willing to grant to all people life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness? Are we willing to grant to all peoples religious freedom, freedom of speech, freedom of the press? Are we willing to grant to all people the right peacefully to assemble? You will recognize that I am on the bill of rights which protects our liberties. Are we willing to grant the right of selfdefense to all peoples, to the Igorot, to the Hottentot, to the Bushman, and to the people lowest in scale of civilization? Are we willing to grant to all peoples security of person, house, and home, that there shall be no trial for capital crime other than an indictment by jury? And so on. Without going farther into this because they are well known to you, are you willing to extend to other people the same things that we enjoy?

Take the Kellogg proposals to end war, which are going to fifteen nations. The French reservation is in effect that if one nation wages an aggressive war, that releases all. Then each one has the right of defensive war. All have defensive rights. If anyone becomes an aggressor, all are released from the compact. An aggressive war has been defined as one in which one party is wrong. A defensive war is one in which

one party is right. The necessary war is one in which both parties are right. A civil war is one in which our side is right. However, we hope for the success, of these Kellogg proposals because they undoubtedly move in the right direction.

We call ourselves a Christian nation. Whatever that may mean as a nation, it must mean that the good morals and ethics that are good for individuals are excellent things in a nation and that the standards thought of as good for individuals must have universal application.

So I put the nation in place of person and I find: "What does the Lord require of a nation? But to do justly and to love mercy, and to walk 'humbly with God.'" "Thou shalt love thy neighboring nation as thyself." Mexico, for example.

If you don't take that standard and if you say, "O God, bless us and our nation, our flag, and no other nation. Prosper us and plague those who do not agree with us," then you are setting up a standard that I don't find in Christian principles.

We can have international friendship without local disloyalty. Note the Golden Rule. As Christ gave it, "Do unto other nations what you would have them do unto you," and as Confucious said it, "Do not do unto other nations what you do not want them to do to you."

Note a few of the Ten Commandments: "Thou shalt not bear false witness against other peoples." "Thou shalt not covet thy neighboring nation's oil wells, nor his natural advantages, nor his industries, nor his place in the sun, nor anything that is thy neighbor's." As a nation "Thou shalt not steal any of these things."

Notice how Christ states that difficulties shall be settled:

"Moreover if thy brother shall trespass against thee, go and tell him his fault between thee and him alone: if he shall hear thee, thou hast gained thy brother."

"But if he will not hear thee, then take with thee one or two more, that in the mouth of two or three witnesses every word may be established.

"And if he shall neglect to hear them, tell it unto the church; but if he neglect to hear the church, let him be unto thee as a heathen man and a publican."

Every effort is to be made for reconciliation before there is any condemnation.

As adapted to relations between nations, we may say:

"If thy brother nation hath trespassed against thee, go to him for reconciliation and if he will not be reconciled, go to him with witnesses, and if he will not then be reconciled, let him be unto thee"—finally and lastly, after every reasonable effort has been exhausted—"even as heathen and publican," and not considered without attempts at reconciliations.

That is what the Bible teaches. It also says: "Thou shalt not kill"—neither wholesale nor retail.

Every nation formerly had its god and protector deity. In the Bible we read, "The Lord, *our* God." Every nation had a patron god, and this

the designation of the God recognized by the Jews as supreme. Now, one Supreme God is recognized throughout the world, but we still have Him interpreted nationally and He is supposed to be on our side. We claim a monopoly on God. Each nation claims His power and protection to its own interest. We must recognize that He is the God of all people and has the welfare of all peoples in mind.

World citizenship would require an agreement on what is true. Bacon in one of his essays wrote, "What is truth? Jestling Pilate said, and paused not for an answer." We haven't time to call for an answer either, but we do know that we must have the truth in history. We must have the truth in law. We must have the truth in equity. We must have it in morals. We must have it in religion. It is time to abandon high sounding national phrases and get down to fundamental facts. One fundamental fact (I haven't time for more) is this: That a democracy is a place where I feel equal to anybody else but where I often fail to recognize that everybody else is equal to me.

We must do away with suspicion and distrust. There is a story that all the animals in the world at one time gathered together for a Peace Day, and in the forenoon had a big parade. They put the elephant as the largest animal at the head, then the hippopotamus, the giraffe, grading down to the smallest.

The fox kept jumping out of line, jerking, twisting, looking over his shoulder, and jumping this way and that way. They said, "What's the matter with you?"

The fox said, "It's that hound behind me."

They said, "But this is Peace Day; don't you know that? He is not going to bother you."

"Yes, but I am not sure that hound knows it is Peace Day."

We should despise no people, for "God has written one line of His thought on each people."—Guiseppe Mazzini. There should be universal appreciation of the national genius of each people, and an unqualified recognition of their contributions or possible contributions to civilization. There are hidden resources for civilization in the neglected nations of the earth. There should be universal education for all.

Education enlightens the world. Educational associations are important agencies in furthering civilization.

There is now a world education organization, the World Federation of Education Associations, with over half of the teachers of the world in its membership, devoted to the cause of uplifting all peoples through education and world citizenship. This Federation is at work, and international friendship is its ideal, and we hope to have the cooperation and the support of all teachers and peoples in carrying on this mighty educational, social, character training, and spiritual work.

America is the common denominator of all the nations and we better than any other people should be able to understand other people.

I listened to Sousa's Band. Every man sat in his place playing his own instrument, orderly and obedient in his place. No one said, "Oh, let me play my horn now," or, "I would like to be the first for a while, I have been second or third for a long time," or, "I would like to pound that bass drum a while."

But every man had his place and played his part right on time, and as Sousa stood up there and motioned to them what to do, they did it and they did it perfectly, in perfect accord; and I thought, "Oh, what a splendid illustration of unity and accord."

Away back on the stage was one of those steel triangles. A man was standing beside it and not doing anything, and I thought, "What an insignificant position that man has, what an insignificant instrument and how terribly discouraged he must be." Just then the orchestra commenced to get faster and faster and the volume of sound louder and louder, up and down the scale, faster and louder, until it just seemed as though everything was running away and everything was about to burst and unless something happened pretty soon everything certainly was going to smash—the whole world and the whole creation. Just when we got to the point where we couldn't stand it any longer, this man with the steel triangle picked it up and struck, "Whang!" It required some discordant sound. We couldn't go any higher. We couldn't go any further. We had to have what Wagner has called the divine discord to satisfy us, to bring us down.

I want to close with this thought. I think every nation in the world can play its part in producing this world harmony, and even though it might fall to me or it might fall to my nation to stand back and do nothing, but at the very apex of sound, at the very climax of the production to hit the steel triangle, yet it might be the note that would complete and satisfy the whole harmony of the situation.

ELIMINATING ILLITERACY AND MAKING NEW CITIZENS FOR CHINA¹

Y. C. JAMES YEN, DIRECTOR GENERAL OF THE CHINESE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE MASS EDUCATION MOVEMENT

It is a great privilege to be asked to speak this evening. But it seems quite presumptuous on my part to speak on a subject like education to such a distinguished body of educators. There must be at least ten thousand present tonight. I feel, as we say in China, much like "exhibiting classics before Confucius"!

The mission of the Chinese Mass Education Movement is not only to teach the unlettered masses of China to read, but also to train them for modern citizenship. Hence the Chinese slogan of the Movement, "Ts'u Wen Maung, Tso Shim Min," which may be rendered into English as "Eliminate Illiteracy and Make New Citizens for China." Within the twenty-five minutes at my disposal I am afraid I shall have to confine myself

¹ A verbatim stenographic record.

to the first stage of work of the movement, namely, the elimination of illiteracy, its activities and its results so far achieved.

The Chinese Mass Education Movement was originated in a rather unique and unexpected way. During the World War when the "Allies" needed laborers to dig trenches, manufacture ammunitions, etc., they came to China and recruited approximately 200,000 Chinese laborers from the provinces of Chili and Shantung. There were about 100,000 working with the British Army and about 50,000 working with the French and the American Armies respectively. As laborers they did a very creditable piece of work which was universally appreciated by the Allied armies. You may be interested to know that quite a few of them were even decorated because of their bravery during the war. And a larger number of them laid down their lives and "did their bit," as we used to say, for the Allied cause.

While attending Yale I was asked whether I would not be willing to go over to France to help these Chinese laborers. I said I would. So two days after my graduation at Yale I left for France. I was first put in charge of about 5000 laborers in Boulogne, northern France. Living day and night with these laborers I came to know them in a way that I never could before. Intelligent and industrious as they were, most of them were uneducated and unschooled. They were unable to read or write even their own language. They were very homesick, but they couldn't write letters to their home folks. They were very eager to know what was going on in the war, but they were unable to read the newspapers. Being utterly incapable of either speaking or reading the French language, or the English—or for that matter the American—they were quite miserable and had, in general, a very bad time.

Seeing the situation as I did, I decided that the most essential thing that I should do for these laborers was to give them the fundamentals of Chinese language education. So right there in the labor camp I began my first Chinese class of forty laborers. There was no textbook, so I had to write it. There was no other man available to teach, so I had to teach. After about half a year I found, to my great surprise, these laborers, ranging from twenty to fifty years of age, not only eager but able to learn. They were soon able to write simple letters to their folks in China. Later, I published a small paper in very simple language, containing news about their home districts and the war. When the other laborers in the camps found out that those who had attended my class had the extra advantage of learning about China and the war, I didn't have great difficulty in enrolling more laborers. The work went on so well that I was later asked to go to Paris to take charge of the educational work for our 200,000 laborers. We realized a good deal of success, so much so that I was urged to start a newspaper for them entitled the "Chinese Laborers' Weekly," published in "Pai Hua," the simple, plain language of the people. It was much appreciated by the men.

One day I received a very touching letter from one of the laborers who had learned to read in France. It ran somewhat as follows:

MR. YEN, BIG TEACHER:

Ever since the publication of your paper, I began to know about everything under heaven. (That is the Chinese way of putting it!) But your paper is so cheap. It costs only one centime a copy. Maybe you have to close down your work very soon. So I enclose herewith 150 francs which I have saved during my last three years of labor in France.

Friends, that was the greatest revelation of my life. Over there in the labor camps, I learned something of fundamental importance which I could never learn in a Chinese university or an American university. I realized as I never did or could before, the dire need of education of my fellow countrymen and at the same time their tremendous possibilities! We of the "student class" despised them and called them "coolies," or "lower classes." Belonging to a family of generations of Confucian scholars, I never associated with the laborers before the War. But there in France I had the privilege of associating with them daily and came to know them intimately. I found out that these men were just as good as I and had just as much to them as I. The only difference between them and myself was that I had had opportunity and they didn't.

So right there and then I made the resolution that upon my return to China I was going to give my life to the education and enlightenment of the millions and millions of my fellow countrymen who have been denied a normal opportunity of schooling. Yes, we have many, many millions of our people who do not even read or write our own language. It's embarrassing, but it's true! Illiteracy, like poverty, we think it no disgrace to acknowledge but a degradation not to make efforts to overcome.

I have been often asked by my American friends why it is that in a highly civilized nation like China, which gave the world the art of printing and papermaking and had a Minister of Education more than 2000 B. C., there should be such a large percentage of its people who are unlettered and incapable of reading their own language. Yes, it does seem strange, but there are reasons for it. Among others, I only have time to mention two here. In the first place, as you know, China has been a monarchy for many centuries and under a monarchy education for the entire people was not considered either necessary or desirable. (In fact the idea of giving an entire people education is a comparatively recent one in any country!) Furthermore, the Chinese emperors of the dynasties had deliberately discouraged people's education. They wanted to practice what we call in Chinese the "Ignorance Policy" and they succeeded very well. The "Burning of the Books" by the First Emperor of the Chin Dynasty is a glaring example of this.

Another reason for the prevailing illiteracy among the Chinese people is the Chinese language itself. For centuries the only recognized literary medium in China had been the classical language, or the "Wen-Li." To learn this classical language with any degree of proficiency means practically a lifetime of study and this, as you will see, automatically ruled out

the great masses of the people, such as the farmers and laborers who occupy eighty percent of our entire population and who had to engage themselves with the earning of a living, the winning of a "rice-bowl."

Fortunately for mass education there is another language in China, the "Pai-Hua." "Pai" means plain, or simple, and "Hua" means language. In other words, it is the plain, simple language of the people. I am glad to say that some of the best novels we have in our country were written not in the difficult classical language just mentioned, but in Pai-Hua. Thanks to the noble efforts of the leaders of the "New Tide" movement, Pai-Hua has gained the standing or the prestige of a written language. It is most encouraging to see the large number of Pai-Hua publications that have sprung up during recent years in China in the form of newspapers, magazines, novels, and even school textbooks. It is unquestionably going to be the national language of the new China.

It is this language, the Pai-Hua, that the mass education movement wants to make the illiterate masses of China literate in. But the problem is how we can do that with the great masses of the people who are either too poor to pay for their education or too busy to attend schools. So it is quite clear that unless we could further simplify the Pai-Hua so that it could be mastered at a minimum of cost within a minimum of time, it would be still beyond the reach of the masses of China. The first thing we did to facilitate the learning of Pai-Hua is this. We collected more than two hundred different kinds of literature and publications in Pai-Hua, including novels, stories, magazines, accounting books, official proclamations, etc., and counted the characters or words in each book or publication. Each character is given so many points, according to its frequency of appearance. Altogether we had taken more than four years of statistical study, having covered more than 1,600,000 Chinese characters. As a result of this rather elaborate, cumbersome study, we were able to determine the minimum essentials of the Pai-Hua vocabulary that every Chinese man, woman and child must know. From a total Chinese vocabulary of over 40,000 characters we have reduced to a "foundational vocabulary" of 1300 characters.

Based upon these 1300 characters, four readers entitled, "People's Thousand Character Readers," were prepared. Each reader consists of twenty-four lessons. A busy farmer or a busy laborer has only to spend one hour a day in the classroom to learn one lesson, six hours in the week and six lessons in the week, and on Sunday he does not have to work! In four weeks, by spending one hour a day in the classroom, he completes one reader which comprises more than 300 of the most fundamental characters of Pai-Hua. So within ninety-six hours of classroom work the average man completes the entire course of the 1300 characters contained in the four readers, and the ideas and ideals which these characters are capable of expressing and conveying. As to the cost, each reader costs the fabulous sum of three cents! So in all four months which constitute the full terms of the elementary mass education schooling, all that it costs the poor farmer or laborer is the price of four books, or twelve cents in all! Upon

the completion of these readers in the "People's Schools," the average man is able to write business letters, keep accounts and read Pai-Hua newspapers intelligently.

After this first "educational tool" was worked out, our next problem was how to put it within the reach of the masses. It was clearly understood at the outset that in promoting mass education of this kind no spasmodic or individual attempt alone would be of much avail. Organized and cooperative efforts in the form of a city-wide mass education campaign (so far as the cities are concerned) are essential. Such a campaign aims at enlisting as many volunteer workers as possible and coordinating all the forces available in any given community. Each local committee or association, as the case may be, is entirely responsible for the finance, staff, and equipment of the campaign of its locality.

The place chosen for the first education campaign was Changsha, in the Province of Hunan, central China, and that was in March, 1922. Let me mention very briefly a few of the salient features of the campaign.

1. *Organization*—Under the leadership of the local Y. M. C. A., a Mass Education Committee consisting of leading business men, editors, guild leaders, officials, pastors, teachers, and students, was organized. Out of this general committee, five subcommittees on finance, recruiting teachers, recruiting pupils, securing school building, and publicity were respectively appointed to set up the campaign.

2. *Publicity*—The Committee used 1500 posters picturing China's problem of illiteracy and the need for education; 600 official proclamations issued by the magistrate exhorting all citizens old and young to avail themselves of the opportunity to learn; 10,000 leaflets giving information concerning the "People's Schools"; daily newspaper material. In order to arouse the interest of the unlettered public, over 5000 people, including business men, students (both men and women), gentry, scholars, and artisans, carrying large banners and lanterns participated in the parade.

3. *Recruiting*—Fifty-two teams of high-school boys and girls and college students were organized and sent out to canvass the fifty-two districts from home to home and shop to shop. We were told by the local people that we would not be able to recruit more than one hundred students. But in two afternoons the recruiting teams enroled over 1400 illiterates. The youngest of those enroled was ten and the oldest fifty-six years of age. The great majority, however, were of the adolescent age. Eighty teachers, including gentry, business people, and faculty members of the schools, were enlisted. These teachers received no salary. They taught for the regular school term of four months on an average of one hour each week day.

4. *School buildings*—Fifty buildings were secured in all sections of the city. Primary schools, churches, guild halls, temples, club houses, private residences, police stations, yamens, Y. M. C. A.'s, and Y. W. C. A.'s were all utilized.

5. *The commencement*—Out of the 1400 students first enroled, 1200 stuck to the last and had the courage to come for the final examination which was supervised by the governor of the province, and 967 passed the

examination successfully. They celebrated a big commencement, the biggest in the history of that great province. The governor gave the commencement speech and distributed the diplomas for "Literate Citizens" to 967 students. These proud students had a big parade through the city with their diplomas in their hands. That aroused citywide interest. By the way, the diplomas they received were very much larger and prettier than the sheepskin I received from Yale.

That was just an experiment, friends. That was the beginning of a campaign to wipe out illiteracy from China. The old scholars who insisted on teaching the classical language, who opposed us and attacked us in the newspapers, now came to our support. They said, "Now we must educate all the illiterate people in this province and put this work on a more permanent basis by organizing a Mass Education Association for the province." They did. Friends, up to 1925, before the Communists got in there, we had 150,000 students in that province alone.

We passed on to another part of China. As China is a continent in itself, we couldn't say that because we realized certain measure of success in one province, our methods and principles would be equally successful all over China. That would be very sweeping, very unscientific indeed! We went to North China for our second campaign in Shantung, the home province of our great sage, Confucius.

To make a long story short, I would just say that we had more experience and we realized greater results. All schools and shops were closed. To have a boycott strike? No! They wanted to celebrate the big mass education day for wiping out illiteracy in their province. We had 1400 graduates this time and I am proud to say that as many as four hundred included women and girls!

A good many of the classical highbrows were still so benighted that they could not see the fundamental importance of the work and openly poured contempt upon it. So when the time came for the graduation ceremony the local committee felt that a notable personage ought to be secured to give the commencement speech in order to give dignity to the occasion. Madame Hsiung Hsi-Ling, wife of the ex-premier, one of the three elder statesmen of China, was the happy choice. I had the privilege of escorting her all the way from Peking. She came and delivered the commencement speech and gave out the diplomas. However, while she was distributing the diplomas, she broke down. She couldn't do any more. After the commencement she came to me and said, "Mr. Yen, you know I have attended many graduation exercises, but I never witnessed one like this one today. In the first place I never saw 1400 students graduate at the same time before having both men and women. (We don't as yet in China have graduates by the thousands as they do at Columbia or Yale.) As these graduates walked up twelve at a time to receive their diplomas, I noticed on one side you would see an old man fifty or sixty years of age and on the other, you would see a little boy of about twelve. I never saw that before. Another thing that impressed me profoundly was that among the graduates one sees boys seventeen and eighteen years old all dressed up in Chinese

fashion, and others barefooted and in rags. You know, Mr. Yen, I have been interested in all kinds of organizations—I am President of the National Women's Red Cross and also President of the National Women's League—but I am going to resign from them all. From now on I am going to devote my life to the work of the Mass Education Movement." Friends, ever since August 1, 1923, Madame Hsi-Ling has been a great leader and staunch supporter of the Mass Education Movement in China.

Then we went to East China. Then we went to South China. We conducted experiments all over China. The concrete results of these experiments made such a stir all over China that the leading educators began to visit the places where we were making these experiments. They were inspired and enthused. They realized that in order to promote Mass Education work systematically and on a nation-wide scale, the formation of a central organization was urgently needed. So a National Convention on Mass Education was called in Tsing Hua College, Peking, August, 1923. In this representative gathering from twenty provinces the National Association of the Mass Education Movement was organized with an executive board of nine directors and a national board of directors composed of two representatives from each province. Mme. Hsiung Hsi-Ling was elected unanimously the chairman of the board and concurrently of the National Association.

I am glad to say that the president of your great National Education Association in this country is a woman and over there in our country the chairman of our national board of the Mass Education Movement is also a woman.

Since the inauguration of the National Association, thirty-two city self-supporting Mass Education Associations have sprung up in strategic centers like Wuchang, Changsha, Anking, Nanchang, Nanking, Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Hangchow, Canton, Chengtu, Kirin, and Harbin.

Through lack of means and personnel, we haven't been able to find out accurately the total number of students enrolled in our urban and rural "People's Schools," but basing on the sales of our books, the Movement has today—to be very conservative—between four and five million students studying in all parts of China. Friends, that has been done in all these years of flood, famine, and war, and that would not have been possible if it were not for two important reasons. The first reason, I may say, is the tremendous eagerness on the part of the people to get an education. There is, as you know, the traditional respect for learning in our country. Education has been for centuries confined only to the scholarly few. It is true that education in China had been for centuries open to all, without discrimination, from the "coolie" to the prince (there is no such thing as caste in China, as there is in India and other countries), but it was never possible for all. Since through the "People's School," education is made possible for the people, they just seize the opportunity. There is no government compulsion whatsoever forcing them to attend our schools. They can come and go as they please; but they come by the hundreds of thousands; and in spite of their terrific economic pressure and keen struggle for a living,

we have, as I said a moment ago, several million students, men and women, boys and girls, studying in our "People's Schools" throughout the country.

The other reason is that modern, educated men of today have come to realize as they never did before, that in order to uplift China and in order that she may take her rightful place among the nations, her masses must be educated. No nation rises higher than its masses. Our sages have taught us over 3000 years ago that "the people are the foundation of the nation; if the foundation is firm then the nation enjoys tranquility." So the educated men and women of China today have volunteered and are volunteering by the thousands to teach in our "People's Schools" in the cities and villages *without pay*.

Friends, the entire nation is receiving an intellectual shock. It is, as I see it, a true Renaissance, not merely of a few of the intellectuals, but of the entire people. It is the beginning of a new life for the masses and the dawn of a new civilization in the East.

As a result of almost ten years of promotion and experimentation, we have awakened our nation to the importance and urgency of educating unlettered and illiterate millions; and now all of a sudden, as it were, we come to the painful realization that our real task of educating the people is just beginning. The Chinese Mass Education Movement is confronted today with a number of very fundamental and pressing problems. May I be permitted to cite very briefly a few of them?

Take, for instance, the problem of supervision. Thousands of "People's Schools" have sprung up in all parts of China. China is larger in territory than the entire continent of Europe, but without the modern facilities of transportation of Europe. How can the Movement give adequate supervision to all these schools throughout the land? Then there is the question of training. Our Movement has been invited by North and South China to train Mass Education leaders for their respective provinces. While we could afford to send leaders to South China to help the Nationalist in organizing the mass education work in the province of Kiangsu, which we did last February and for which an appropriation of two million dollars was made, we had no more men on the national staff to send to Suiyuan, Inner Mongolia, which also urged us to help. Our problem today is not so much promotion as supervision and training.

Then there is the problem of literature for the people. The Movement is teaching several million people to read now and will teach many more millions. The question is, what are they going to read? What a tremendous challenge, and yet what a golden opportunity! Hitherto, as I said before, almost anything done in writing worthwhile at all, had been written in the classical language, and consequently, one may almost say, there is no reading material or literature available for the ever-increasing reading public. We have, in other words, to create a *new literature* for the masses of China.

Practically eighty percent of our people live on the farm. The most pertinent and important question is, while we are educating these farmers, how can we make our education count in their every-day life? How can

we make education effective and practical for them? It is chiefly for this reason that our Movement decided over three years ago to select a special "Hsien" (district) in North China for intensive study and experimentation in order to apply modern agricultural science to Chinese conditions, in order to "humanize" agricultural science so that even the poor and small farmers of China could reap the benefits of modern science. (I am sorry I have no time to tell about this phase of our work tonight, but hope I may have the opportunity of doing so at some other time.)

Then there is the question of citizenship education. The Chinese people have had a political history of nearly 4000 years and are facing today a new world with new political ideas and institutions. It is true that the villages of China have been very democratic and selfgoverning for centuries; in fact, some Western writers call them "Village Republics." The family and clan may be efficient organs of local government, but they are so strictly local that they do not incite their members to look beyond the village limit. The central objective of our educational efforts in this field of modern citizenship training is the extension of the noble moral practices prevailing in the clan and family unit and of the fine political institutions which have been for centuries operating in the "village republic" to the larger units of the community and the state. In order that China may be able to cope with the demands, external as well as internal, made upon a modern democracy, the horizon of her village folk who represent approximately eighty-five percent of the entire population must be broadened and their spheres of interests, mentally speaking, must be extended. The ultimate great objective of the Chinese Mass Education Movement is not merely to make an illiterate artisan a "reader of books" or even a primitive peasant a scientific farmer, but, above all, make him an intelligent and progressive citizen of the Chinese Republic. Hence the second part of the slogan of our Movement: "Make New Citizens."

Of the four traditional "classes" of our Chinese society, the farmer has certainly got the best "stuff" with which to make a great citizen. What he needs is an opportunity; opportunity for development and expression. The story of the regeneration of Denmark by the farmers under the influence of the Danish folk high schools is an outstanding and convincing proof of the tremendous possibilities and capacities of these humble toilers of the soil. Given a chance for education and enlightenment (as was given the Danish farmers by the folk high-school movement), there is nothing on earth that can stop the Chinese farmer doing for China what the Danish farmer did for Denmark.

These are some of the problems facing the Movement today. It is quite clear that unless we have men of high caliber and special training, and a large number of them, we will never be able to handle them. I am very happy to say that the Movement, though terribly under-staffed, is drawing men of great ability and scholarship. We have now on our national staff three former presidents of national universities who have resigned their presidencies in order to cast their lot with the Mass Education Movement. They have joined us at a great sacrifice, but they consider it a great

privilege and opportunity to do so. They feel that they have not joined an educational institution merely, but a great Crusade. Mass education to them is their one great life-purpose—nay, their religion. They are resolved to struggle on through thick or thin, war or peace, to carry out the great objective of our Movement, namely, educating China's unlettered millions for citizenship.

We have heard tonight about world citizenship and world peace. Now the question is, how are we going to bring that about? It seems to me that there are one or two things that we as educators could do to help. First of all, I may say on the negative side, what we as educators and teachers can do is to teach our young to hate international sin as well as national sin, international injustice as well as national injustice; whether it is committed by other countries or by one's own country. The attitude of "my country right or wrong" should be discarded. Another thing we can do in a positive way is to teach our young to appreciate the civilization and culture of other peoples. One of the great failings of many of our educational institutions, as well as that of the writers of history, is that we just glorify our own country and frequently at the expense of other countries. I may add here that I have seen textbooks entitled, "History of the World" with China absolutely left out! We fail to see the great things, the great culture of other people. That is one of the reasons why we think so much of ourselves and so little of others, and that breeds jingoistic and chauvinistic spirit among the people. If the West could boast of men like Lincoln, Bismarck, Napoleon and Shakespeare, the East can certainly say that it has given birth to such great leaders as Buddha, Confucius, and Jesus.

The world is growing smaller each day. Space does not count as it once did. The peoples of different nations are thrown together more than ever before, and this makes it imperative that we should know more about each other and appreciate each other's culture more. One of the reasons why we Chinese students have such great admiration for your great country is because we know something about your Lincoln and Washington. I dare say that our school boys know more about your Lincoln and Washington than your school boys know about Confucius or Mencius.

After four thousand years of educational history and experience, we Chinese have developed an almost exaggerated sense of the importance of education. We believe in the omnipotence of education. We believe as educators we can make or unmake nations. It is my earnest hope that we who are engaged in the sacred calling of education in the two great Republics, one on each side of the Pacific, will exert our influence to create a new mentality on the part of our youths, and to uphold and apply the great ideal of World Brotherhood which is embodied in the Christian teaching, "God has made of one blood all nations," and is beautifully expressed by our sage, Confucius, "Under Heaven there is but one family."

*ADDRESS BEFORE THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION
IN SESSION AT MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA,
JULY 4, 1928*

SIMEON D. FESS, UNITED STATES SENATOR FROM OHIO

Very few invitations have reached me in the last five years that were more acceptable and which I desired to accept than the one that came inviting me to come to Minneapolis. It came at a time when pressure was upon me and a good deal of uncertainty as to the immediate future, and the only thing I could do was to say I would come if conditions would permit.

The day itself appeals to me tremendously. The occasion of the teachers of the nation in convention no less appeals to me. This wonderful section of our wonderful country, the Twin Cities, appeals to me also. I was not aware that I was to have the pleasure of an introduction by my warm personal friend and a distinguished member of the House with whom I have collaborated, he being on the Interstate Commerce Committee of the House, I on the Interstate Commerce Committee of the Senate, we together collaborating upon legislation that is of national interest to the transportation of the nation. I was not aware that I was to meet him here. I want to express my appreciation of his words.

Last night reaching this city sometime after midnight, which according to my time was after one o'clock, I was so gratified on the one hand and depressed on the other in having the honor to be met by a distinguished group of American educators. No higher in rank in any profession can be found in any country at any time than the committee that came to the train. I have them on either side of me and some of them in the audience. Consequently, if I do not say something that is worthwhile here, I shall feel greatly humiliated.

I wonder how you were impressed with that splendid reading of this greatest of human charters or charter of human liberty that has ever been given by a people to a people in the history of the world. So few of us are familiar with that document. We are so busy in the every day work of life that we do not take time to estimate properly or interpret these two wonderful documents, the Declaration of Independence on the one hand and the Constitution of the United States on the other.

I wonder how many of you have your minds refreshed upon the background of this instrument that was read here today.

In the days when Rome was at her height, one tenth of the population were known as patricians. Nine tenths or the mass of the people were plebeians. All power was given to the former; no privilege was permitted to the latter. Government was a matter of privilege limited to the few.

In the days when Greece was in her palmiest era, one tenth of the population exercised power, nine tenths were mere slaves. One of the paradoxes of history is that in the academic groves where were gathered the Aristotles and Platos in the dissemination of philosophy, it was mostly

done by slaves and not by persons who had any participation in government, whatever.

In the days of the feudal system, or what we might speak of as the Middle Ages, about a fraction, or a tenth of the people, were feudatory, holding the land; all the mass beside that few were serfs, bought and sold with the land. That was a degree higher than either was known by the slaves of Greece or the Plebeians of Rome.

At the time of the revolutions in western Europe when peoples began to look for new habitation in the new world, all the population was divided into about nine tenths lacking privilege and one tenth exercising power and the participants in government.

In the new world with this background, after a considerable contest with the mother country running over more than a half century, after this seething unrest came this pronouncement written by the greatest draftsman of his day if not of any day, the most remarkable exponent of liberty in government the world has ever known in the instrument that was read in your presence.

Think of that first sentence: "We hold these truths to be selfevident; all men are created equal, endowed with certain inalienable rights—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." How would that have sounded in Greece or Rome or feudal Europe?

"To secure these rights governments are instituted among men, laying the foundation upon the principle—the right to govern must come from the consent of the governed." That is the greatest announcement in the history of civil government. What that would have produced if announced in Greece or Rome or any of the countries preceding the foundation of America!

No wonder that Henry Thomas Buckle, one of Europe's greatest historians, made the statement that the principles of the Declaration of Independence ought to be printed on the door posts of every lover of government in the world. That was an announcement of a citizen of the country against which this declaration was pronounced.

Fellow teachers, there is one item in this document that we overlooked. We must never forget that the indictment made up of the several counts was not against the people of Britain as a people, but was against a king arbitrary in his character, dogmatic as well as despotic in his administration.

If you would have read the counts that were omitted this morning, you would find that every single one, with the exception of two, begin with the personal pronoun "he," referring to George III, and the only two that refer to the British Parliament were the two that were read by the reverend gentlemen this morning where it refers to the fact that we have not been unmindful in calling attention of our brethren to so and so. So that this Declaration of Independence was a declaration against despotism in government, was a pronouncement of a principle of local selfgovernment that was here for the first time established upon these foundation principles.

That was 152 years ago. What has come about since that day? When it was first announced, it was ridiculed. No one outside of the immediate fathers had any faith in the possibility of a government by the people. Later on Lord Macaulay in his history ridiculed the idea that a population could govern itself. Even men like de Tocqueville down in the middle of the century after we had had experience for half a century, made the prediction that the American government based upon the principles of the Declaration of Independence could not be perpetuated, and he predicted that it would discontinue as a republican form of government.

Since that day America has grown apace. She today stands in numbers of population double the next largest English speaking nation of the world. She today stands as the most cosmopolitan population that can be found anywhere in the world. She today stands fundamentally upon these principles better grounded now than at the time that they were first announced. This people is ranked from the standpoint of material wealth as the most bewilderingly wealthy nation of all the dreams of all the historians of the past, with an annual income almost as large as the total wealth of the next wealthiest country on the globe, Great Britain, and with a distribution of that wealth more general than has ever been dreamed of in the history of the world, and a population with a buying power that is the bewildering fact in modern life.

Fellow teachers, I had an occasion recently to look over the financial obligations that the government has undertaken in the last few years. I have never seen anything that even approaches the ability in buying power of the American public.

Take the operations of the Treasury Department where in the beginning there was \$3,000,000,000 of obligations due at once that never had been funded. They were cared for. Victory Notes amounting to \$4,050,000,000, the last issue, to finance the World War, due the first of May, 1923, have been cared for at a lower rate of interest. The Second Liberty Loan of \$3,708,000,000 due in 1942 has been refinanced for the reason that they commanded a $4\frac{1}{4}$ percent interest when they could be easily readjusted and refunded at the rate of from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 percent at a saving of millions of dollars of interest. The last issue of last October of \$300,000,000 was refunded at the low rate of only three percent and the people were so desirous of it that they oversubscribed it nearly \$1,000,000,000. That opened the way for the refunding of the Third Liberty Loan which shall come due this October, of \$2,147,000,000. Long before October is reached that will be readjusted at a lower rate of interest at convenient maturities so that they can be met when due.

Here, fellow teachers, is an accumulation of financial obligations of this government that reaches nearly \$14,000,000,000, all of it handled in such a way that the business of the country scarcely knew it was being done.

Only on the basis of the tremendous buying power of the American public could that have been accomplished, and I mention it only as an evidence of what the nation is 152 years after the famous document promulgated

by the great Thomas Jefferson, its author. That is only one suggestion of what has been done.

Recently I was interested in pursuing the program of homes built within our midst. I find that there have been 3,500,000 homes built in the last eight years at an annual expenditure of over \$4,000,000,000, meaning that here is an expenditure of over \$30,000,000,000 in the institution of the American home.

When I go into these homes to ascertain what is found there, I note that they consume fifty percent more food than in the next greatest country of the earth, use ten times the number of telephones, use twelve times the amount of electricity, have thirty times the number of automobiles. So true it is that someone said to me not long ago that the American people have become automobile minded and the first thing we know they will all go to the poorhouse, and I stated, "If they do, four-fifths of them will drive in their own automobiles to the poorhouse."

Here are 152 years of national development, of a nation builded upon a document, announced by a great author, that was pronounced at the time as ephemeral, that couldn't be permanent, and so far as I can see has today the same meaning that it had in that day.

Let me warn you the Declaration of Independence is a pronouncement of the open door through which you are admitted. Whenever the open door to every citizen in America or to any citizen in America is closed, it is in violation of the principle of the Declaration of Independence. That is not only true industrially, economically, but it is true politically.

One of the famous statements of the great Abraham Lincoln, whose life has been one of careful study by myself, was at Philadelphia on the anniversary of the birth of Washington in 1861. It was on that occasion that out in front of Independence Hall Abraham Lincoln on his way to Washington raised over the hall an American flag, as was done this morning by my friend, the distinguished Congressman.

In the short speech on that occasion, one of the greatest Lincoln ever made, he took occasion to make this statement: "All of the political principles of which I am aware I have taken from the document adopted in this hall." That was the estimate of this great war president of the Declaration of Independence in the time of the Civil War.

So much for the attitude of our country on this instrument that we are celebrating today. What effect has it had outside of America? It is one of the favorite themes of mine as a teacher of history to trace the current of the effort to govern by selfgovernment, not only in America, but elsewhere. That current is a most interesting theme. I shall not do it at this occasion, but I only mention the fact that when the Declaration of Independence was announced, it had no confidence anywhere outside of our own fathers here. It was the subject of criticism everywhere. What do we see today?

There was a movement up to the breaking-out of the World War that was universal. That movement was away from the government of the

few and what we would call despotism, to the government of the many, what we would call popular government or democratic government, government of the many. Every nation of the earth felt that seething unrest. There wasn't a nation in Europe or America, in Asia or Africa that was an approach to a civilized nation that wasn't drifting toward a larger participation of the people in their own government. I could indicate if it were necessary, but it is not. Suffice it to say that at the time of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence there wasn't a republican form of government anywhere on the round globe, outside of the United States, not one, and today there isn't a government on this round globe that isn't seething for this form of government that we have.

Look at China. We have great sympathy for the nationalist ambitions of China. That's why America is keeping hands off with the exception of protecting American lives in China. That's the limit of our use of any authority in China.

Look at the effort in Russia. While it is doubtful whether the movement is promising there, it is the same effort that frequently disintegrates and gets into the control of the few, which we fear is the approach in Russia, but in time it will work itself out.

Look at Mexico with her perennial insurrections, but coming gradually to a recognition of the principles of constitutional government. Central America, South America, the islands of the seas. In other words, the germ of American selfgovernment through our constitutional procedure is working itself through in every people on this globe today.

When the World War came on, and its aftermath was so difficult to handle, there was a retardation, a repercussion of the old view, and you and I have been quite fearful of this reaction. Today no less than eight countries of Europe are under dictators in which the people who heretofore were in some form of authority are without authority, where they have seemingly coincided with the desire or at least with the power of exercising power without exercising popular authority.

While you and I as citizens of our own country are careful and cautious about any criticism inherently of any particular countries in their government, nevertheless we cannot close our eyes to some fear that there may be such a reaction that popular government heretofore established may be less effective. Whatever happens in Italy, whatever happens in Poland, whatever happens in Spain, whatever happens in Portugal, whatever happens in any country of Europe, the dictatorship is not the American way and it will not be resorted to nor tolerated.

On the other hand, we have read this morning that the right of the government must come from the consent of the governed. That's the large principle. That's the one that we are attempting to work out, not alone in our own country, but elsewhere. There seems to be sometimes some conflict there.

For example, there was the appearance of inconsistency in Cuba. Our good faith as an American government toward Cuba was not long in the

shadow and not very long in doubt. We threw off the shackles of a sixteenth century government from Cuba. We couldn't give her her independence immediately. We set up a government and used our influence to help her help herself. When she was able to stand on her own feet we withdrew with the consequence that Cuba today is a modern country and in a sense one of the finest examples of what can be done by a people for themselves that we have in the western world.

We are hoping to be able to do the same thing for Haiti and also for some of the Central American countries where there seems to be some conflict, but let me state as an officer of the country that it is the purpose of the American government to maintain the principle announced in the Declaration of Independence to the degree that is possible, especially to stabilize the governments that are on our border in order to enable them to prevent disorder and especially to protect American lives and property. That gives us a considerable problem because it appears to be somewhat inconsistent with the professions that we announce.

Our foreign policy today, ladies and gentlemen, is rather outstanding in our efforts for peace. Congressman Newton is one of many in the lower house, I am one of many in the upper house that are constantly receiving letters in the form of petitions begging for movements on behalf of world peace. These petitions represent the yearning of the American people to outlaw war and it is a theme that ought to appeal to the educators of the country, and I know it does.

The United States at the close of the war undertook to lead against the rivalry in arms, one of the most dangerous movements that the world had undertaken. Britain would build a dreadnaught. Germany would build a dreadnaughtier. Japan would build a dreadnaughtiest, and then they would start over again, and we saw that we were in a stage of rivalry on which there was no limit, and America with her unlimited wealth would likely get into a state of mind where we would lose our senses and build a navy bigger than all the balance of the navies of the world. We could do it if we wanted to, and that was the danger. There was an alliance between Great Britain and Japan. There were only three naval countries of the world. Ours was the third. That alliance had existed for twenty years and we asked Britain why it was that the two naval countries outside of the third were in an alliance, if it were not offensive to the United States. Why should two of the three be in an alliance unless they were afraid of what we were going to do? And we asked that it be corrected.

The reason that we did not want that situation continued was that if there should get in the minds of America the fear that some day Britain and Japan in an alliance would be against America, there would be no possibility of holding in check the militant spirit of America, and because of that we wanted it discontinued. It was discontinued through the Washington Conference.

Then we stated to these nations that with our unlimited wealth we could build a great army and we could build a great navy and we could stand it better than any other country but it wasn't our policy. We asked them if they wouldn't agree with us to limit the armament and stop this rivalry.

In the Washington Conference of three months in 1921 and 1922 we agreed right from the source without any concerted action preceding, to scrap thirty-one ships, 900,000 tonnage on the sea provided that the other two countries would follow our lead.

I shall never forget the sensation I had when I sat in the gallery of that conference and listened to the proposals of the United States Government through the Secretary of State to scrap these thirty-one ships.

Arthur Balfour, the head of the British Commission, sat close to Hughes, and when our government proposed to scrap 900,000 tonnage on the sea, Balfour stood on his feet, extended his hands in the face of the Secretary of State, and vociferously clapped the proposal. I felt very good over that because in the past every proposal for the limitation of the navy had been opposed by Great Britain, and consequently I was much pleased to notice this expression of the leader of the British Commission.

Then the Secretary of State turned to the British Commission after making his statement as to what we would do and said "Now for the British proposals," and he proposed to name the vessels that Great Britain would be required to scrap. Then I watched closely. Everybody cheered, except a few. Balfour cheered, but his hands were way down here, nobody could see them; and then the Secretary of State turned away from the British Commission and looking straight at the Japanese said, "And now for the Japanese proposals," and I sat where I could look into their faces. I wasn't farther from the Japanese representatives than I am now from the first seat here. I never saw a group of faces so impossible to interpret what was in their minds, when Phil Campbell from Kansas sitting by me exclaimed "What poker faces."

After the proposals were read the Secretary of State said, "We will adjourn this preliminary conference to such time when we may be informed as to the attitude of the other governments." Three days later we had word that the second plenary conference was called. We were there to hear the report. It was Balfour who spoke first when he said, "I am now under authority to state to the conference that the British Empire accepts the American proposals." That was limited to the navy.

Then the question was whether it could be extended to the army. Everybody thought it must be. Without waiting for Europe, we cut our army from 576,000 to 280,000, then to 150,000, and now we have got it down to 137,000, and I want to say to the teachers, although you are wonderfully peaceful, we must not go any lower. For that is merely a police force. We had hoped that Europe would be willing to follow our lead. France was in an unfortunate situation. France asked to be heard on her own part.

The third conference was held and Briand made the speech. Never in my time before or since have I realized such an effect produced on a group of people as did this speech by Briand. He spoke in French and very few, I think, understood what he said, but a friend of mine sitting to my right was so stirred by his speech that twice he was on his feet. We were in the front row of the gallery and I didn't know but what he was going to make a fool of himself. I finally pulled his coattail and said, "Phil, you must be enjoying this speech wonderfully. I didn't know you understood French."

He said, "I haven't understood a damned word he said yet but no man ever heard such a speech."

Ladies and Gentlemen, the outcome of that wonderful effort on the part of the Premier of France was to omit from the agenda the discussion of the army, and that conference was limited not only to the navy but to the capital ships of the navy.

So France couldn't see her way to follow our course in the limitation of armies. Our government has been urging from the beginning that this is the one substantial method of assuring world peace, that resolutions on behalf of outlawing war do not have very great effect when they are written in the corner of a building where ammunition is stored. For that reason the government has been insistent that we lead Europe into a better situation for peace. Some people have criticized us on the basis that we had not shown a proper attitude to the economic recovery of Europe.

Ladies and gentlemen, after the statesmen of Europe had floundered in economic unbalance for years, it was an American statesman, no less than the Secretary of State, who suggested to France a method of economic recovery if they would only agree to it. They didn't see their way clear to agree to it, and then it was dickered for nine months until a British statesman made a tour of America and appeared in this very city of Minneapolis and spoke with tremendous force in Chicago, asking the United States if we wouldn't repeat our proposal, upon which the Secretary of State again repeated the proposition, which was accepted.

After the Commission made a survey of European conditions, pointed out a basis of recovery by which France might be able to withdraw from the Ruhr Valley and with greater freedom to the formerly vanquished country, the way was opened, and today, under the direction of a Mr. Gibson, an American citizen, the situation of Europe has greatly cleared and we are hopeful that they are on the high road to permanent recovery.

On the matter of security for France, there has been a long series of struggles. France put it this way. "We are surrounded by enemies. We have no guarantee from invasion of anyone. Before we reduce our armies, we have got to have that security. That security must come through treaties of safety, and therefore the first proposal was that France would reduce her army if we would join France and Britain in a tripartite treaty of defense. Teachers as well as citizens generally know that the United

States is fearful of engaging in alliances with Europe. That proposal of 1919 failed for want of action on the part of the Senate.

Then, in 1922 a conference at Cannes was held and a treaty was agreed upon including this time Belgium and Italy, omitting the United States. That treaty was rejected by France, by the overturn of Briand through Poincare.

The next effort was the Genoa conference. For the same reason it got nowhere over the dispute as to what should be done with the Russian delegates, and it adjourned without any decision.

The next was at Geneva, known as the Geneva Protocol. Unfortunately, Japan injected the immigration question and it was rejected this time by Britain, who is quite sensitive on the immigration question with regard to Canada and Australia. You can't criticize Great Britain for her attitude because we would have taken exactly the same view. I do not wish to be offensive and certainly would not be, but the time is here, fellow teachers, when America alone must determine who shall and who shall not come to America as immigrants. That is our business. That was the position that Britain took, and for that reason it failed.

Four efforts thus far to secure treaties of security had failed. Then let it be understood that an American diplomat, a former statesman, a member of Congress, made the suggestion to Great Britain, who laid it before France: that if the proposal of a treaty of security would not be limited but extended to include all countries, even Germany to be protected as well as France, such a treaty would be acceptable.

France immediately stated that she would be very glad to have such a proposal and made it known that she would be glad if Germany would make it. Germany made the proposal. France offered four modifications which were accepted by Germany. The outcome of this is the famous Locarno Treaty with the splendid Locarno spirit. The conference lasted but a few days, and they adopted five treaties, all signed and all ratified.

This was the last obstacle, as it appeared to us, against the limitation of the armies of Europe. Our government immediately took it up to ascertain whether we could have another conference on the limitations, but the League of Nations Council desired to call the conference. The President was very glad to defer to the League Council.

The conference was called at Geneva. The United States was represented. The meeting was all last summer, a year ago. To our tremendous surprise our proposal in specific terms was first rejected by France and second by Italy. That was a disappointment to us because the conference that appeared to have cleared by the Locarno Treaty, some way or other failed.

Then, our government, desirous to make some limitation, desired the conference to take up the naval limitation and extend the work of the Washington conference to the cruisers, which had been omitted in 1921 and 1922. Upon this we differed from Britain. Britain wanted seventy cruisers; we didn't see any need of so many, yet I frankly state, friends,

that, from my standpoint, Britain would need more cruisers than we would in view of the fact that she is a far-flung empire with possessions in every quarter of the globe, while we are not so scattered. But whether Britain has any right to more cruisers than we is not the question. America has come to the conclusion that she must not be weaker on the sea than any other nation, no matter what the nation is.

So the conference failed, to our great disappointment. Then France, to lessen the hurt, came to us with her resolution to outlaw war by passing a resolution in the form of an agreement. Our government took this view: That every step that America can take that will create a sentiment against war, every step that the nation can take that will build up a conviction for peace, ought to be taken, even though it may not reach very far.

Consequently, when Briand submitted his proposal, that teachers all over the United States petitioned Congress to accept—the Senate to accept—our Secretary of State took this view, and the nation backed him: That in order to make your resolution effective, it must not be unilateral but multilateral. It must not be limited to one or two nations resolving or agreeing, but it must extend to all nations that might enter into war.

France, after weeks of consultation, decided to make an answer, accepted our view, but limited the treaty to nations that were aggressive in the world, that is, it couldn't extend to all wars but would extend only to aggressive wars. Our nation informed France that there never was a nation that entered into war and admitted it was aggressive; and in order to make the treaty effective, it must not limit it to aggressive wars but it must extend to all wars.

Ladies and gentlemen, that's the pending measure today. I think I can say on the fourth day of July, 1928, that proposal will be accepted not only by Great Britain, but every respectable government in Europe in time. We are trying to work out some of the details.

So it seems to me that one of the missions of America on the part of world peace is well understood and steps are in progress quite promising. I mention this in extenso because it is the teachers and the ministers and the people who are most concerned to avert war that have been writing me as a member of the Senate, whose function it is to act upon anything in the form of a treaty. That is one of the subjects that my friend Newton is not bothered with in the House, but we have it in the Senate because it belongs to that body, and I only apologize for taking this time before you in order to give you what I think is a reasonable prospect of what is to be done.

Ladies and gentlemen, I would not be justified in coming all the way from Washington and returning tonight if I didn't say one thing more, and that one thing is this. While material progress will always be the chief concern of legislation and of administration, the conservation of the human resources of America is of greatest value to you and to me, and to the people at large.

After the expenditure of effort and money that we are making to build a better civilization, there must be no doubt as to what shall be our attitude

on the conservation of these resources. We believe in conserving the material resources and that's the subject of legislation always. I hear that everywhere, but you don't hear so much about the conservation of the human resources. That, my friends, is the fundamental task of the self-preservation of national life.

The conservation of human resources is the principle which underlies the philosophy of the modern state today. After the expenditure of billions of dollars to make better conditions of existence, for the rearing of childhood, for the education of our youth, for noble and better living, and for the lengthening of the span of life, we must not permit the scuttling of a program of that sort through any sort of an impulse, whatever it may be, through a noisy minority who wants to exploit the mass of our population in the interests of themselves. That cannot be.

Time has come when America must sound the warning against the effort to break down the moral forces of America, no matter what be the urge or where the source. Law enforcement in the interest of order must be observed, and on no basis shall there be a weakening at the violation of law, no matter what it be.

That's the most important thing that I have said to you. That's the thing that appeals to the teachers, that appeals to the citizens. What does it mean if we win the world in wealth and lose our own soul?

On this day, the natal day of our nation, when we think of our fathers in their efforts, and relate the wonderful accomplishments of our great promoters of selfgovernment, when we think of the debt we owe to Jefferson and the debt we owe to Hamilton, to Jefferson because he was the promulgator of the principles read here this morning, Hamilton the promulgator of the principles of the Constitution that made possible putting these principles into operation in government, when we think of the fathers led by George Washington, who started the nation 150 years ago, then realize the comfort that you and I have enjoyed; what might we say of the good fortune we have to live in America today.

Ladies and gentlemen, to live in this country under the blessings of the Declaration of Independence, the guidance of the Constitution of the United States, is the greatest privilege that ever could come to any human being under the sun.

*THE OPPORTUNITY FOR THE TEACHING PROFESSION
TO LEAD IN PROMOTING BETTER UNDERSTANDING
AMONG THE NATIONS OF THE WORLD*

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, STATE COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION, AUGUSTA,
MAINE

The outstanding problem of the present generation is to provide some means whereby the nations of the world, thrown so suddenly together in one community, may become harmonious, and all together in cooperation promote the general welfare of mankind.

It was my privilege to sit in the League of Nations when Germany was admitted to that body. It was a very significant occurrence, for Germany and her old antagonist, France, had long taught the doctrine of hate to their children, that they might be successful on the battlefield when the emergency arose.

It was a wonderful thing to contemplate that in these later days France and Germany should come together and bury those old contentions and grudges and stand in a new light before the nations of the world.

I heard Dr. Stresemann, that great German statesman, in his address to the League on that occasion, and he gave utterance to this very significant statement: "The Divine Architect did not create mankind as a homogeneous whole. He created them different nationalities, gave them peculiar institutions, homes of their own, their own tongue, the sanctuary of their own soul. but he did not intend that those nations should use their supreme energies and resources in attempting to destroy each other, but that they should work together in harmony to promote the general welfare of all mankind."

And then he said in speaking of the question of loyalties, "There is no conflict between love of country and love of fellowman. He does best who develops his God given powers of mind and heart to the highest possibilities and steps over national boundaries to serve mankind."

This subject which is assigned to me this morning contemplates especially two things. First, that the teaching profession may have an opportunity to lead in this great problem, and second, there is a possibility that something can be done in producing a harmonious world.

It is necessary in the few minutes given me to go rapidly from one thing to another. I call your attention to three things in getting at this particular kind of program.

First, there must be international consciousness. This means that we must become aware of other peoples and other units of governments like our own; that God did not make the peoples of the earth a homogeneous whole, but that he divided them into races and nations. But the Divine Architect did not intend that some should be preferred before others, nor did he intend that they should spend their supreme energies and resources in vengeful contention against each other. He gave to each nation qualities and characteristics and gifts peculiar to themselves and intended that each people should contribute its gifts to the advancement of the human race in its own way. We must come to recognize that the nations are created free and equal in certain inalienable rights and that among these are the right to peacefully pursue its own advancement and to contribute to the advancement of civilization in its own way.

Second, there must be an international mindedness. This is the habit of thinking of foreign relations and the habit of dealing with other countries as free and cooperating equals in developing industry and commerce, in

spreading enlightenment and culture throughout the world and in promoting the progress of a common humanity.

Third, there must be also an international morality. There must be a world circling application of the Golden Rule. We must apply to our neighboring nations the same principles of conduct we would apply to individual persons with whom we may be associated. We must not covet what is the property of another nation; it should be as great a wrong to do another country an unprovoked wrong as to injure an individual of our own country. International morality means the application of the rules of honest dealing to international affairs just as to individuals within our own country.

Then following that, if education is to have a part, there must be an international aspect of education. This international aspect of education is merely the finding of human values which may be understood and interpreted by the minds of different types of peoples who make up the nations of the world.

And that these are human instruments, that in dealing nation with nation in the past we have commercialized international relations. The big problem in order to bring about a harmonious world is to humanize international relations. How is it to be done?

The fact that this is the great world problem today and that every mode of life is interested, is shown by the various attempts that are being made in different parts of the world. Last year we had the International Chamber of Commerce meeting at Stockholm, the International Rotary Convention at Ostend, the Pan American Congress at Havana, the Conference on Faith and Order at Lausanne, the World Federation Meeting at Toronto. We are having meetings of people between different countries and nationalities on almost every conceivable phase of life today. This shows the struggle and the desire of the people that they may solve in some manner this greatest problem which confronts the nations of the world.

The point is, what can education do? We are all familiar with our creed. All of us believe, and if we do not, then we have no excuse for remaining in the profession, that if it were possible for us to formulate a code of ideals which we would like to see embodied in the life, the character, the attitudes, the personality of the generations to come, and could we place these ideals in the hands of the 5,000,000 teachers of the world, teaching the 300,000,000 children of the world, and could they teach them as they should be taught, we could determine today the trend of civilization tomorrow. We believe so much in it that we are willing to make sacrifices and the teaching profession stands out as the leader of this great army of the young, directing it, directing its force, directing its attitudes, its consciousness; this is the task of the teaching profession.

But you say we must always deal nation with nation from the field of diplomacy. That is true. There will be no other way to give expression to the great political movements, to commerce and trade throughout the nations of the world, than through diplomacy. That is why the nations

have gotten together and have given to us the system of representation in the capitals of the world and in the great trade centers, so that the interests of countries may be cared for.

But diplomacy cannot do it alone. Diplomacy may furnish the machinery, but education must furnish the skilled operator in order that this condition may be brought about.

I want to read to you from an editorial that occurred in a local paper recently. To me much of it is a very sane expression and substantiation of this point.

"Every war in which this country has been engaged since it first set up its own government has been won in the schoolroom from ten to fifty years before the first gun was fired. Patriotic teaching in the first half of the nineteenth century saved the union when the crisis came. The old world tyranny has gone from the western hemisphere because in the three or four decades following the Civil War children in the public schools were taught that to honor the flag and to bear arms in defense of a flag were sacred obligations of American citizenship.

"Indeed, instead of sawing wood as he now is, the former Kaiser would be dictating the world policies from Potsdam had not American school teachers twenty, thirty, and forty years ago been teaching their pupils that patriotism was something to be served in deeds as well as in words."

Now, if teaching will produce the military spirit, there is no doubt but if they are taught the lessons of peace, the children today when they become men and women will know how to deal with each other. I find the teachers are struggling with this problem. They do not know exactly how to proceed. They do not know yet what materials are available, but they are struggling with it. The World Federation has become the instrument of the age for the development of this international consciousness, for the development of this international morality, and for the development of a world aspect of education. It is the instrument of means which was produced by this organization itself, the National Education Association back in 1921 by appointing a committee on international affairs, out of which grew the first conference at San Francisco, from which came the organization of the World Federation. This is an organization of the educational forces of the different countries knitted together by common interests and held together by common ideals, working out common results for civilization. Our objective must be a spirit of cooperation with other nations. Cooperation is as the sun whose genial rays coax the seeds into life, warm the earth, and bring forth the fruit and the grain. Conflict is the occasional storm that sweeps over the land and destroys but cannot give life.

This organization is for the purpose of bringing the leaders in education together on common grounds, that they may develop programs, and study the mental and moral reactions of the materials we teach in the lives of the

children. This is a phase of education which has never been undertaken by any pioneer in education.

We have been so closely connected with the old bloodthirsty days of the past, those institutions have been so thoroughly instilled into the lives and hearts of the people, that the older generation cannot get away from them. It will require a new generation with a new viewpoint.

We must find a way of developing broadmindedness, cooperation, and service, and must seek to bring about a feeling of friendship among the children of different countries. As we develop more friendships, we shall need less warships.

Let us teach the children of all lands that the horrors of war far exceed its glories, that international violence is a folly to be avoided by every honorable means, that the statesman who leads his nation upward without resort to war is a greater hero than he who plunges his country into avoidable conflict.

ADULT EDUCATION AND CITIZENSHIP

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Democracy is founded upon the idea of equalization of educational opportunity. The United States, through free public schools, has attempted to provide equal educational opportunity for all.

"Educate all of the children of all of the people" was a powerful slogan. It rallied strong leaders and capable, unselfish workers. The idealism that has permeated the public schools of our country could not fail to bring results.

Two decades ago, when William Hall Smith announced the above slogan, the general idea of education was eighth-grade attainment. Today, when we speak of public school education, secondary education is included.

Public sentiment toward the slogan, "Educate all of the children of all of the people" has taken form in compulsory school attendance laws in every state of the union. The strength of this sentiment is revealed by the enforcement or the lack of enforcement of these laws.

The building of the American public school system, composed of the elementary school, the secondary school, the state university, and teacher-training institutions, has been a monumental task; and, at every stage of the development of this system, good citizenship has been a compelling motive. We must have good citizenship if our democracy is to endure, for the race is always on between education and calamity.

A checking of our achievements in education reveals the fact that we have not reached all of the children of all of the people. The American Academy of Sciences reports that of the one and one-half million men

examined for the draft in 1917, young men from 18 to 35 years of age, 31 percent were given the Beta classification test. This test was provided for those who could not read simple English.

The simple truth is that we cannot reach all of the children of all of the people unless we also reach all of the people of all of the children. The most potent influence in the life of a child is the influence of adults who not only have control of his body but who shape his mental growth as well. The most effective, and in many cases the easiest, way to reach children is through their parents and members of their families.

Perhaps, at this point, you have in mind that we have no compulsory school attendance laws for adults, hence no assurance of their attendance at schools which might be provided for them. Let me remind you that we now have demonstrated for us all the proof, which any scientific investigators might require, that adults, if given an opportunity accompanied by the right kind of invitation (an invitation that says, "Come with us") will attend classes in very large numbers.

For evidence of this fact, ask the president of the Department of Superintendence of this great organization to tell you about his evening schools; of the opportunity he finds in them to reach those who need help, to increase the earning power of men and women who need this power, to improve family relationships, to make better citizens, and of the influence of these evening schools upon his whole public school situation.

If we were to call upon this platform the superintendents of schools of St. Louis, Los Angeles, Buffalo, Gary, Johnstown (Pa.), and others, we would find ample proof that adults are hungry for educational opportunity.

If proof is needed that people in small towns and rural communities are anxious to attend evening schools, call upon the superintendent of the state of Delaware's public schools. He will tell you of the evening schools in the southern part of his state. Ask the county superintendent of Buncombe county, North Carolina, to tell you of his evening schools for those who had been neglected. In that county, seven years ago, were 7000 white adults who were illiterate. Over 5000 of these men and women have now been taught to read and write and to function as citizens of the community. At least one-third of the group have reached the fourth grade level. The fifth grade level in public school subjects and with it the habit of reading is the aim of these community schools.

If adults do not come to your schools when you first ask them, bear in mind that they cannot be expected to be hungry for something which they have never tasted. You and your corps of teachers have the tact and the graciousness to invite, in such a manner that they will come, those in your community who need elementary and secondary educational opportunity; and, when they do come, you have teachers who, by preparation for this field of work, can hold them as "satisfied customers."

But adult education is more than this. This is merely foundation work. Adult education, in reality, means the development of life to the full. It increases human values. It says:

Grow old along with me!
The best is yet to be,
The last of life, for which the first was made:
Our times are in his hand
Who saith, "A whole I planned,
Youth shows but half; trust God: see all, nor be afraid."

I know two elderly women. They were neighbors and playmates when girls. One of them is one of the most interesting women I ever met. She is the center of an interesting circle wherever she goes. She is interesting because she is interested. She is a student and has something to contribute to almost any subject that arises in conversation. This woman is scintillating at sixty.

The other woman, although in the fifties, is old. She talks only of the experiences of her youth. She, with Byron, says over and over again:

My days are in the yellow leaf;
The flowers and fruits of love are gone;
The worm, the canker, and the grief
Are mine alone!

What a contrast!

Adult education is that formal and informal process which guides men and women in their quest for a full, satisfying life.

RURAL EDUCATION AND CITIZENSHIP

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In this decade, and particularly in the last few months of this decade, it has become increasingly apparent that our country is divided into two conflicting groups, rural and urban. Acts of indifference, misunderstanding, antagonism, and exploitation indulged in by either group are detrimental to our national life. Neither group can stand alone; their interdependence is mutual. Urban life is tied up inextricably with life in surrounding rural districts not only as consumers of food and man-power grown on farms, but also as producers of services and goods that are dispensed in rural areas. Agricultural problems are city problems; producers' problems are consumers' problems.

May I for the moment call to your attention some facts concerning the agricultural situation? Approximately one-half of the population of the United States is rural; farmers constitute our largest occupational group. Before and during the World War the farmer received not less than 20 percent of the total income of the country; today he receives

but little more than 10 percent. Of course, during the same period of time the agricultural population has declined, but not nearly so much as has the income. His wage earnings are about 70 percent of what they were in 1920, whereas the wage earnings of factory employees are slightly above what they were in 1920. Furthermore, during the general decline in the level of prices of farm products he has to sell, he has not enjoyed a corresponding decline in the level of prices of commodities he has to buy. His taxes are now $2\frac{1}{2}$ times as much as they were in 1914, while the prices of farm products have increased but $\frac{1}{3}$. American farmers since 1920, according to estimates, have suffered losses totaling 30 billion dollars.

In the face of these facts the farmer has been told that for the most part he must work out his own salvation. I wonder, have we stopped to consider that the farmer has the lowest educational advantages of any of the groups with whom he competes? As an additional handicap, the farmer as an individual still prides himself on his independence, a fact which greatly hinders him in any concerted effort for relief.

Numerous agencies and institutions are working in his behalf. The one with which we are concerned today and the one which is most fundamental, it seems to me, is the public school. It will not be necessary for me before this Association to dwell very long on the rural education situation. You are no doubt aware that half of the school population lives in the open country and villages. Over $4\frac{1}{2}$ million of them attend one-teacher rural schools. Many of these schools have undergone little change during the last generation. Their teachers have received the fewest weeks of professional training of any group of teachers, over one-fourth of them are teaching their first term of school, and the majority of them are 3 or 4 years younger than urban teachers.

Rural school terms are 1 or 2 months shorter than city terms. Data in a study including over 70 thousand typical rural children chosen at random in 10 of our states show that one-half of them attended school less than $7\frac{1}{2}$ months, over one-fourth of them attended considerably less than 5 months, and over one-eighth of them attended less than 3 months. Incidentally, those pupils with less than 130 days of attendance averaged more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ years below grade in reading and spelling achievement. So I might go on at some length relating the handicaps under which the majority of rural boys and girls obtain their public school education, but I refrain from doing so. May I add that the picture has its bright spots, its high lights?

What can be done about this educational situation, the one point at which it seems to me we educators may most effectively attack agricultural problems?

One point of attack is in the consolidation of many of the existing 161,521 one-teacher rural schools. It is conservatively estimated that the 16,000 consolidated schools formed since the beginning of the movement, over 80 years ago, have replaced between 40 and 50 thousand one-teacher

rural schools. Nearly four times as many one-teacher schools exist today as have been consolidated. Specialists in the field estimate that, after all practicable consolidations have been made, between 30 and 40 thousand one-teacher rural schools will remain, because in their isolated locations they cannot with advantage be united with other schools. Should consolidations continue at the rate of uniting 5000 one-teacher rural schools per year, which is the highest record for any one year, another quarter of a century will elapse before all practicable consolidations will have been made. The present economic status is hampering consolidation. Whether or not consolidation proves expensive in the long run, the farmer is shy of anything which will entail the outlay of money.

May I suggest that the mere physical consolidation of schools will not suffice. Scientific studies and observations show that in some cases the consolidated school is not proving as effective in certain respects as had been hoped. But withal we have much faith in the consolidated school.

Another point of attack is in the reorganization of financing rural education. An entire session of the Department of Rural Education this week was devoted to this subject. Much emphasis was given the fact that, if quality of educational opportunities is to be any more than an empty phrase, the rural school must receive greater financial aid from outside the local school unit. Should we not seek to alleviate a condition which makes it possible for city superintendents to come to our normal schools annually, select, and secure the strongest prospective teachers? The responsibility for financing education under our democratic form of government rests clearly with the state and the nation.

The professional preparation of teachers affords another approach to the rural education situation. The constant raising of certificate requirements and minimum qualifications of teachers indicates the importance of professional training. During this convention we have been told several times of the degree standards required in some cities of elementary school teachers. Are degree standards of academic and professional training any the less desirable for rural teachers?

The comment is often made, and with good foundation, that the teacher of the sons and daughters of the farmer, who is carrying a large share of the tax support of the state normal school and teachers college, is not receiving as much attention and as adequate training for her job as is the city teacher. This situation, however, is rapidly adjusting itself. Whereas in 1918 only 96 state normal schools and teachers colleges offered courses in rural education, a study by the writer indicates the tendency has become so general that today 154, or 83 percent, of the state normal schools and teachers colleges differentiate in some degree the work for prospective rural elementary school teachers.

The stigma once attached to rural teaching is disappearing. More and more well-prepared and ambitious young men and women desiring an opportunity to get real experience and personal growth in their chosen profession, and at the same time seeking the privilege of participating in

unselfish community service, have chosen the rural field because of its freedom, latitude, and challenge for the exercise of an almost unlimited amount of initiative. Let us encourage the movement by helping to secure more nearly adequate salary compensation for these volunteers. Let us further stimulate the movement by helping to raise the qualification requirements for rural elementary school teachers so that those without adequate professional background, or those who have received their professional training in other curricula such as home economics, high-school mathematics, or music, and are unable to secure positions in those special fields may not find refuge in rural teaching positions. Rural teaching should, and can be, made as exclusive and as dignified as any other part of the teaching profession.

Time will permit of no more than a brief mention of another factor which is essential in helping to solve the rural problem. I refer to rural school supervision. If city teachers need supervision with all of their more nearly adequate training and facilities, how much more do rural teachers need it? In spite of this greater need, we find fewer teachers in rural schools under supervision, and what supervision is found is usually less in amount and very often inferior in quality to that of urban schools.

Consolidation, financial aid, better prepared teachers, and supervision are but four of the more potential means of improvement.

Due to the diversity of opinion and practice in the application of these, and other potential means of improving rural education, this Department and all agencies interested in the field should, if possible, initiate, foster, guide, and complete a scientific study, or series of studies, to be carried on over a period of years to supplement what has already been done and to determine what means and procedures are most hopeful in their solution of the rural education problem.

In closing, may I say that our National welfare largely depends upon a demand from rural people for their rights and an insistence from urban people that the rural child shall enjoy an equality of educational opportunity.

EDUCATIONAL ASPECTS OF THE PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS AT HAVANA, CUBA

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Historical survey—The first Pan-American Congress on Child Welfare was held at Buenos Aires, Argentine Republic, in 1916. The second Congress assembled at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1919. The fourth Congress met at Santiago, Chile, in 1924.

On the occasion of the second Congress at Montevideo, Uruguay, the foundations were laid for an International American Institute for the Protection of Infants, with headquarters at Montevideo. At the fourth Congress at Santiago, the bases were finally laid for the organization of

the Institution. The congress at Santiago, Chile, selected Havana, Cuba, as the meeting place for the fifth Congress.

Membership—The members of each congress are classified into three groups—honorary, official, and appointed. Honorary members are selected at each meeting. Official members are the delegates of the governments of the countries represented at each congress, and the members of the organization committees at the place of meeting. Appointed members are persons engaged in practical and scientific child-welfare activities or representing institutions engaged in child-welfare work.

Aims—The aims of the Institution are: To undertake the organization of congresses on child welfare; to gather and publish laws, regulations and all such matters as may apply to the protection of infants; to inform, and generally assist, all private and public organizations and institutions connected with child care; to collect works, reviews and bibliographies on child welfare and often publish them; to frame statistics and general data; to be, in a word, a clearinghouse of information for the nations of the western hemisphere in the matter of child welfare.

Havana, A convenient place—The Congress at Santiago, Chile, chose Havana as a suitable meeting place for the fifth Congress. No better place than this could have been selected. Cuba is halfway between both continents. The influence of both cultures, north and south, is equally felt. Its background is full of old and quaint traditions. It is a proper setting for a meeting where Spanish and English-speaking countries bid fair to meet one another for a common good. Besides, excellent work has been done along the line of child welfare, and schools, asylums, and other institutions are models of their class, showing the attention and care given to the children of the greatest of the Antilles.

Organization of the Fifth Congress—The first step in connection with the organization of the fifth Congress at Havana was the appointment of an executive committee by the President of the Cuban Republic, General Machado. The Congress was held during the week beginning December 8 and ending December 13, 1927. The official languages were English and Spanish. The Congress was divided into six sections, namely: (1) Medicine; (2) Hygiene; (3) Sociology; (4) Education; (5) Psychology; (6) Legislation.

Sessions—Four different classes of sessions were held: Formal, plenary, sectional, and governmental. The Secretary of State of Cuba presided at the preliminary session which was held at the National Theater, with the attendance of the diplomatic corps, the official delegates and the people of the community.

Program—All matters of a fundamental character in connection with the child and the promotion of his welfare were fully discussed in the various sections of the Congress.

Porto Rico was honored with the presidency of the educational section, after a motion of the executive official of the organizing committee, Dr. Ramiro Guerra, superintendent of schools of the Cuban Government.

The following topics received the attention of the delegates and were fully discussed:

The responsibility of the school in preparing the child for his future work as a citizen

The need of a national policy in regard to education

The need of developing in the child a true love for his country; the need of harmonizing the love for his country and the love for mankind

Education and welfare of the blind

Orientation in the elementary school in the work of citizenship

Duty of the state towards the destitute

Health as the chief aim in education

The Junior Red Cross as an instrument in educating for citizenship

Education of the abnormal child

Education of the deaf and mute in accordance with present-day tendencies

The responsibility of the parent in preparing the child for school, both physically and mentally

Welfare work and the schools where instruction is given for this type of work

Regulating the work of child and youth

Protecting the child against vice and corruption

Measures to protect the child at home

Establishment by the state of children's libraries

Fighting poverty

Preserving the family relation as to the prevention and treatment of child dependency

Educating professional workers in the field of child welfare

Tests and measurements; what Mexico has done in this connection; revision of the Simon-Binet Scales

Psychological clinics; their organization and work

The delinquent child; how to study him

The psychology of the child of preschool age

The moral life of the child; ethical motivation

Methods used to study the child while in school.

Comments—The importance of these congresses where all the nations of the western hemisphere take an active part cannot be overemphasized. There is a mutual advantage gained from the exchange of bulletins, monographs, books and other scientific publications. A wider use is made of the experiences, researches, and investigations in all matters pertaining to the child, since such a plan is possible in these gatherings. The study of child nature, his education, his needs, his ideals, are compared with what is being done in other nations which are members of the Institution. This brings necessarily a unity in purpose and action among the nations of both Americas.

This unity in educational aims and ideals must be the most desirable outcome of these congresses. The school systems of South America, though coming from a common source in Europe, show a great variation from each other and from the system of their origin. Each state in the union of North America also has its own type of school organization and administration, and, even within the same state, counties and cities differ considerably.

Out of this seemingly chaotic situation there must be specific standards as to purposes, ideals, methods, and procedures. There must be something like uniformity in the fundamentals of education: In the aims (the health of the child; his preparation to be an economic factor of his community; teaching him how to discharge his duties as a citizen; giving him a wide cultural background); and in the manner of attaining these aims (studying his nature and obeying the laws governing teaching and learning).

If uniformity is secured in both (aims and methods), details as to the best subjectmatter to include in the curricula of the schools of the nations of America must necessarily be left to the judgment and aspirations of each country, as supplied by the elements in their national history, life, and ideals.

This uniformity or rather unity, as to educational ideals will be translated into uniform laws regarding the care and protection of the child at home, in school, in the street or factory. It is a means to carry into each national conscience the desires and aspirations of the whole continent. These gatherings aid enormously in promoting international goodwill. They pave the way to carry ideals of peace and happiness from the humble abodes of the teachers of America to the floors of legislatures under the majestic domes of nation's capitol. In both places, schools and state houses, the destinies of nations are wrought.

TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP—THE HOME

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The attention that is being given generally to the cardinal objectives of education as adopted by our educational leaders a few years ago, is most gratifying. Curriculum are being revised to include these objectives in one way or another, teachers are being trained to stress the fundamental objectives as well as the processes, and educators, singly and in groups, are considering the child rather than merely methods of presenting subjects. In fact, the whole educational trend is toward training the youth of today to meet the complex problems of this age in such a way as will build strongly and well our great national life. It seems fitting that the sixty-fifth annual convention of the National Education Association should choose for its general theme "Education for Citizenship." A more important subject and one more far reaching in interest could not have been found; for not only the professional educator, but the general public as well, is awake to the value of this new thought in education.

Two years ago the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, an organization of 1,275,000 men and women bound together in the common interest of childhood and youth, adopted as its program the seven-fold objective set forth by the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary

Education: Sound health; worthy home membership; mastery of tools, technic and spirit of learning; faithful citizenship; vocational effectiveness; wise use of leisure; and ethical character. Today through the length and breadth of the country in every state and every local unit these seven objectives are forming the program of study and activity of the parents of the children for whom the schools were organized. For parents have awakened to the fact that the school is only one of the great educational institutions, and that it cannot succeed in developing this practical and fundamental educational program which it has adopted without the sympathetic and intelligent understanding and cooperation of that other educational agency, the home. And so the parents of today, like the teachers, are preparing themselves to meet intelligently their responsibility as educators. This is a most encouraging fact, and one of great significance, for after all the parent is the child's first teacher and, therefore the most responsible.

John Dewey's conception of education is that it is growth, implying of course growth in the right direction. In what direction should this growth take place? We shall find the answer to this question, says an educational leader, by analyzing the demands of life and the opportunities that life itself offers. In his words, "Each of us as he goes through life has certain situations to face as a citizen, as a parent, as a seeker of happiness, as a worker in a particular field of labor. Such situations not only lay obligations upon us but create opportunities for getting greater satisfaction out of life. An analysis of life into its constituent obligations and opportunities may be expected, therefore, to reveal the objectives of education."

A close study of the seven objectives will show conclusively that each one has a direct bearing upon the training for citizenship. Is not sound health fundamental to sound and productive citizenship? Surely a good citizen must first of all be a worthy member of a home. A useful citizen should not only have a knowledge of the fundamental processes, but he should have acquired the spirit of learning which will create in him a desire to continue to study throughout his life. A worthy citizen should be efficient in the profession or vocation he has chosen for his life work. A citizen to be faithful in all relations of life must have ethical character. Inasmuch as character is developed to a great extent during the hours outside of the classroom instruction or home supervision, it follows that the wise use of leisure has a specific bearing upon citizenship. Training for citizenship, then, might be said to be the prime aim of education.

Inasmuch as education is a continuous process of development, it remains that education for citizenship means a constant training in the qualities that make for good citizenship. The question then presents itself: "What is a good citizen?"

The good citizen has been said to be the person who does his job in the best way possible from the highest motive possible. The good citizen has a friendly, sympathetic attitude toward all measures which contribute

to the improvement and wellbeing of society and social conditions. He recognizes the beneficent influence of just laws impartially administered; he gives his support and influence to such public officials as are fearless and honest in the performance of their duties; and he cheerfully contributes of his means to the support of the government and of worthy social institutions.

We must realize that good citizenship means much more than a knowledge of the laws of our country and a recognition of our obligations to observe them; it means more than exercising the right of franchise; it means much more than a knowledge of the machinery which operates our local, county, state, and national government; good citizenship means the very highest possible development of the individual, physically, mentally, morally, and spiritually. It involves the right adjustment of the individual to his human environment. And good citizenship means world citizenship.

Good citizenship comes through years of training. The future citizen like the child learning to walk needs to be led and guided and gradually brought into the attitudes, knowledge, skills, and motives for actions of a good citizen. The great concern of earnest men and women today, therefore, is not only to meet the ever increasing responsibilities of government, but also to prepare the coming generation to solve the problems that await it.

We have been too prone to think of the school as the only educational agency; but when we define education as growth, we see at once that it is not confined to the school. Every experience, as one writer puts it, has educative possibilities, whether it is playing with the gang, reading the newspaper, magazine, or book, going to the movies, attending Sunday school or church, visiting the country and neighboring city, working at a job, or performing some home duty. All these and many more make up the environments each of which makes a distinct contribution to the education of the most important citizen, the child. In the words of Angelo Patri: "The school cannot do it all. The parents, the grandparents, the community, the homes, the use of leisure, the play, the church, the library, and countless other agencies are at work quietly but surely in the tremendous movement called education. There are twenty-four hours in a day. The child spends at least six hours in school, five days in a week, forty weeks in a year. He spends eighteen hours outside of school, seven days in a week, and fifty-two weeks in a year. No, the school cannot compete! The handicaps are too great. It must be together—child, teacher, parents, home, community, and church. All need the school, but even more does the school need all the other helpers. Educating boys and girls is the biggest job in this land of ours. It is too big for the schools alone. Confidence and faith are at the base of all cooperative endeavors. Children, teachers, and parents must cooperate."

The home has been called the first and the greatest educational institution. It is here during the child's most impressionable years that habits

are formed and ideals set up that will largely determine his whole attitude toward life. The home touches practically every important problem of every day living: Health habits, selfcontrol, responsibility, moral standards, financial judgments, spiritual values and social attitudes and ideals. It has been said in truth that no education or influence, however powerful it may be, can altogether overcome, in after life the effect of the bias given the character of children by the daily example of their parents and the home training during childhood.

The home may be compared to a laboratory where children experiment with life under the sympathetic eye of their natural instructors. The end of all the experimentation is that the pupils may learn for themselves what mixtures lend to health and permanent happiness, whether at work or play. The formulas of others must be tested before they are accepted; the nature of the growing child demands freedom to form mixtures of his own, and whatever appears to him to be successful is naturally the thing he tends to accept. As a consequence of this tendency damaging compounds may come from harmless appearing mixtures. One ride in an automobile plus father at the wheel and the boy on the front seat watching the speedometer move from 30 to 60 may result in the creation of a speed maniac. One abstract lesson in truthfulness plus one convenient falsehood that "Mother is not in" may result in a habitual liar. An indifferent and uneducated parent plus an alert child seeking the quickest road to happiness may result in a cynical scoffer at law.

Then there are all kinds of instructors. No laboratory can be successful unless its leader is trained. He must know relative values of chemicals; he must understand his pupils. He must realize that the curious pupil will want to play with dangerous mixtures and that he must know how to guide tactfully the child's curiosity to the study of the true compounds and their formulas. He knows that there are some students who will follow directions simply from fear of the disastrous explosion or punishment which will result from not following the laws. But he realizes that his highest task is to teach the child to follow the true formulas because they result in the larger good which we call worthy citizenship. As Fosdick has said: "Give us laws—give us obedience to the law—but give us homes which send out men and women selfgoverned from within. This is the only hope of any society."

To quote again from the simple and sincere counsels of the schoolmaster of the great city:

"Make up your minds what you want your children to be; if you would have them live by the ten commandments they would better meet them daily. If sobriety and frugality and modesty are to be their characteristics they would better know them by first-hand acquaintance in their homes. If sincerity and uprightness and honor are to come first in their dealings with men it would be well that they meet with them at home.

For I tell you in all earnestness that no school however dedicated, no church however consecrated, can take the place of the day-to-day living

with righteousness in the home. It is home and home people that educate the children for character and there is not the slightest use in scoring the schools and the churches when the homes shirk their job. Make up your minds what the children are to be and then set about shaping them to it by your example."

THE PLACE OF THE CHURCH IN CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

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The cultivation of religion is the unique function of the church. Whether or not it helps train good citizens depends on the nature of the religion it cultivates.

The religion which the Christian churches of America seek or should seek to cultivate is the religion taught and lived by Jesus. It finds its best expression in the New Testament.

The religion which the Jewish Synagogues of America seek or should seek to cultivate is that which arose among Jews during a thousand years before Jesus and found its noblest expressions in the Old Testament prophets, revered also by Christians.

The Christian and Hebrew faiths accordingly have large elements in common.

Among their basal ideals and principles two have primary significance.

1. Worship of the infinite, holy, righteous, just and loving Source of all Being, Creator of Nature, Ruler of Nations, Father of Men. The church or synagogue which succeeds in making its members joyously conscious of personal relations with God and of working with him for the establishment of His Kingdom among men is successfully laying foundations for a good citizenry.

2. Practice by the individual in his personal relations with others of truthfulness, sincerity, mercy, helpfulness, courtesy—in a word, brotherliness. The church or synagogue which trains men and women and young folks in these personal characteristics and modes of life is rendering inestimable service to the state in training its citizens.

Flowing out of these two principles, love to God and love to man, come all the many characteristics which make men and nations great through their embodiment in personal character and in national institutions.

True religion liberates one from the bondage of mere things, from domination by the fleeting forms and illusions of time and sense. It makes him a citizen of the universe. It banishes narrow prejudices. It enlarges his horizons, quickens his sympathies for all who suffer, regardless of class or race. It nerves him to struggle for justice, for a world in which God's will may be realized for all. It helps him to see and to rejoice in the true, the good and the beautiful wherever found. It helps him to be a brother with all those who seek truth and light and life. It enables

him to see the finite and the fleeting present in the light of the universal, the infinite, and the permanent.

The church or synagogue that cultivates these ideals and secures their practice among its members is rendering a service of incalculable value in the training of good citizens.

Turning now from these broad principles, let me illustrate in one small concrete realm what the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America has been doing in the training of good citizens—though without mentioning the subject—by promoting better attitudes toward each other of the children and young people of the United States and Japan. I refer to the exchange of Friendship Dolls which has taken place during the past two years.

EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP—A HUMAN ENGINEERING PROBLEM

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True citizenship is not determined by an oath of allegiance to any one flag, it is measured by allegiance to principles that make for citizenship in every man's country.

With apologies to the Christian Century—true citizenship has a double responsibility. "It must discover the beauties and nobilities of life amid its common places, and it must reveal the iniquities of men underneath their respectabilities."

In other words, the physician who does not trace effect to cause and back again is neither a good diagnostician nor is he qualified to prescribe, and if he is so dainty and tender hearted that he is afraid to soil his hands or tell his patient the truth, he will never become a successful surgeon.

In this spirit, with all kindness possible and not to criticise individuals but to face facts rather than theories, I shall be pleased to discuss with you briefly this morning this great human problem. As every organization comes into existence to meet some specific need, a brief review of conditions prompting our organization will give you a better understanding as to our aims.

In 1780, eighty-three days was the average schooling period, while in 1880 it was eleven hundred days, and what have we gained? In 1780 we knew nothing about radio, radium, liquid air, pianolas, adding machines, flying machines, submarines, harvesters, electric welding, electric heating, rotary printing presses, department stores, parcel post, commission form of government, Roosevelt Dams, Catskill Aqueducts, Panama Canals, minimum wage plan, or the Ford automobile.

In fact, the man or woman living today who is ninety years of age has lived to witness more material progress than all the people who have ever lived before this time. History does not record another race so God-like in its material progress as the present race, as we have changed the very

face of nature by boring through mountains of solid granite, tunnelling under river beds and changing deserts into harvest fields. We have defied the laws of gravity, as it were, by leaving the earth and speeding to the clouds and flashing our messages through the air to men and nations in all parts of the earth.

This has been possible only through the triumph of principle in all kinds of engineering—mechanical, electrical, steam, gas, civil, and others.

But what of our spiritual progress? History does not record another race, so inconsistently satanic in their relationship towards each other as the present race. We blamed the world war on the Kaiser, and after we had killed ten million other men, crippled fifteen million for life, and made twenty-five million widows and orphans, at an expense that will tax unborn generations—if it is ever paid—the crowned heads of Europe think the Kaiser has suffered enough.

We knew where he was all the time but no move was made to get him, yet we will send two detectives clear across the United States to bring some boy back and put him in prison for stealing an automobile that was not worth \$300.

Notwithstanding the billions of dollars we have invested in schools, colleges, universities, churches, Sunday Schools, Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., lodges, libraries and other uplift organizations, and the millions upon millions we spend annually to maintain them, our annual crime bill in the United States today is fifty percent greater than the combined net earnings of every corporation in the United States—a sum that would build annually 1100 Roosevelt Dams, or 71 Catskill Aqueducts, or 27 Panama Canals, or would build three ten-million-dollar universities every day in the year, including Sundays.

The dollar is the least item in the cost of crime, as heartaches and tears are human equations not measured in dollars and cents. Money will not relieve the father's aching heart nor dry the mother's pillow that is wet with tears over some wayward child.

We have hundreds of social welfare organizations supported by voluntary contributions, such as anti-vice, anti-cigarette, prohibition, etc. and the only excuse any of them have for existence is to work over the wrecks of society. Of what use has my boy for an anti-vice, anti-cigarette, or a prohibition society if he has been properly trained in human engineering, which includes "reading the price tags of life."

Who are the criminals? The very same people who we have spent all our money on in our schools, colleges, universities, churches and Sunday Schools. Analyzing the comment of the *Cleveland News* of October 29, 1926, on the annual report of Sing Sing prison, we find that 74.3 percent of the prisoners had jobs at the time they committed the crime.

We like to fool ourselves and say that our criminals are foreigners but only 17.5 percent were foreigners; 48.6 percent had finished the sixth grade in school, while 83 percent is the average outside of prisons.

Nine and four-tenths percent had finished high school, while 13 percent is the average outside of prisons; 4.6 percent were college degree men, while 2 percent is the average outside of prisons. The average age was twenty-eight.

The increase of college men was greatest, from nineteen for the previous year to sixty-seven in 1926.

Who is to blame? Society blames it on the parents, the parents blame it on the schools, the schools blame it on the church, the church blames it on the devil, then the devil says, "now we will all get out from under and blame it on society."

When the house is on fire it is a poor time to discuss who is to blame, better see who can do the most effective work in subduing the flames.

What is the remedy? Humanization through constructive education—not war or legislation—is the only hope of civilization or Christianization. What is humanization? Man is humanized just to the degree that he understands and appreciates his individual relationships and personal responsibilities in the great universal plan.

This great human problem will never be solved by diagnosing a cross section of any one nationality, color, tongue, creed, denomination or class, as error is a human weakness not peculiar to any one group.

Nor is the United States' annual crime bill—thirty million dollars per day—paid by the group to which the individual criminal belongs, but is paid for by society as a whole. Therefore, the criminal problem must be solved by society as a whole, as a human problem, free from all political, religious, or sectarian implications, just as we solve our physical and material problems.

"A child is the repository of infinite possibilities" and comes into the world a potential asset to society as it comes in response to a universal law and in fulfillment of a natural law. If it ever becomes a liability the fault is more with society than with the parents or the child, as society has the advantage of the accumulated knowledge and wisdom of the ages, to which the child has an inherent right, and society as well as the parents and child must suffer and pay for what the child does not get.

In modern schools and colleges we teach zoology, mineralogy, geology, biology, sociology, psychology, sexology, and hundreds of other ologies, including bibliology and theology, and then find that, because we have omitted humanology, we are forced to spend thirty million dollars per day with the same pupils as subjects in our study of criminology and penology.

We train pupils to become surgeons with such skill that they successfully operate on the human heart; we train them to become so proficient in mechanics that they will take a bar of steel four feet long and four inches square and stretch it into a single wire 13,000 miles long; we train them to become astronomers with such an accurate knowledge of the planets and their relationship to each other that they can tell us years and years in advance just what day, hour and moment some star or comet

may become visible to the naked eye, though it may be traveling towards the earth at the rate of millions of miles per day, but we have failed to teach them to understand and appreciate their individual relationship and personal responsibility to each other.

As the public schools is one place where society as a whole speaks with some authority, and is the one place where children of all groups are brought together, that is the one best place to start solving the greatest of all human problems—humanizing the race.

Charles M. Sheldon of Topeka, Kansas, is quoted as saying, "There are thirty-two million school children in the United States, with only five million of them under any religious instruction or influence whatever, and as many cities prohibit the discussion of religious subjects in the public schools, the church is limited to only those pupils who will go to the church. The ones who need moral training most do not go to church."

In this great changing world, homes are not what they were when most of us were boys and girls—in many cases today home is but a place to eat and sleep and park the automobile.

When the son of a physician or surgeon decides to follow in the profession of his father, why does not the father train the son? Simply because the home is not equipped nor is the father qualified. For the same reason the daughter of the college graduate mother is sent to college for the experience she can get in no other place.

Up to the first day that Bobby goes to school, he has been given to understand by every member of the family that he is the center of the only world there is. However, his first day in school changes entirely his previous viewpoint of life, as he finds Willie, Susie, Charlie, and Bessie and a lot of other little worlds that he has never even dreamed about. So his first problem in life is not to adjust his world to theirs—as he has been given to understand that his world is all right—but it is to adjust their worlds to his. This is not a home problem as it did not originate in the home and parents can no more train him to meet this problem in the home than they can teach him to swim in the parlor for fear he might drown if he went into the water.

Many parents today are more interested in preparing the path for the child than preparing the child for the path. Few parents, have the time or inclination to teach their children, and many do not understand child psychology sufficiently to train them properly even if they were so inclined. Many parents do not stop to consider the far-reaching results of child habits formed from suggestions made by the parents.

For example, a prominent club woman in Detroit told at a banquet how she had her little boy stand up and watch out the back window in the car for the traffic officers, while she violated the speed ordinance to get to church.

A little girl in school told how her mother had told her to lie to her little sister about going to the movie, while one told that her mother had told her to tell a lady at the door that she was not home.

No man can live higher than he thinks, and when you have changed the standard of his thinking you have changed the standard of his living. When you make this change by force or brutal punishment you have set aside all psychological laws, and if this is to be the rule our school teachers should then be selected for their brute force instead of their intelligence.

"Any knowledge acquired by compulsion has no hold on the mind."
"The only education that is worth a copper penny to any man is the education that he gets himself, because he wants it."

Hardly a day passes that some parent, in tears and anguish, does not come to my office to ask what I can do for their child, and I tell them, in all possible kindness, that there is no power in heaven or on earth that can do anything for their child until the child wants something done.

A life prisoner in a western prison, who was so vicious that no guard ever went near him without keeping his eye on him as he would if he were a wild animal, heard of our work with prisoners and wrote asking if he could take our course on human engineering or reading the price tags of life by correspondence. He took the course for one year and then we heard nothing from him for two years, though, of course, we knew where he was all the time as he was a life prisoner. At the end of two years silence he wrote us saying he had purposely refrained from writing as he wanted to test our philosophy to see if he had to keep rehearsing it all the time to keep it working. He found that he did not and that he had not been angry for two years, as his mind refused to function on that line.

He so thoroughly convinced the prison officials and the public that came in contact with him of his complete reformation, he was released, went to war as a private, came back as an officer and has been made a thirty-second degree Mason.

Two women released from the Detroit jail, where they had Pathfinder lectures, asked the privilege of going back on the days the Pathfinder instructor was there. A woman in jail charged with murder asked if her daughter might come to the jail and get the Pathfinder lectures.

After we had several years of experience reaching men and women of all nationalities, colors, tongues, and creeds, convicted of all kinds, types, and degrees of crimes, and getting results that are not only amazing, but will "stand the acid test," Woodbridge N. Ferris, then Governor of Michigan, reminded us that as all men and women in prison were at one time boys and girls in school, to confine our work to prisons was like trying to purify a polluted stream at its mouth instead of at its source, and suggested that we go to the public schools with our work.

In November, 1921, the pupils in the Tilden school in Detroit, Michigan, asked their teacher if she would not invite me to come to the school and tell them about our work in prisons, which she did. During my talk I naturally told them what many prisoners had said to me—namely, that if they had had such work when they were boys and girls in school they would not be in prison. At the close of the talk a little boy in the seventh grade asked Miss Alice V. Hart, their school principal, if they could organize a junior council of Pathfinders of America to take up the study

of human engineering. Miss Hart, one of the most modest and retiring ladies I ever met, never thinking the work would go beyond her school or that room, gave her consent.

Without asking prison official, inmate, school principal, teacher or pupil—going only where and when we are invited—we are now reaching over 5000 men and women in prisons, and over 25,000 children in the public schools of Detroit and vicinity, and the work has spread to Ohio, Indiana, Georgia, New York, England, Turkey, and Italy.

When the parents of children who have pathfinder work in their school, move to some new school district where they do not have the work, the children get busy talking to the pupils, teacher and principal, which many times leads to the organization in that school.

Because of moving from one school to another, we have pupils in Detroit who have had the first year's Pathfinder work three times and seldom a complaint. I wonder how many of them would take their history, spelling, grammar or other school studies three times with as little objection. So it is with teachers, when they are moved from a school with Pathfinder work to one where it is not. And some of them tell us they hope they will never have to teach school without the Pathfinders.

Edwin L. Miller, Assistant Superintendent of Detroit public schools, in a public address said, "The Pathfinders of America have made virtue more attractive than vice." How do we do it? When we are invited by the school principal to organize his school, we ask to meet the teachers and tell them how we conduct the classes, so that we may be sure of their cooperation. We then ask to present it to the pupils, as they are the last word, though we have never had a class refuse to take it, although we tell them it is entirely optional with them.

In the elementary grades we call them junior councils, in the high schools they are called high-path councils and in prisons, inside councils.

When we appear in the schoolroom to organize, we explain to the pupils why mother and father belong to clubs, why doctors, dentists, engineers, conductors, brakeman, carpenters, plumbers and all tradesmen have clubs—namely for mutual help and to help each other get positions as well as for social purposes.

We explain to them that boys and girls go to school for years to fit themselves for some profession, while here is an opportunity to fit themselves for the most important profession of all—to know how to live and be healthy, successful, and happy. They are told that it costs them nothing, not even any books to study, as the lesson sheets are furnished to those who are taking the work. Neither do they have any examinations, as we depend upon the written reactions of pupils and reports we get from their teachers, parents and outsiders for an estimate as to what the pupils are getting from the work.

Each grade or room is organized as a Pathfinder council, electing their own officers as would be the case in any debating society or other social organizations. When they have completed this course at the end of the

eighth grade, they receive a diploma as a human engineer. Business men give our graduates the preference in positions of trust.

A little eleven-year-old girl in the Pathfinder settlement house council in Brooklyn, N. Y., came in for her second lesson and said before the entire class, "My mama and papa used to fight a great deal, but when my papa read the first Pathfinder lesson he said, 'I guess we will have to cut our fighting out,' and our home has been happy since that time." The little girl's mother came to the class three months later to thank the Pathfinder instructor for the sunshine she had brought into their home.

Another little girl in New York said, "I have told my mother so many lies that she does not believe me when I am telling her the truth, but I am going to keep on telling the truth because I feel so much better.

A little nine-year-old boy in one of our settlement houses in Detroit came in one night and said, "Mr. Wright, I felt so good towards my mother that she thought I was sick."

A little fifth grade girl said, "Mother was surprised when she saw me washing and drying the dishes and sweeping the basement and asked me 'What does this mean?' I said, 'Oh, mother, it is so nice to make somebody happy by helping them,' and mother's smile was the sweetest I ever saw."

A seventh grade colored girl writes: "I wish that I could tell you how much your lessons have helped me. I am a colored girl in the seventh grade. I had your lessons for two years. I am now much improved. My ma says she wishes all us kids could have your nice lessons."

A fourteen-year-old boy says, "I have enjoyed reading your lessons and I think it is very true. Before I came to Houghten School I was going to — school. At the — school they trained the memory instead of the mind. That is the reason I didn't have Pathfinder lessons."

A thirteen-year-old boy writes: "I really appreciated the lesson on self-control, and I am positive that it will help me in later life. It seems to me that before I began my human engineering lessons that I was like a butterfly wrapped up in a cocoon, and now I can begin to see daylight, and now I also realize that it is you, Mr. Wright, who is pulling apart my cocoon and showing me a new world of which before I had never even dreamed. Wishing you all success in teaching other children as you have taught me, I close."

A high-school boy writes: "If you were to ask me, I would say that the study of 'Human Engineering' requires more application of originality and common-sense than any course I am at present taking up in high school. The reasons are selfevident. Although we use no books, we are guided throughout the meetings by the use of one of the elementary principles of logic; namely, that when a question is asked, we weigh, measure, and judge the veracity of the answer by things we know to be true. That gives everyone a chance to develop his mind."

We advise all of our Junior Pathfinders to take their lessons home with them and discuss them with their parents, so that hundreds of families in Detroit are getting the benefit of our lessons through their little chil-

dren who attend the public schools—truly “a little child shall lead them.” One little girl wrote us that after supper they pushed their chairs back and discussed the Pathfinder lesson until nine o’clock and the subject was still unexhausted. Mothers tell us their girls would never wash dishes if they could get out of it until they became Pathfinders, and that their boys were never so manly about the house and willing to do their work. One janitor reported to the board of education a 100 percent improvement in the care of the building sixty days after we had organized the Pathfinder work in that school.

Once each month the Pathfinder instructor, one who has been specially trained for the work, and who does nothing else, nor does he or she ever appear before the class under any other rôle but that of a human engineer, comes into the room, and after the council president has called the meeting to order, discusses with the children for thirty minutes the lesson for that month.

After the discussion each pupil is given a sheet containing a synopsis of the subject discussed and advised to take it home and discuss it with their parents. Approximately two weeks later the class has another thirty-minute period for class discussion which is conducted by the council president, from a sheet of instructions, questions and problems furnished by the instructor. This discussion is supervised by the room teacher. After the discussion by the class each pupil writes a letter to the Pathfinder instructor who gave them the lecture, telling what part of the lesson appealed to them most and what part they can make use of in their daily lives, as we tell them that their time is wasted unless they put into practice what their lessons teach. This thought is impressed upon their minds by illustrations from their own lives.

We advise starting the work in the fourth or the fifth grade and completing the course at the close of the eighth grade. Thus the pupil has five years of Pathfinder work. We have had equally as good results in high schools, but the high-school program does not fit our course as well as the lower grades, and if given in the grades below the ninth, it would be but a short time until all high-school pupils would have completed the Pathfinder course before they entered high school.

What is the cost? One additional high grade teacher for each 3500 to 4000 pupils, besides a small expense for material furnished the pupils, but the total cost would not exceed \$1.50 per pupil per school year. The average cost per pupil for regular school work ranges from \$50 to \$75 per year in different localities.

Communities having less than 4000 fourth to eighth grade pupils, could join other communities and divide the expense of one human engineer. Every village, town or city has sewer, street, and other commissioners, why not have a “human engineer?” Is anything else more important?

Some day, society will realize that it is far cheaper and better to “Prepare and Prevent, than to Repair and Repent,” and that it is better to “Chart life’s seas than to salvage the wrecks.”

THE STANDARDS AND IDEALS OF THE AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION

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During the past year, as president of a state bar association, I have had the question put to me several times, "What good does it do you to spend your time in the interests of a bar association? Does a law teacher benefit by any increase in the amount of business that is done by the lawyers?" Whether or not these questions have been seriously put they seem to voice a lurking suspicion in the mind of the layman that all bar associations, state or national, are in some way concerned with the promotion of the lawyer's financial interests. The answer is that these are professional organizations.

I wish to present to you a general view of the activities and purposes of the American Bar Association: First, its attitude toward professional ethics and its powers in dealing with such subjects; second, its interests in the development of the law and the administration of justice, and third, its interest in proper educational standards for admission to the profession, the opposition it has met in securing the adoption of these standards, and the measure of success it has achieved.

One of the fundamental purposes for which the American Bar Association was created was to "uphold the honor of the profession of the law." To accomplish this it has been active in seeking to establish in the minds of the lawyers of America the professional spirit. In carrying out this purpose a written code of ethics has been adopted which sets forth four general classes of ethical obligations: The lawyer's duties and relations to the court, the lawyer's obligations to his clients, his relations with his fellow attorneys, and his proper attitude toward litigation.

The public's impressions of the lawyer are gained to a considerable extent from newspaper stories. It does not make a sensational headline to state "Lawyer strictly observes the ethics of his profession" any more than it does to state "Minister looks after moral welfare of his congregation." But announce that "Preacher elopes with beautiful member of choir" or "Lawyer conspires with bootleg gang," and at once the interested attention of a considerable portion of the reading public is secured. Thereupon, many draw the inference that all ministers are immoral and all lawyers are crooks, and are, no doubt, ready to give acquiescence to Shakespeare's oft-quoted statement of Dick, the Butcher, in *Jack Cade's Rebellion*, "The first thing we do, let's kill all the lawyers." It is hoped that the activities of the American Bar Association will result in a desire on the part of the public that some lawyers are allowed to live!

The American Bar Association draws its membership from the top, and not from the bottom of the profession, and hence does not have a great many cases among its members that require discipline. On the other

hand, if one of its number does fall from grace, his case is much more conspicuous than that of some erring brother-in-law outside its ranks. The Association has undertaken to enforce the observance of its ethical standards by initiating investigations wherever it has reason to believe some infraction of its rules has been committed. For this work, and for the gathering of evidence and the presentation of a case against any of its members, it employs an attorney whose regular business it is to handle these affairs. Yet the Association has no power to disbar an attorney or prevent him from practicing. It can only dismiss him from its membership and bring the matter to the attention of local authorities who have the power to disbar.

As to the proper growth of the law, no official or governmental agency can attempt its direction, yet there is no field in which the interests of the people are so vitally concerned. It is nobody's business to undertake to regulate development either in particular branches of the law or in the law as a whole, or to be alert to prevent the passage of harmful and undesirable legislation, although every citizen may be directly affected thereby in his personal or property rights.

This duty the American Bar Association has assumed, for no group other than the leaders of the legal profession has the training or capacity to render this service. The Constitution of the Association has so stated this as one of its objects: "To advance the science of jurisprudence, promote the administration of justice and uniformity of legislation and judicial decision throughout the nation."

This work is performed largely through sections and committees. A wide range of subjects is covered and most branches of the law are under consideration. The principal sections deal with such subjects as comparative law, criminal law and criminology, legal education and admissions to the bar, patent, trade-mark and copyright law, public utility law, and others. In addition, there are a number of allied organizations that meet with the American Bar Association, such as the Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws and the Conference of Bar Association Delegates that act in cooperation with it.

There are nine regular sections which carry on investigations with reference to various branches of legal activity, and in addition fifteen standing committees and usually eight or ten special committees which deal with special topics. Such matters as air law, which includes not only navigation of the air but the use of the radio and the rights and liabilities and proper adjustments of the various interests involved, are considered. Legal aid, dealing with free service for the poor, American citizenship, professional ethics and grievances are among the committees that perform very important services.

Each section is composed of such members of the Bar Association as wish to enrol in it. It has in addition to its officers a council of eight members. These councils of the various sections are the effective work-

ing organizations which study and deal with particular problems, reporting their findings to the sections which in turn may recommend appropriate action by the American Bar Association.

What powers does the American Bar Association have? It cannot of itself put into effect any changes in law or in the administration of justice, yet it has the great influence of an organization that is established for no selfish ends, that acts only for the good of the profession and to protect the interests of the public. Its influence is the result of the active interest of leaders of the profession who are willing to devote their energies and abilities to make effective the objects for which the Association stands and the conclusions which it has reached.

One activity to which the American Bar Association has recently devoted much attention, and in which educators are specially interested, is carried on by the section of legal education and admissions to the bar.

In 1921 the American Bar Association set up certain educational standards which it considered the minimum preparation that should be demanded of those seeking admission to the bar. These standards called for two years of college work as preliminary to three years of full-time law school study.

These requirements are not intended merely for the improvement of the profession, but are designed essentially for the protection of the public against the incompetent and poorly trained practitioner, and are for the direct good of the young men themselves who are entering the profession. If it is considered necessary to license individuals who alone may practice law, it is because the public is entitled to protection against incompetent practitioners.

In a recent address Chief Justice Taft said: "The situation is exactly as it is in the medical profession, except that in the medical profession the reason for deep and thorough preparation, though not greater, is more easily illustrated."

Is it a sufficient argument for issuing a license to the untrained applicant that he may not often have the opportunity to kill his client when he may, because of professional incompetence, bring about such lack of confidence in the administration of justice and such disrespect for the laws under which we live, as may shake the very foundation of the government that in its leniency has given him his license to practice? From the standpoint of the public welfare the possibilities in other professions of the occasional loss of a human life through carelessness or incompetence is as nothing compared with this.

If the poorly trained man is given a license to practice, it must be expected that he will use it. He is in a highly competitive field and must make a living. Is not too great a burden placed upon him when under these conditions he must often choose between support of himself and his family and unethical practice? This situation is the initial cause of much of the improper professional conduct among the younger members of the

bar, and we may expect the public to rate the whole profession by the activities of this lowest portion of its membership.

All sincere men must be set aright who, thinking "quickly and not deeply," fear that the law will become an undemocratic and snobbish profession by setting up standards which a prominent educator, not connected with legal education, described as being "not standards of excellence, but minimum standards of decency."

These educational requirements are so moderate that it may seem strange to those familiar with educational conditions that there has been opposition to this program in any quarter. One very active source of opposition has developed in commercialized law schools that seem to fear a diminishing number of students who might be induced to study law, and by the further fact that many prospective law students, after having taken two years of college work, might not seek the commercialized type of law school in which to secure their legal training.

Another more serious though less tangible source of opposition comes from lawyers of the old school, and some even of the middle-aged school, who have themselves achieved their measure of success without college training and who point with no little pride to the exceptional men who with like handicap have held high place in the affairs of the nation. The outstanding example is, of course, Abraham Lincoln, and their deduction is that no college education is necessary in order to produce great lawyers, and that no barriers should be placed in the path of the ambitious young man. Unfortunately, if the bars are let down for the occasional Abraham Lincoln, there is let in a herd of untrained young men, the best of whom are unfairly handicapped in the pursuit of their profession, while others, no doubt, have been attracted by what appeals to them as a white-collar job without a boss or a time clock.

There is also the occasional person whose attitude is that what was good enough for the past should be good enough for the present, and who is out of sympathy with any type of education different from that of his day and generation. The teacher in every line has always encountered this resistance.

Back in 1875 Will Carleton expressed this attitude in his poem entitled "The Schoolmaster's Guests":

We've come here, school-master, intendin' to cast an inquiren' eye 'round,
 Concernin' complaints that's been entered, an' fault that has lately been found;
 To pace off the wedth of your doin's, an' witness what you've been about;
 An' see if its payin' to keep you, or whether we'd best turn ye out.

The first thing I'm bid for to mention is, when the class gets up to read,
 You give 'em too tight of a reinin', an' touch 'em up more than they need;
 You're nicer than wise in the matter of holdin' the book in one han';
 You turn a stray *q* in their doin's, an' tack an' odd *d* on their an'.
 There ain't no great good comes of speakin' the words so polite, as I see,
 Providin' you know what the facts is, an' tell 'em off jest as they be. * * *

Then, also, your 'rithmetic doin's, as they are reported to me,
Is that you have left Tare an' Tret out, an' also the old Rule o' Three;
An' likewise brought in a new study, some high-steppin' scholars to please,
With saw-bucks an' crosses and pot-hooks, an' *w's*, *x*, *y's* and *z's*.
We ain't got no time for such foolin'; there ain't no great good to be reached
By tiptoein' childr'n up higher than ever their fathers was taught.
And the other four good district fathers gave quick the consent that was due,
And cocked one eye up to the ceiling, and said, "Them's our sentiments tew."

The American Bar Association has taken the greatest care that no person of capacity be deprived of his chance to become a lawyer, but, rather than make its rules to fit the exceptional cases, it has taken care of them by making exceptions to its rules. It permits the applicant who has gained his education outside of accredited institutions of learning to demonstrate this fact in examinations given by the university in the state where he seeks a license to practice.

In this group it is unnecessary to call attention to the enormous changes in educational opportunities and conditions that have taken place since the days when the older lawyer was admitted to practice. The number attending college today is greater than the number who attended only high school a generation ago. Need there be cause to worry about the opportunity to secure two years of college work with junior colleges springing up so rapidly in many parts of the country that figures as to their number are out of date by the time they are collected? There is hardly a young man in America today who is not within a few hours' auto ride of a college—and hardly a boy that does not have a collegiate flivver in which to make the trip.

As education has come to the masses, certainly it is not demanding too much of the lawyer to ask that he be at least as well educated as a large proportion of his clients if he is to have a law practice that is even moderately successful.

We are told that democracy consists in equality of opportunity. If this be true, those who would have the profession of the law truly democratic should insist that every young man who enters it today should have such training as may fairly fit him to compete with those who have availed themselves of the best educational opportunities of the day. To permit anything less is not only unjust but fundamentally undemocratic, for he is handicapped in his chance of success in the profession.

The problem of the poor boy's opportunity to secure a college education is a problem only to those who are unfamiliar with it, yet is one that is raised in opposition to any requirement of college work. It would be most rash to suggest to a group, familiar with present educational conditions, that a young man of ability and determination cannot make his own way in college. It is a moderate estimate that as many men are now going through college entirely by their own efforts as the sum total of all men who were going to college thirty years ago, while the number who are paying the major portion of the expenses of their schooling is conserva-

tively three or four times this number. The democracy of college life is shown in the positions of honor in campus activities that is accorded to these men everywhere.

In a recent hearing before the New York Court of Appeals a young lawyer who had made his own way through college and law school said of his experience: "It is a thing which I would not want to give up for anything. . . . It is a strengthening experience, it is a thrilling experience. I do not believe that any boy of capacity and determination will fail to accomplish it if he sets out to do it, and I am sure that no boy who does accomplish that task will ever forget it or will ever regret it."

There is a big educational task ahead. The public must be educated and, unfortunately, many lawyers. Already eight states have established requirements which substantially comply with the American Bar Association standards, and sixty-five law schools have been placed upon its approved list as furnishing the required type of preparation.

The problem must be handled in each state either by its legislature or by rules adopted by its Supreme Court. Yet many judges and legislators who fully appreciate the situation hesitate to take a stand in favor of it because they fear they may be charged with setting up standards which are undemocratic, and as a result may lose the political support of the non-college man, particularly the laborer. But let them not fear the threat as to labor, for it is not made by the authorized representatives of organized labor. They believe most thoroughly in adequate preparation for each calling. If such threats are made, they are probably made by the lawyer, usually the lawyer who has some special interest to be served, and should be discounted accordingly.

Of the various standards and ideals of the American Bar Association—its attitude toward and enforcement of professional ethics, its activities with reference to the proper development of the law and the proper administration of justice—there is none that is more fraught with public interest than that of securing learning for this—the learned profession of the law.

No one should infer that all problems which confront the profession will immediately be solved by raising the educational standards, but it should be stated emphatically that this is one of the elements involved in every problem that concerns the profession and the administration of justice. Character committees and committees on law reform will have sufficient to engage their attention even though none but adequately prepared applicants are admitted to practice. With the enforcement of proper educational qualifications the difficulties involved will be greatly decreased. Solve the problem of proper education for admission to the bar and the solution of all other problems of the legal profession will be very measurably advanced.

Though the legal profession has a very special responsibility in this matter, the type of lawyer who is to be allowed to practice is not merely a professional problem. It affects vitally the government under which

you live—it affects you. Your help is urgently needed, for you understand educational opportunities and conditions. You know that educational needs cannot be judged by individual instances of success or failure. You appreciate the value and the effect of proper training. Your active interest will greatly aid in the rapid solution of the pressing problems that confront the profession and the public today—the better administration of justice—justice for the poor, and justice for the rich.

On the cover of your program is the quotation "Democracy is something deeper than liberty; it is responsibility." The American Bar Association is seeking to establish in America a truly democratic profession of the law—not one in which every man who desires shall be free to prey upon the public, but one whose members must have character, capacity, and adequate training, to the end that they may feel their responsibility not only to their profession, but to the public that they are licensed to serve.

THE AIMS AND IDEALS OF THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

WILLIAM J. MAYO, ROCHESTER, MINN.

Early medicine was satisfied largely by an appeal to the emotions, and sickness and health were supposed to be controlled by the gods. While we have gained enormously in developing a sound system in the practice of medicine based on science, man has not outgrown those fundamental characteristics of physical fear in the dark and mental fear in the presence of the unknown, but, through many generations of contact with an advancing civilization, has obtained better control of his emotions. The same emotional appeal to ignorance and superstition still exists, however, the appeal being made through cults and quackeries, which change as the fraud of the old forms becomes apparent.

If all fools were knaves, it would be possible to control the evil influence resulting from prejudice and ignorance and prevent many of the miseries of mankind, but unfortunately the fools are often, if not usually, honest. A serious attempt to control them by any means other than education only inflames their ardor and gives them the persistence of the martyrs.

The beginning of science came through Aristotle, the Greek philosopher, physician to Alexander the Great. Aristotle developed deductive reasoning and a primitive form of inductive logic, which ushered in scientific medicine. The students of Aristotle, working in the great library and museum which was established in Alexandria on the delta of the Nile by the Ptolemies, made great contributions to advancement in science in the fourth, third, and second centuries before Christ. The development of scientific methods of investigation was the greatest contribution to human advancement of the first 2000 years of medicine.

The fall of the western Roman Empire early in the sixth century A. D. submerged scientific knowledge, but fortunately through the pro-

tection of the Church this knowledge was not completely lost. During the dark ages the emotional side of medicine overshadowed the scientific, and it was not until the twelfth century, owing to the teaching of Abelard, that the emotional appeal of ignorance and superstition began to take second place in medicine. Abelard established systematic education and promulgated the dictum that understanding is essential to belief, in contradistinction to the ecclesiastical concept that belief is essential to understanding.

Scientific medicine developed rapidly in the sixteenth century after the introduction by Francis Bacon of sound methods of inductive reasoning. The new reasoning led to experimentation and research which developed scientific imagination, the building of images to be compared with known facts. In his *Novum Organum* Bacon sharply criticised the misuse of authority by the universities and showed the deadening effect on education of insistence on man-made doctrines as representing God's will.

The invention of the microscope by the Jannsen brothers in 1590 was the greatest contribution of all time to the welfare of humanity.

The higher brain of man is a visual brain and visual impressions reach directly to consciousness. Only in the primates, among whom man is predominant, has the eye direct pathways to the upper anterior brain, without passing through wayside ganglia. In all of the vertebrates except the primates, the brain has been built up from the olfactory ganglion, centering around the sense of smell. All the other senses pass through the mid-brain and various ganglia to reach consciousness. The olfactory ganglion in man as in other vertebrates has direct access to consciousness, but the sensory function has been overshadowed by that resulting from the tremendous development of the cerebrum, the visual brain.

The microscope brought into view that enormous number of minute objects lying between direct vision and $1/10$ micron or $1/250,000$ inch in diameter. In the next three centuries after its introduction the microscope gave a tremendous impetus to science in modern medicine which eventuated in the work of Pasteur, who demonstrated the living nature of microorganisms, such as bacteria and protozoa and their relation to disease. Armed with this knowledge Lister brought forward his astonishing revelations of the effect of these microorganisms which made possible in the next generation the development of methods for the prevention of infectious and contagious diseases, and added twenty years to the lifetime of man.

We speak of mass production in industry; we have its counterpart in the mass production of health, not through individual efforts but through the combined efforts of many men working as a group in the public health departments of the nation, state, and community, dealing with the welfare of infants, children, and adults, and controlling infectious and contagious diseases. Today pure water for drinking purposes, pure

milk and pure food are to be had everywhere in our country. Ignorance and superstition, however, still offer up helpless children as well as their deluded parents as a sacrifice to the ancient gods in opposition to a constructive health program.

As the trend in modern industry is toward the development of new combinations from the breaking down of the old, so in medicine similar fundamental changes are taking place. Industry has the advantage that in its experimental work it deals with replaceable materials; medicine must depend to a considerable extent on animal experimentation, which has played a magnificent part in the advance that has been made. To have value, animal experimentation must of necessity be carried out with the same humane care as surgical and medical procedures on the human patient; otherwise the experiments would be inexact and therefore worthless. It is a pity that so many well-meaning people have allowed themselves to be swayed by fallacious statements into giving aid to an active band of so-called antivivisectionists. Without real knowledge these misguided people throw every possible obstacle in the way of scientific advance in the prevention and cure of disease, and their very honesty makes them difficult to cope with. Even more unfortunate for future progress in medicine are the moneys left to establish foundations in perpetuity for such short-sighted purposes; ultimately these foundations support human parasites who, not by reason of their present opinion on the subject, but because of their "job," interfere with humanitarian movements at practically every session of every state legislature. It is a curious fact that among the opponents of animal experimentation are some ardent hunters and fishermen. It is a still more curious point of view that permits antivivisectionists to shoot game and to leave to a lingering death from wounds and starvation the injured birds and animals which they fail to bag, and to look with delight on their catch of fish slowly dying in a basket or on a string.

In the last generation so much has been added to knowledge of the vital processes of life, through researches in every field, that there has not been time to organize it properly. It is impossible for any one man today to acquire more than a working knowledge of some field in medicine, and this state of affairs will continue until scientific knowledge is so organized that the physician may gain a true perspective instead of a confused view of a mass of incompletely coordinated details.

The physician is no longer an individual practitioner, but has become dependent on fellow practitioners for the special information they possess, in order to treat the patient correctly. The physician obtains his diagnosis of infectious disease from the public health department, his x-ray examinations from a radiographer, and detailed laboratory examinations from technicians. This does not mean that the general practitioner will disappear, far from it; he will occupy an even greater position in community life than previously, in his role of guardian of the health of the people individually as well as collectively.

Scientific investigation in the ultramicroscopic field of the colloids through physics and chemistry is aiding a better understanding of the individual patient. The microscopic limit of $1/10$ micron or $1/250,000$ inch has been extended to include particulate objects of $1/1000$ micron or $1/25,000,000$ inch in diameter.

In the sixteenth century the average lifetime of man was twenty years. Modern research has advanced a better understanding of the individual and has brought the average lifetime of today up to fifty-eight years, and the end is not yet.

Our methods of medical education are in a state of flux, based on the old-fashioned idea of an individualistic system. We find ourselves attempting to educate our medical students so that they shall have a good understanding of the details of the entire range of scientific medicine. And yet we who are in the practice of medicine, by the very reason of the impossibility of comprehending more than a part, find ourselves dependent on others for detailed information.

Medical education is groping uncertainly forward. The conception ten years ago was that by providing the highest type of a premedical cultural education for a student and increasing the length of time of his medical studies he would accomplish the impossible task of becoming an all around physician. The result was to increase very greatly the expense of the medical course, limit the number of medical students, and disturb the medical outlook, until now there are many smaller communities without a trained physician. With the decrease of trained physicians there has been a corresponding increase of irregular practitioners, untrained or belonging to some peculiar cult, who satisfy the emotional appeal without the background of knowledge.

The aim of the medical schools is to prepare a sufficient number of trained physicians to care for all the people. It is evident that the present attempt to organize all of the knowledge extant for the medical student is impossible. About the best that can be done is to furnish a sound fundamental education in anatomy, physiology, and chemistry, and those branches that are known as basic science subjects. If in addition to a solid foundation we can give the medical student a perspective, a broad viewpoint, and teach him where to go for specialized information, especially as related to carrying the benefits of modern medicine to the individual, as the health departments are carrying them to the mass, we shall accomplish much.

There is a limit to the amount of learning a man can absorb. When I was in college, culture meant a deification of those things which could not be used directly for gain. The physician in England, because his knowledge was useful, went in at the back door with the boy delivering groceries.

The modern conception of education recognizes the cultural value of the useful. Admitting that the practitioner of medicine needs culture, one may ask, what constitutes culture? Sometimes as I look over the require-

ments of our premedical and medical courses and talk with the professors, I have an uncomfortable feeling that a possible object of some of the so-called cultural requirements, especially honor points, of the premedical course, is to bring the classes down to the relatively small number that can be taught conveniently. And yet we have great buildings, with expensive equipment, working comparatively few hours a day.

Again, there is a tendency to make the profession of medicine an aristocracy. The cost of medical education, the number of years before men can be selfsupporting, the age at which students graduate, averaging around twenty-seven years, is driving many bright men into other professions. Investigation has shown that the student who graduates before he is twenty-five is of greater average professional worth at the end of fifteen years than the one who graduates after twenty-five, and it has been further shown that those who rank in the second half in scholastic attainments at a medical college are at the end of fifteen years on the average of as great professional value as the first half.

The state is interested in the medical schools. For each dollar that is paid by the medical student, the state directly or through endowment funds pays two to three dollars or more. This expense on the people of the nation is borne willingly in the hope of securing competent help for the care of the sick.

If a student is unnecessarily delayed in his medical course for a year by a lack of credits, he on his part and the state on its part are put to undue expense. When one analyzes the reason for refusing this student admission to the medical school, it is sometimes learned that he would have been permitted to enter other less crowded departments of the university and that his lack of credits was often in subjects that had little to do with the practice of medicine.

At the University of Edinburgh there are today from 1000 to 1200 medical students. Are there better practitioners of medicine than the men from the University of Edinburgh? If so, I do not know them. At Guy's Hospital in London, the medical school is a part of the hospital, and the clinical teaching goes on with the medical studies in the fundamental branches.

In so vast a field as medicine I do not feel competent to say just what should be taught the student that he may become a good general practitioner, but I do believe that the function of the medical school is to turn out general practitioners, and that the man who desires to take up a specialty should take it up after graduation, and that of all the graduate subjects research is the most important—the bright hope of the future.

The requirements for general practice must change year by year as knowledge advances and new conditions are made manifest, or as old diseases are modified by environment, and changes occur in the social life of the people.

I do not advocate a letting down of standards in our medical schools, but I am convinced that one year of time could be saved in our grammar

schools and a year could be saved in our medical schools by the four-quarter system. That children in the growing age have three months' vacation in the summer is no reason that young men and women at the height of their physical vigor, in a world on a twelve-months' working basis, should have three months' vacation.

Just as conditions of medical practice have changed, so have those of nursing service, and of hospitalization. The expense of illness in the home and the attendant unavoidable disruption of home economics have created a situation that is being met by increased facilities for hospitalization. Today every community with civic pride is establishing a community hospital, where the sick can be cared for better, and at less expense, than at home.

The glory of medicine is that it is constantly moving forward, that there is always more to learn. The ills of today do not cloud the horizon of tomorrow, but act as a spur to greater effort. The triumph of the medical profession lies in the victory over physical ailments of man. The failure lies in an inability to appreciate and deal intelligently with the emotional instabilities of those physically ill or those with inherited or acquired instabilities of the nervous system which lead to miseries as grievous as though they were dependent on tangible physical causes. We must not forget that happiness is a state of mind, not necessarily of body, and that life is what each person believes it to be. The sick man needs faith, faith in his physician, but there comes a time when faith in a higher power may be necessary to sustain his morale. Notwithstanding the narrow creeds and misuse of authority which has so frequently characterized the church, religion based on the Sermon on the Mount and carrying the comfort of the Twenty-third Psalm of David, gives great assurance.

There is a tendency of the times for a group of intellectuals, that is, persons who have been educated beyond their intelligence, to underrate the value of religion as the universal comforter in times of physical or spiritual stress, but to the mass of the people, religion has the same potency that it has had for two thousand years.

The aim of medicine is to prevent disease and prolong life, the ideal of medicine is to eliminate the need of a physician.

THE STANDARDS AND IDEALS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

MARY MCSKIMMON, PRINCIPAL, PIERCE SCHOOL, BROOKLINE, MASS.

As one scans the program of this convention of the greatest educational organization in the world, it is hard to believe that the National Education Association was begun barely seventy-one years ago. Today it exists only to improve the public schools in which our country feels so great a satisfaction. For neither her part in the conquest of the air, nor her enormous wealth, her rich mines and richer harvest fields, nor the prosperity and contentment of her millions, nor even the fine friendship with far

away neighbors can measure up to America's pride in her system of public schools. "It is counted one of the cornerstones of our greatness."

Step by step the National Education Association has kept pace with the demand of the leaders of a progress toward better things for America, and today it has become a stimulus to ever greater achievement through its nearly 200,000 members and through them to thousands more. It seeks to serve the childhood and youth and adult students with its ever increasing power to achieve.

It is bewildering to realize that our great systems of education are of such recent growth. Tens of thousands of teachers know of the dame schools only as a curious tale in half forgotten biographies, but in the generation just before the older ones among us it was an actual experience even for the well-born child.

Two years before his death in 1891, James Russell Lowell, then only recently returned from his ambassadorship at the court of St. James, gave at the Lowell Institute of Boston, a course of lectures on the old English dramatists, that it was my high privilege to enjoy. The poet's first schooling had been obtained from a dame's school, as he himself often related. Even as recently as a single century ago the task of early education was so little understood that any old lady, set aside from useful occupation in the household by reason of her years, could with the aid of a switch keep the restless little group before her, quiet long enough to learn to say the letters, to spell the words in the New England Primer, recite the godly precepts therein, and depart when their aged teacher feared that the growing strength and swift retreat from the all powerful rod left her helpless to continue as the ruler of her little kingdom. Then the child was usually turned over to the minister as tutor for the Latin and Greek required for college entrance. The child of common folk was delegated to the district school of that day, and the cruelty, inefficiency, and ignorance of the teacher were matters completely ignored by the communities in which they flourished until the first great survey of Horace Mann, which may be found in his reports to the Massachusetts Board of Education.

Let us think for a moment how near to us in time those great educational leaders are whose wisdom still stimulates the American teacher. When our preliminary association was formed in 1857, Horace Mann was president of Antioch College in Ohio, where he died two years later. Mann had established the first normal school in Lexington in 1839, just eleven years after the death of Pestalozzi, whose insight into the hardships of the common people and whose sympathy with childhood must have made an indelible impression on our great American apostle of education. Herbert and Froebel were Mann's contemporaries, and their wisdom and far reaching service to the cause of real education kindled Horace Mann's deepest devotion and inspired his European visit with profound delight and benefit. Arnold was then making his contribution to Rugby that was to change the face of England. He, also, together with Henry Barnard of Connecticut, was Mann's contemporary. Our own former president, William T. Harris, was twenty-four when Mann died; our later president, Charles W.

Eliot, was twenty-five; and G. Stanley Hall was thirteen; Col. Francis W. Parker was twenty-two. Each one of these noble men worked with his fine mind already awakened to the inner demand of finding his own way to make his great gift to the building of American education. Our great educational philosopher, John Dewey, recently and reverently given the title of the second Confucius by one of China's wisest old scholars of the day, was born the very year that America's first great leader, Horace Mann, died.

The forerunner of our Association was begun at the city of Philadelphia during the summer of 1857. The group to which we owe our origin worked valiantly to establish an organization where each might profit from the experience of his fellow workers, that education might be rescued from prejudice and indifference, and made a real contribution to the development of a great and free people. They used no vague or idle formulas in expressing to the world their real aims. First and foremost they harked back to that great principle of the Declaration of Independence through which in eighty years our country had made progress that had astonished thoughtful people everywhere. Their first aim was clearly stated: To promote the educational welfare of our country.

No one can read even the program of this Minneapolis meeting so nobly planned by President Adair without realizing how faithfully our Association has wrought to realize the standard set by this first plank in that beginning platform. Today the leaders in our American public schools are working in twenty great departments and eighteen nation-wide committees to accomplish this aim. We are the dispensers of a great budget, the possessors of a beautiful headquarters building at the Capitol which is the pride of the profession, with its effective organization of the entire list of the activities represented in the organizations of the American schools of today. If the reports of the service rendered this week by the chairmen of the National Education Association committees could be read by every teacher in the land, we should in a single year have gone far toward the enrolment of the entire profession. Our departments include those of Superintendents, Secondary School Principals, Elementary Principals, Classroom Teachers, Adult and Business and Rural Education, Deans of Women, Lip Reading, Science, Social Studies, Visual Instruction, Health and Vocational Education. We are allied with the American Classical League, Home Economics Association, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, National Council of Administrative Women in Education, National Council of Geography Teachers, Teachers of English, Vocational Guidance Association, and School Garden Association. Our committees include one on the Ethics of the Profession, International Relations, Legislative Commission, Tenure, Cooperation with National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, Economic Status of the Teacher, and on Educational Cooperation between States. Surely the first promise of the founders is being kept.

The second principle of the founders was: To concentrate the wisdom and power of each for the benefit of all. How well they built! How well

this second plank of their concise platform has bridged the way for all that has followed. It has made safe and sure the disseminating of the seed for the harvests that have followed. Our Association gathers the treasure of thought, ideals, and experience into the heart and mind of the listeners first, then extends this knowledge through the printed pages of the volume of *Proceedings*. Did this earnest group of that first meeting even catch a glimpse of the tons of paper and ink necessary to convey this "wisdom and power of each for the benefit of all" of today's annual meeting? Was this the unconscious response of the newly awakened professional spirit to Horace Mann's pleading with the people of his day to do away with the ignorant adventurer usurping the sacred task of the teacher, and help to build a real profession that should aim to develop each child into the finest powers, skills, attitudes, and ideals possible for his achievement? Were these early leaders anticipating the challenge of Col. Francis Parker thrilling us as if uttered only yesterday: "Sin and sorrow, the dark background of life, which tinge with permanent sadness the dark background of our older hearts, do not belong to childhood. A joyful youth is the best preparation for an earnest manhood." Wisdom and power are ever the gift of leadership. They belong, alas, still to the few today as of that other day. But we know they can be shared with the multitude, even of our children, even as to the five loaves and two small fishes of that nameless child fed the hungry throng beside the Lake of Gallilee that far off divine day.

Before that early meeting for forming an association of teachers had ended, the members had agreed upon the third and last article of fundamental principles: To contribute of their own means to advance the dignity, the respectability, and the usefulness of their calling. When we recall the fact that the average salary of the teacher in America only ten years ago was \$780, and realize that sixty years earlier in those communities whose records have been preserved the sum was less than one third of that amount, we begin to have some idea of the sacrifice required to make that agreement. Of the usefulness of their calling they needed no convincing argument, for they better than any other knew the transforming power of education upon the eager mind of childhood. It was not merely an accomplishment, it was civilization itself. The dignity and respectability were granted only to the rare and exceptional teacher like Mary Lyon or Maria Mitchell; Louis Agassiz or Nathaniel Shaler. For more than half a century the great literary presentation of a teacher was that despicable coward Ichabod Crane. Surely the need of advancing the "dignity and respectability" of teaching was more than a fleeting desire. We realize the power of a real leader in education today from the experience of one of our recent presidents, lately superintendent of schools in Oakland. On his departure to take up new work in Colorado, the chamber of commerce presented Dr. Frederick M. Hunter with a bronze plate bearing the inscription, "Because of your coming among us, we are made a new people." Could any finer tribute be the answer to the hope of those earnest pioneers who started our first trail to better days for the American teacher?

What then does the National Education Association need, organized as it is with its great Research Division whose findings are honored in every town and city where the problems of education are really studied for a wise and honest solution; with its classroom teachers grouped together for study of their problems, passing on to their fellow works throughout the country the solutions as they find them; with the great Department of Elementary School Principals whose yearbook has been used in the colleges of education from its first volume? What can we ask of more service to education than the great Department of Superintendence that is binding this country together in the best that each one know, making curriculums for our new needs. What more does education fitted to America's need demand of us?

We are waiting for the heart and mind of this country to be kindled anew even as it was kindled in the days of Horace Mann, and as it was kindled later when this organization of ours was first formed. We are waiting to have the research that is necessary to discover the best and wisest methods of teaching, training the retarded child for a life of happy usefulness; helping the gifted child to make his best contribution to the service of his country. We await the day when the best discoveries in educational procedure shall no longer be the possession of some favored teachers but as free to all teachers as the discoveries about seed, and harvestings, abolition of insect pests, and knowledge of weather conditions are free to the farmers through the United States Department of Agriculture.

There are better ways of accomplishing the service that shall make finer citizens than the great army of us teachers have yet attained, and those better ways are the possessions of favored towns and cities here and there throughout the land. We await that happy day when the teacher of the country school and the city school alike shall be in possession of the knowledge that shall solve problems that confront the earnest teacher constantly, the problems of a mind that does not work normally, of a disposition that has gone awry.

This Association believes that there is one sure and definite means by which these needs will one day be fulfilled. It will be when this country has realized its great need through the universal acquirement by the schools of the knowledge of how to salvage its human wealth through the spread of the results gained by expert research. Only the influence and prestige of our federal government can accomplish this research and make its findings the common inheritance of every teacher. We await that happy day when our country shall demand a Federal Department of Education with a Secretary in the president's cabinet.

Last summer I found out how much easier it is to command the help of expert research to save a little tree than to save a child from destruction. A score of miles from my little camp a young teacher, fresh from the normal school, had been deliberately and cruelly murdered by a lad of fifteen. The boy had a wellknown record for acts of cruelty toward the farm animals, but the young teacher had no knowledge of any authority to whom

she could apply for help in the mental disease as shown by the boy's life history and daily practice.

But I had a row of little white pines that had made beautiful growth the first two years after transplanting, but last August every little stem turned yellow and the delicate needles drooped. In trying to save the little trees planted with so much care and growing so willingly, I broke off a handful of the twigs and sent them to a tree authority in the nearest city. Within two days he wrote that he was very much interested in the specimens. It was a very strange and unusual disease he believed that had attacked my little trees, something that he called "geometrid." He asked to have a case filled with twigs and sent to a scientific school in another state, where there was equipment for more intensive study in order that he might be sure his diagnosis was correct. The case was filled and sent on its way. Soon came the analysis from this great school that the earlier diagnosis had been wrong and the second opinion was that the condition was the result of the spittle disease. This authority asked to have specimens sent to still another great laboratory. "We want to be sure that we have established this disease correctly." Other specimens were forwarded and soon the answer came back that it was not geometrid, it was not spittle disease. The diseased condition was due to the over frequent rain in Maine and the little trees had been drowned.

Now what could I have done if I had been a teacher down in that district with a child growing wrong? How could I have had the opinion of the great scientists to help me understand the trouble with the child? Is not a child of more value than many trees? And is it not going to be possible some day for us to arouse this great nation to the need of a department of education for many things for the improvement of education, but chiefly, as far as we in the schools are concerned, for the help that every teacher will have in solving these human problems that come her way.

We are building for this great America, and we cannot let any portion of this building go wrong through our lack of getting the right material into the building. Our great country looks to us today as no land has ever looked before to a group of men and women. The people of America are looking to the schools to build the America of today finer and nobler than any America that we have yet known. We have everything of a material kind with which to build. Our children are in our hand today and tomorrow they will be sailing on that great adventure, away from our care and keeping.

Thou, too, sail on, O Ship of State!
Sail on, O Union, strong and great!
Humanity, with all its fears,
With all the hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate!
We know what Master laid thy keel,
What Workmen wrought thy ribs of steel,
Who made each mast, and sail, and rope;
What anvils rang, what hammers beat,
In what a forge and what a heat

Were forged the anchors of thy hope!
Fear not each sudden sound and shock—
'T is of the wave, and not the rock;
'T is but the flapping of the sail,
And not a rent made by the gale!
In spite of rock, and tempest's roar,
In spite of false lights on the shore,
Sail on, nor fear to breast the sea!
Our hearts, our hopes, are all with thee,
Our hearts, our hopes, our prayers, our tears,
Our faith triumphant o'er our fears,
Are all with thee,—are all with thee!

LOOKING AHEAD

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

Henry Ford says that the United States is the biggest job in the world and that its bigness has largely been made in the last six or seven years. There isn't any question but that since 1920 there have been greater achievements industrially, commercially, civically, and educationally than ever before in American history.

This Association this week has the best program that I have known in fifty-nine years because it is a program of achievement, the most remarkable, the most wonderful meeting, a miraculous meeting. We have had seventy-one programs and the word "psychology" hasn't been mentioned. Nothing has been evaluated, nothing has been motivated and nobody has oriented himself. If that isn't a miracle, I don't know a miracle when I see it. Everywhere from start to finish the question has been achievement, and we have had a great achievement.

The three most marvelous achievements have been the unanimity with which this Association a year ago elected a classroom teacher to make up this program, the first classroom teacher in the history of the Association, and last Winter the Department of Superintendence elected for its president the superintendent of a small city who has never written a book on professional education and this year you have elected unanimously a man principal of a state teachers college.

I don't use stories any more but I do use illustrations sometimes. It so happens that the daily papers have had a wonderful change of heart. Before 1920 every paper talked about thundershowers. Now they talk about electrical storms. Thunder never does anything but make a noise, just makes a noise in an attempt to frighten timid people, but electricity is the greatest force that man controls, and we need to realize that we are passing from thunder to power—from noise to achievement.

And it isn't ourselves alone. The universities of America last June gave degrees to 100,000 young people who learned what they were told to learn as they were told to learn it and none of those 100,000 got any attention from the public press except where the institutions were and at their homes, but those same universities this year gave their highest degree

only to people of achievement, and they changed that word honorary degree to achievement degree. They have given a doctor's degree to a man for what he has achieved in China. They have given to Lindbergh in Wisconsin—they wouldn't give him a degree when he wouldn't do as they wanted him to do when they wanted him to do it—their highest honor when he did something that he wanted to do as he wanted to do it and as no university on earth could teach him to do it. And today the universities and this Association leading off in it are saying to the world, to our boys and girls and to our young men:

Do what you can do best in school and out and you will be rewarded for achievement in and out.

GREETINGS FROM HAWAII

F. E. HOWARD, PRESIDENT, HAWAIIAN EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
HAMAKUAPOKO, MAUI, HAWAII

In the middle of the Pacific Ocean at a distance of over 2000 miles from the mainland is the territory of Hawaii, the western frontier of America, with its 2300 public school teachers and many others who are associated with the National Education Association. These teachers have sent you an Aloha which in Hawaii may mean anything nice but which in this case means a wish for your happiness and your continued prosperity and activity, and so great is this Aloha which we bring that it took twenty delegates to convey it.

You as members of the representative assembly of the great army of teachers of America want to hear about Hawaii and its schools, its teachers, and what they are doing, and how we fit into the educational procedure.

Hawaiian teachers take great pride in that they have ranked first of all the states and territories in their percentage of membership in this organization for a number of years. Some of you who have never noted the data will be surprised to learn that Hawaii has 2300 public school teachers and over 2600 members of the National Education Association. Hawaii's percentage of membership is therefore about 115. Immediately, one would wonder how this is, and the explanation is to be found in a number of different features.

In the first place Hawaii has a number of private schools where the teachers are as professionally minded as the teachers in the public schools. Also, there are members of the parent-teacher association, not teachers, to swell our membership in this Association. Together we present a membership considerably in excess of the registration of public school teachers.

Our teachers have to economize. Some economize on entertainment, some perhaps on clothing and mayhap some even on food, but they never economize by neglecting to become members of the National Education Association.

We are proud of this record, but I do not think we are conceited about it. Conceit is foreign to the Hawaiian's nature.

The extension work of the territory normal school is of enough importance to warrant mention here. Three years ago the president of the normal school and the director of extension launched a scheme for the improvement of teachers in service by starting their extension work away from Honolulu, which is the home of the normal school.

The experiment was first tried out on the Island of Maui where the first center was organized with an enrolment of about thirty-five grammar school teachers. The next semester saw additional centers on all of the more important isles, until today there are seventeen centers where extension is carried on and there is an enrolment among the teachers of the territory of about 600. Today in the summer session of the territorial normal school there is an enrolment of approximately 1000 teachers, or forty percent of the public school teachers of the island, and if the National Education Association had not been holding its meeting here this year, the twenty delegates who sit in this assembly would undoubtedly have been in the Honolulu summer session of the territorial normal school.

Since coming to this convention I have been interested in studying some of the data that has been furnished us in the matter of life membership. I find that Hawaii cannot rank first in this matter. We are surpassed first by the Virgin Islands where we find there is one life member to every sixteen teachers, and to the Virgin Islands we offer our sincere felicitations. Washington, D. C., comes next, and without any intended offense, we would say that we would expect Washington, D. C. to set us this good example. Arizona appears to come next with a higher percentage of life-members than Hawaii, and to Arizona we present our congratulations.

We would like to come down and shake your hand and give you an Aloha and find out how you do it so we can go back and do it. Next comes Hawaii with its twelve members, or a life member for each less than 200. Thus, while we do not lead in our percentage of membership among the life members, yet you might say that we occupy a position of honorable mention and we congratulate those who have surpassed.

Hawaii is a long way from Minneapolis. For practically one week we journeyed on the water before we saw land, and then another four days on the train were necessary before we reached your wonderful Twin Cities. In our isolation in Hawaii we recognize that we do not have immediate access to the great things in education that may take the attention of the teacher who occupies an urban position, but with fewer distractions we enter on the work which we can do and which seems most important to us. This is the explanation for our rank of No. 1 in the percentage of membership and near that point in the matter of life memberships and also for the great interest in the professional growth offered in the extension work.

Hawaii owes much to this organization. The NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION JOURNAL is not hastily laid aside in Hawaii, but after its receipt, its articles form a basis for much study and comment of the teachers who read and reread the articles.

We have received assistance from this organization also in a more material way. Up until the present time teachers of Hawaii have been subject to the federal income tax. The last session of congress finally placed the teachers of Hawaii on the same basis as the teachers of the states, and next year for the first time we will be exempt from this tax which has never been a burden to you, and the National Education Association has assisted us in this matter. In fact, Hawaii looks to the National Education Association as it should, as the organization which best expresses educational leadership in this democracy.

Some day Hawaii hopes to act as host to the National Education Association at their annual convention. We are not actively engaged in soliciting the support of the organization for this honor. We do not want you to come until you come of your own volition and with the same unanimity with which you nominate candidates for your presidency. When you come you will receive an Aloha which will linger in your memory until you are no more.

Some day Hawaii hopes to be represented in the flag of our country by an additional star. Today we are ready economically. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1927, the territory of Hawaii led thirteen states in the amount of money paid into the federal treasury in taxes and other contributions. We are ready economically.

The objection to statehood at the present time is that we have too great an alien population, but this objection, while true at the present time, will not necessarily remain true forever. Great numbers of children of alien ancestry are of American birth, and it is the duty of the schools to transform these aliens into good American citizens. We believe that we are accomplishing this result with more than a fair measure of success. Upon the schools of Hawaii rests this obligation and we accept it without reservation.

Far out in the Pacific Ocean there are 2300 teachers waiting for us to return and bring back to them the inspiration of these meetings. They would like to be here to partake of it. By their order they have directed us to bring to you and to our officers an Aloha, more especially to bring something tangible which at this time the Hawaiian people will assist me in delivering.

Madam President, I am directed by these people to make a presentation to you at this time. The lei is revered by all the people of Hawaii. It is a token of friendship. When an Hawaiian gives, he gives that which he himself holds dear, and today we are presenting to you a lei, and it is fitting that the actual presentation be made by one of Hawaiian blood; Miss Muriel Heen will now wait on you. And in conclusion for our own teachers back in Hawaii, I wish you Aloha nui nui.

GREETINGS FROM THE GERMAN TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

MAX ZIMPEL, PROFESSOR IN HIGH SCHOOL AT FRANKFORT-AM-MAIN,
GERMANY

I have the honor to present to you the heartiest greetings from the German Teachers' Association.

Our national education association has 150,000 members and embraces three-fourths of the German teachers.

I did not come directly from Germany. I am here to learn. I have got two years leave of absence in order to study thoroughly your educational system.

Germany is a young republic, but a republic thoroughly different from yours. Your republic is like a vast community, full of natural resources. You have therefore plenty of room and you are prosperous. Our republic is a small house with a big family in it. You are a real commonwealth, bound together by the common profit, we might be called a common-poverty, forged together by nineteen years full of need and hardships. A union must be based on law, our family requires love. When you obey your laws, you are called good, loyal citizens. Our republic demands more than loyalty; it must be brotherhood. You can say to your fellow-neighbor: Help yourself! We must live according to the motto: One for all, and all for one.

In the course of your history you have developed the highest type of good citizenship. You have had the finest leaders: Washington, Franklin, Lincoln, and you live up to their high ideals. I have found this everywhere.

I found good citizenship in your public life, in your homes, in your service clubs, in your churches, among farmers and businessmen, in the American Legion, among your school children, and last, but not least, among your leaders and here in this wonderful convention.

In the years that the German republic has existed, we have tried to develop brotherhood in our professional, national and international life.

We German teachers especially do not feel to be a profession, we are a real brotherhood. Like the old crusaders we are a fighting and a charitable body. We have to fight against all the old traditions and prejudices so strong in the Old World. They will not recognize that all men are created equal and that everyone has inalienable rights on life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness. We teachers have therefore the slogan: We will raise the standard of our people by raising the standard of our schools! Every second year we have a national convention, and these gatherings are not cheerful get-togethers, but real battles. We know how to fight. Only two topics are discussed, the two most burning questions of the day. And in these battles we have achieved many things:

We all are appointed for lifetime, after seven years successful teaching; we are all paid on the same scale, teachers in rural schools get the same

salary as in urban districts. Only two differences exists, in the house allowance, this of course being lower in villages than in big cities, and in regard to the family of the teacher. For each child a special allowance is granted, five dollars a month up to the age of eighteen. The salaries are increasing automatically, the maximum is reached at the age of fifty. We have further a very good pension scheme. At the age of sixty-five we can retire and get three-fourths of our last income. In case of death the widow gets two-thirds of the pension of her husband as long as she lives and an additional sum for each child who is not a wage-earner. We are supervised only by the state, and all our supervisors are also appointed for lifetime, thus being enabled to carry out far-reaching programs, undisturbed by political and local influences. Two-thirds of our teachers are men, only one-third women. The salary is a little better for women. They get nine-tenths of the man's salary, but only teach twenty-four hours a week, whereas a man is obliged to teach thirty hours; (a survival of the old idea to consider the women as the weaker sex).

We are also a charitable brotherhood. The teachers have started among themselves insurances against illness, fire, and theft. They help when widows and orphans are in need or scholarships are wanted. They own houses for recreation on the sea and in the mountains. They help wherever they can.

With brotherhood we try to fill our national life. For half a century we have had our social laws, protecting each laborer against old age, invalidity, and illness. These laws have been greatly improved under the republican government, and to them the unemployment insurance has been added. Brotherhood did not allow two millions of unemployed workers with six million women and children to starve or be driven into despair. To stop the bad housing conditions the government has disowned great properties and has built large colonies of small holdings. The building of houses is encouraged by loans from the government at low interest, etc. But the finest fruit on the tree of brotherhood is the German youth movement. Millions of young men and women go out on Saturday afternoon and Sunday, fond of hiking and helping, enjoying songs and sports, simple life and hardships, a very great number opposed to drinking and smoking. They like to join their political opponents, in order to get broadminded and to understand each other.

Is it necessary to show that we have brought brotherhood also into our international life? Have we now shown that we are willing to forget by joining the League of Nations, by signing the Locarno treaty, renouncing all future wars? Is it not strange that in our new Republican constitution we find nearly the same objective for our teaching as it is stated by your P. T. A. All instruction given in our schools shall build into the lives of children such ideals of justice, goodwill, and cooperation as will remove the causes of war and lead to universal peace? Have we

not announced immediately our willingness to outlaw war when your splendid Secretary of State, Mr. Kellogg, made his wonderful proposal? Has not the man who knows Germany better than any one else, your excellent ambassador in Berlin, Mr. Thurman, said quite recently: "There are only two real republics in the world now-a-days, The United States being the one and Germany being the other."

With this, dear friends, I have come back to America. Fifteen thousand good citizens have come to this convention; fifteen thousand better citizens, leaders of the coming generation, will go out today and tomorrow from this beautiful town of the laughing water as heralds of justice and love. Your splendid president, Miss Adair, has earned international recognition by bringing together people from four continents, all with the same message: Peace on earth, and goodwill toward man.

Citizenship has been our watchword for this whole week. Turn it into brotherhood. You are too modest when you call yourself only good citizens. All your papers have shown that you are already thinking and acting in terms of brotherhood. Also your great republic is becoming more and more one large family. Not the need brings you together, it is the progress of mankind that unites you and all of us with irresistible power. Already now automobiles, airplanes and radio connect the remotest corners of the earth. Lindbergh, the finest type of American manhood, has linked together, a second Columbus, the New and the Old World by air. In a few weeks a huge German airship, the dirigible Count Zeppelin, will make a ten thousand mile non-stop flight from Friedrichshafen to Los Angeles to see what his little sister is doing whom we sent you a few years ago. Your world is shrinking, shrinking, shrinking. Your neighbors come nearer and nearer to your house.

Henry Ford, our great contemporary, has written a wonderful book, *Today and Tomorrow*. We have translated it and changed the title into *The Great Today and the Greater Tomorrow*. He is right when he says: America enjoys a great today, because her people are good citizens; he is wrong, when he says this great today must be followed by a greater tomorrow. Things might alter. When you forget your neighbors, your neighbors will not forget you. One day you might awake and find the United States of Europe and of Asia, perhaps even of Africa, and I am doubtful, if this would mean a greater tomorrow for the U. S. A.

Today you are the richest nation in the world; that does not mean you are happier than other nations. You have only the greatest responsibility. Will you leave for Germany the honor to lead in universal brotherhood? We have started in this direction, but we enjoy our splendid isolation. Our way is rather lonesome and full of dangers: We are now the pilgrim fathers! We are the pioneers! Can you proud people bear it to see us ahead! Come along! You will find a hard struggle! We are old

soldiers, and new and eager sportsmen. If you can defeat us, we will be as happy losers as you and the world will be happy winners.

And now let me finish with a hearty invitation to your National Education Association to send a delegation to our German convention next year. You will find the heartiest welcome in our teaching brotherhood, all of you, especially when you come to my home in Thur. What it means to understand a foreign country, you can see it with me. After one and a half years I admire America, I love her, and I pray for her.

Reports of Committees

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON ETHICS OF THE PROFESSION

SARAH T. MUIR, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA, CHAIRMAN

THE committee on ethics of the profession which has been in existence for four years has steadfastly aimed to prepare for the members of the National Education Association a code of ethics which should express the actual belief of the members of the teaching profession themselves.

What the committees delegated to draft codes of ethics for teachers in the various states believed to be ethical was studied by the committee on ethics of the profession and an analysis made of the findings in the report of 1926. What standards of conduct the individuals in the profession are willing to be guided by is the subject of this report.

The committee has been strengthened by four years of investigation in the belief that a code is needed for the following reasons:

1. The increased power and better training of teachers demands higher standards of professional conduct.
2. Those who have taken up the profession seriously are guided by worthy ethical principles in the main, but need support.
3. The working principles of those who look upon teaching as a profession should be made available to all in order that those who are entering the profession may have as a guide a definition of what a professional teacher is.
4. For the sake of the teacher himself and in the interests of education there should be a formulated code of ethics and means established to give authority to the code.

Since a code of ethics can be of little avail without the acceptance of it by a large body of those whom it concerns, the committee bent its efforts to discover how much agreement could be found in a list of practices gleaned from various state codes and elsewhere.

To accomplish this, a questionnaire was framed by the committee and sent out to a selected list of 3145 teachers in January, 1928. The teachers represented every status in the profession and were distributed fairly as to locality. To each state was sent the quota proportionate to the membership in the N. E. A., the largest number, 238, going to Pennsylvania and the smallest, four, to Nevada.

The mailing lists used were submitted on request by the executive secretaries of the state organizations. Unfortunately, ten states and territories did not send in names of representative members of the N. E. A.; hence, questionnaires could not be sent to these states. Those states are listed on the following page.

From these 3145 questionnaires, there are 1606 replies at the time of writing this report. Considering the fact that a follow-up was not sent nor a return envelop and postage included, this percent of responses may be considered satisfactory.

As the questionnaires came in they were placed in three groups, namely, chief executives, administrative subordinates, and classroom teachers. Under chief executives were placed replies from persons who hold chief

executive positions such as college and university presidencies and superintendencies of schools. Under administrative subordinates were placed questionnaires from such persons as assistant superintendents, principals, assistant principals, and deans. Under teachers were placed all persons not included in the two aforementioned groups. This list included, particularly, classroom teachers and supervisors. The responses of the members of these three groups have been kept separate as a perusal of the material will show.

NUMBER OF QUESTIONNAIRES SENT TO EACH STATE

State	Number	State	Number
Alaska	15	Montana	31
Arizona	9	Nebraska	65
California	161	Nevada	4
Colorado	46	New Mexico	26
Connecticut	39	North Carolina	141
Delaware	6	North Dakota	29
Florida	47	Ohio	200
Georgia	80	Oklahoma	76
Idaho	27	Oregon	35
Illinois	218	Pennsylvania	238
Indiana	115	Rhode Island	17
Iowa	123	South Carolina	68
Kansas	88	South Dakota	42
Kentucky	62	Texas	192
Louisiana	58	Utah	21
Maine	33	Vermont	10
Maryland	40	Washington	65
Massachusetts	100	West Virginia	80
Michigan	138	Wisconsin	116
Minnesota	105	Wyoming	16
Missouri	163		
Total			3145
Names of members of the N. E. A. were not sent to us by the following states and territories hence questionnaires were not sent to or received from them:			
Alabama		New Jersey	
Arkansas		New York	
District of Columbia		Tennessee	
Mississippi		Virginia	
New Hampshire		Hawaii	

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

1201 Sixteenth Street

Washington, D. C.

Sarah T. Muir, Chairman
Committee on Ethics

1801 South 17th Street
Lincoln, Nebraska

To members of the teaching profession:

The committee on ethics of the profession of the National Education Association is undertaking a study of professional ethics for teachers with the expectation of securing information which it will use in designing a code to be recommended for adoption by the National Education Association. Any code of ethics to be worthwhile, and to secure the approval of the members of the profession, must represent a cross section of the highest ideals of the members of the profession. We have seen no method of securing your assistance except through the use of a questionnaire. The committee has formulated a select list of 4000 teachers, prin-

cipals, state and local superintendents, and other members of the profession to whom to send this questionnaire. Your name is on that list. It will require a few minutes to write your answers, but you may be sure that in giving such time you will be contributing something toward the advancement of the profession. We plead for an answer to our questionnaire from each one of the 4000 to whom it is sent and for the response within the next ten days. Any information which you give will be kept confidential.

Please return the questionnaire to Professor Ward G. Reeder, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Mr. Reeder is secretary of the committee and will supervise the tabulation of the material.

Sincerely yours,

SARAH T. MUIR, Chairman.

"Please answer every one of the following questions by checking your views in the proper column. For example, if in answering Question 1, you think it is ethical 'to apply for a position not known to be vacant,' place your check mark in the 'Yes' column; if you think the practise mentioned is not ethical, place your check mark in the 'No' column; if your answer to the question would depend upon circumstances, place your check mark in the column headed 'Depends.' If you place your check mark in the last column, it would be extremely helpful to the committee if you would explain on a numbered inserted sheet your answer to each question so answered. The word teacher is meant to include teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, etc."

Thirty-nine more or less common practises of members of the profession were listed in the questionnaire. Besides being asked to indicate by a check mark which of those thirty-nine practises were considered ethical and which unethical, the recipients of the questionnaire were requested to comment, whenever they wished, on the questions and to list in order of their seriousness and frequency the six most unethical practises in which members of the profession engage. Because of lack of clerical help and of time, only the replies of the chief executives (president and superintendents) have as yet been tabulated.

Since the tabulation of these illuminating comments and explanations is incomplete, the first part of this analysis will be confined to a consideration of the vote on the original thirty-nine queries. The tables will show the figures which are under consideration.

"Is it ethical?" asks the questionnaire and then follows the list of practises. Classroom teachers, administrative subordinates, and chief executives are alike in placing the item listed as number six in the questionnaire at the head of unethical practises. For "a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a position in another community because he does not want to lose her services" is condemned by 95.97 percent of the classroom teachers, 96.40 percent of the administrative subordinates,

Is it ethical	Yes	No	De- pends
1. To apply for a position not known to be vacant?			
2. For a teacher to apply for a position directly to a board instead of to the superintendent or to a similar executive?			
3. To accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant was dismissed unjustly?			
4. To fail to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been accepted?			
5. To accept a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is superintendent of schools?			
6. For a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a position in another community because he does not want to lose her services?			
7. For a school official to go to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him, before he has conferred with her present officials?			
8. To issue or use a "to-whom-it-may-concern" testimonial?			
9. To fail to give all pertinent facts when writing recommendations?			
10. To bid or underbid for a position?			
11. To seek an offer elsewhere for the purpose of securing advancement in one's present position?			
12. To enter a combination to force increases in salaries?			
13. To break a contract to accept another position?			
14. To dismiss, or recommend for dismissal, a teacher without giving her ample notice and an opportunity to be heard?			
15. To endeavor to secure or to maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising?			
16. To discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents?			
17. To teach one's religious, political, or other private beliefs to pupils?			
18. To accept pay for tutoring one's own pupils?			
19. To accept gifts from pupils?			
20. To accept pupils expelled from other schools until the expelling authority has been consulted?			
21. For school officials not to consult their subordinates before they make policies?			
22. To go "over the heads" of one's superiors?			
23. To fail to support school policies until they are changed even though one does not agree with them?			
24. To violate official correspondence or conversation among teachers?			
25. For school officials to change pupils marks?			
26. For school officials to take the side of pupils against teachers?			
27. For one teacher to mark the work of a pupil in another teacher's class or to interfere in disciplinary or other problems?			
28. To fail to defend members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked?			
29. To censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, including inefficiency, within the profession?			
30. To fail to be a progressive student of education?			
31. To fail to encourage the fit to enter, and to discourage the unfit from entering the profession?			
32. To use the profession as a stepping stone to other professions or vocations?			
33. To criticize the profession?			
34. To do more than to vote for candidates in a political campaign?			
35. To engage in a practise of recreation, dress, etc., of which the community does not approve?			
36. To fail to participate in activities for community betterment?			
37. To write general testimonials for salesmen?			
38. To solicit sample textbooks?			
39. To act as an agent for, or receive a commission, royalty, or anything of value from books or supplies in the purchase of which he or she exercises official decision?			

A LIST OF COMMON UNETHICAL PRACTICES

Please list here in the order of their seriousness and frequency the six most unethical practices which you have observed that teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents most frequently engage in and of which you think that a code of ethics should take cognizance.

- (1) _____
- (2) _____
- (3) _____
- (4) _____
- (5) _____
- (6) _____

Your name _____

Position _____

Address _____

TABLE I.—SUMMARY OF RESPONSES OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

No. of Question	Total "Yes"	Per cent "Yes"	Total "No"	Per cent "No"	Total depends unqualified	Per cent depends unqualified	Total depends qualified	Per cent depends qualified	Total unanswered	Per cent unanswered	Total replies
1.....	85	13.15	383	59.28	92	14.24	73	11.30	13	2.01	646
2.....	85	13.15	396	61.30	105	16.25	54	8.35	6	.92	646
3.....	117	18.11	341	52.78	105	16.25	68	10.52	15	2.32	646
4.....	59	9.13	537	83.12	22	3.40	16	2.47	12	1.85	646
5.....	303	46.90	152	23.52	114	17.64	67	10.37	10	1.54	646
6.....	17	2.63	620	95.97	2	.30	5	.77	2	.30	646
7.....	107	16.56	440	68.11	51	7.89	32	4.95	16	2.47	646
8.....	226	34.98	289	44.73	61	9.44	40	6.19	30	4.64	646
9.....	37	5.72	509	78.79	58	8.97	29	4.48	13	2.01	646
10.....	42	6.50	556	86.06	20	3.09	16	2.47	12	1.85	646
11.....	207	32.04	333	51.54	69	10.68	28	4.33	9	1.38	646
12.....	121	18.73	290	44.89	148	22.91	71	10.99	16	2.47	646
13.....	22	3.40	427	66.09	97	51.01	80	12.38	20	3.09	646
14.....	9	1.38	611	94.58	9	1.38	8	1.23	9	1.38	646
15.....	19	2.94	593	91.79	15	2.32	15	2.32	4	.61	646
16.....	14	2.16	602	93.18	18	2.78	11	1.70	1	.15	646
17.....	12	1.85	592	91.64	12	1.85	22	3.40	8	1.23	646
18.....	59	9.13	408	63.15	104	16.09	68	10.52	7	1.08	646
19.....	144	22.29	184	28.48	189	29.25	112	17.33	17	2.63	646
20.....	29	4.48	568	87.92	22	3.40	20	3.09	7	1.08	646
21.....	104	16.09	376	58.20	87	13.46	67	10.37	12	1.85	646
22.....	17	2.63	426	65.94	105	16.25	81	12.53	17	2.63	646
23.....	28	4.33	532	82.35	52	8.04	23	3.56	11	1.70	646
24.....	12	1.85	611	94.58	3	.46	2	.30	18	2.78	646
25.....	10	1.54	544	84.21	53	8.20	28	4.33	11	1.70	646
26.....	11	1.70	376	58.20	138	21.36	106	16.40	15	2.32	646
27.....	10	1.54	590	91.33	20	3.09	21	3.25	5	.77	646
28.....	18	2.78	591	91.48	22	3.40	10	1.54	5	.77	646
29.....	294	45.51	173	26.78	103	15.94	62	9.59	14	2.16	646
30.....	25	3.86	586	90.71	14	2.16	4	.61	17	2.63	646
31.....	67	10.37	518	80.18	22	3.40	13	2.01	26	4.02	646
32.....	173	26.78	263	40.71	122	18.88	78	12.07	10	1.54	646
33.....	134	20.74	301	46.59	98	15.17	91	14.08	22	3.40	646
34.....	245	37.92	206	31.88	118	18.26	60	9.28	17	2.63	646
35.....	43	6.65	417	64.55	103	15.94	61	1.44	22	3.40	646
36.....	29	4.48	503	77.86	57	8.82	38	5.88	19	2.94	646
37.....	46	7.12	495	76.62	56	8.66	27	4.17	22	3.40	646
38.....	142	21.98	313	48.45	114	17.64	57	8.82	20	3.09	646
39.....	20	3.09	594	91.95	17	2.63	11	1.70	4	.61	646

and 94.57 percent of the chief executives. A glance at the figures will show that qualified statements are made by a small percent in each group.

All groups are likewise in agreement in giving second place in their disapproval to "the violation of official correspondence or conversation among teachers." Classroom teachers standing 94.58 percent against it, administrative subordinates, 94.59 percent, and chief executives 94.57 percent.

Chief executives and administrative subordinates both give third place in their votes against the practise of "endeavoring to secure or to maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising." Classroom teachers place this fifth.

"To discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents" is frowned on by classroom teachers, 93.18 percent of whom give it third place, as do chief executives with a vote of 92.44 percent. Among administrative subordinates this unethical practise is given sixth place with a vote of 93.02 percent of their number.

TABLE II.—SUMMARY OF RESPONSES OF ADMINISTRATIVE SUBORDINATES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

No. of Question	Total "Yes"	Per cent "Yes"	Total "No"	Per cent "No"	Total depends un-qualified	Per cent depends un-qualified	Total depends qualified	Per cent depends qualified	Total un-answered	Per cent un-answered	Total replies
1.....	42	9.46	294	66.22	67	15.09	34	7.66	7	1.58	444
2.....	36	8.11	318	71.62	66	14.86	20	4.50	4	.90	444
3.....	119	26.80	199	44.82	94	21.17	29	6.53	3	.68	444
4.....	46	10.36	375	84.46	12	2.70	4	.90	7	1.58	444
5.....	197	44.36	84	18.92	122	27.48	37	8.33	4	.90	444
6.....	7	1.58	428	96.40	7	1.58	1	.23	1	.23	444
7.....	64	14.41	329	74.10	36	8.11	12	2.70	3	.68	444
8.....	170	38.29	182	40.99	65	14.64	17	3.83	10	2.25	444
9.....	44	9.91	330	74.32	50	11.26	16	3.60	4	.90	444
10.....	24	5.41	374	84.23	29	6.53	6	1.85	11	2.48	444
11.....	121	27.25	255	57.43	52	11.71	12	2.70	4	.90	444
12.....	74	16.67	225	50.68	113	25.45	24	5.41	8	1.80	444
13.....	24	5.41	298	67.12	84	18.92	31	6.98	7	1.58	444
14.....	11	2.48	411	92.57	16	3.60	5	1.13	1	.23	444
15.....	9	2.03	418	94.14	11	2.48	4	.90	2	.45	444
16.....	8	1.80	413	93.02	19	4.28	3	.68	1	.23	444
17.....	7	1.58	415	93.47	11	2.48	10	2.25	1	.23	444
18.....	37	8.33	313	70.50	64	14.41	28	6.31	2	.45	444
19.....	104	23.42	125	28.15	165	37.16	38	8.56	12	2.70	444
20.....	21	4.73	371	83.56	41	9.23	9	2.03	2	.45	444
21.....	91	20.50	229	51.58	90	20.27	26	5.86	8	1.80	444
22.....	7	1.58	331	74.55	73	16.44	27	6.08	6	1.35	444
23.....	14	3.15	388	87.39	28	6.31	7	1.58	7	1.58	444
24.....	8	1.80	420	94.59	6	1.35	4	.90	6	1.35	444
25.....	10	2.25	361	81.31	52	11.71	14	3.15	7	1.58	444
26.....	8	1.80	238	53.60	137	30.86	44	9.91	17	3.83	444
27.....	6	1.35	413	93.02	16	3.60	4	.90	5	1.13	444
28.....	15	3.88	400	90.09	20	4.50	6	1.35	3	.68	444
29.....	237	53.37	101	22.75	79	17.79	21	4.73	6	1.35	444
30.....	22	4.95	390	87.84	14	3.15	4	.90	14	3.15	444
31.....	60	13.51	340	76.58	26	5.86	4	.90	14	3.15	444
32.....	113	25.45	202	45.50	90	20.27	30	6.76	9	2.03	444
33.....	119	26.80	188	42.34	91	20.50	36	8.11	10	2.25	444
34.....	175	39.41	128	28.83	97	21.85	30	6.76	14	3.15	444
35.....	32	7.21	287	64.64	87	19.59	27	6.08	11	2.48	444
36.....	25	5.63	355	79.95	38	8.56	12	2.70	14	3.15	444
37.....	32	7.21	351	79.05	38	8.56	12	2.70	11	2.48	444
38.....	81	18.24	217	48.87	100	22.52	30	6.76	16	3.60	444
39.....	16	3.60	417	93.92	8	1.80	1	.23	2	.45	444

It is interesting to note that the three groups vote almost in harmony on many of the issues, practises which occupy the four lowest places being the same for all types. The practise deemed least unethical in all lists is the "acceptance of a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is a superintendent of schools."

Rated as thirty-eighth in all lists is "failure to censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct including inefficiency within the profession." It may, perhaps, be assumed that this does not imply that teachers condone any of these items, but that "censuring and disclosing" such conduct might involve legal procedure not considered within the province of the teacher.

The thirty-seventh and thirty-sixth places are held by items about accepting gifts from pupils and doing more than "to vote for candidates in a political campaign."

In the pages which follow the arrangement of practises for each group and the percent voting the practise unethical are listed. It will be seen

TABLE III.—SUMMARY OF RESPONSES OF CHIEF EXECUTIVES TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

No. of Question	Total "Yes"	Per cent "Yes"	Total "No"	Per cent "No"	Total depends unqualified	Per cent depends unqualified	Total depends qualified	Per cent depends qualified	Total unanswered	Per cent unanswered	Total replies
1.....	27	5.23	372	72.09	77	14.92	31	6.01	9	1.74	516
2.....	54	10.47	341	66.09	99	19.19	18	3.49	4	.78	516
3.....	145	28.10	175	33.91	151	29.26	40	7.75	5	.97	516
4.....	65	12.60	405	78.49	30	5.81	7	1.36	9	1.74	516
5.....	203	39.34	115	22.29	159	30.81	30	5.81	9	1.74	516
6.....	21	4.07	488	94.57	6	1.16	1	.19	0	.00	516
7.....	62	12.02	388	75.19	49	9.50	11	2.13	6	1.16	516
8.....	179	34.68	211	40.89	89	17.25	21	4.07	16	3.10	516
9.....	46	8.91	365	70.74	84	16.28	15	2.91	6	1.16	516
10.....	35	6.78	452	87.60	26	5.04	1	.19	2	.39	516
11.....	125	24.22	310	60.08	60	11.63	12	2.32	9	1.74	516
12.....	60	11.63	314	60.85	119	23.06	20	3.88	3	.58	516
13.....	20	3.88	367	71.12	96	18.60	28	5.43	5	.97	516
14.....	17	3.29	448	86.82	43	8.33	6	1.16	2	.39	516
15.....	14	2.71	481	93.22	19	3.68	1	.19	1	.19	516
16.....	13	2.52	477	92.44	22	4.26	2	.39	2	.39	516
17.....	14	2.71	467	90.50	24	4.65	7	1.36	4	.78	516
18.....	31	6.01	354	68.60	98	18.99	23	4.46	10	1.94	516
19.....	130	25.19	162	31.40	187	36.24	23	4.46	14	2.71	516
20.....	31	6.01	407	78.88	57	11.05	14	2.71	7	1.36	516
21.....	88	17.05	265	51.36	118	22.87	28	5.43	17	3.29	516
22.....	12	2.33	379	73.45	84	16.28	22	4.26	19	3.68	516
23.....	20	3.88	444	86.05	40	7.75	7	1.36	5	.97	516
24.....	17	3.29	488	94.57	2	.39	1	.19	8	1.55	516
25.....	17	3.29	415	80.43	60	11.63	12	2.32	12	2.32	516
26.....	13	2.52	284	55.04	166	32.17	39	7.56	14	2.71	516
27.....	11	2.13	461	89.34	36	6.97	4	.78	4	.78	516
28.....	25	4.84	464	89.92	17	3.29	3	.58	7	1.36	516
29.....	270	52.33	119	23.06	96	18.60	23	4.46	8	1.55	516
30.....	33	6.40	441	85.47	17	3.29	6	1.16	19	3.68	516
31.....	72	13.95	389	75.39	30	5.81	6	1.16	19	3.68	516
32.....	101	19.57	231	44.77	140	27.13	29	5.62	15	2.91	516
33.....	119	23.06	210	40.70	149	28.88	24	4.65	14	2.71	516
34.....	186	36.05	143	27.71	153	29.65	25	4.84	9	1.74	516
35.....	34	6.59	342	66.28	116	22.48	15	2.91	9	1.74	516
36.....	24	4.65	412	79.84	60	11.63	10	1.94	10	1.94	516
37.....	29	5.62	402	77.91	65	12.60	12	2.32	8	1.55	516
38.....	100	19.38	247	47.87	126	24.42	23	4.46	20	3.88	516
39.....	19	3.68	475	92.05	16	3.10	3	.58	3	.58	516

that the three lists contain exactly the same items, but the sequence changes slightly for the different groups. The first list is that of the classroom teachers:

1. For a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a position in another community because he does not want to lose her services. 95.97 percent.

2. To violate official correspondence or conversation among teachers.

94.58 percent.

3. To dismiss, or recommend for dismissal, a teacher without giving her ample notice and an opportunity to be heard. 94.58 percent.

4. To discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents. 93.18 percent.

5. To act as an agent for, or receive a commission, royalty, or anything of value from books or supplies in the purchase of which he or she exercises official decision. 91.95 percent.

6. To endeavor to secure or to maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising. 91.79 percent.

7. To teach one's religious, political, or other private beliefs to pupils.

91.64 percent.

8. To fail to defend members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked. 91.48 percent.
9. For one teacher to mark the work of a pupil in another teacher's class or to interfere in disciplinary or other problems. 91.33 percent.
10. To fail to be a progressive student of education. 90.71 percent.
11. To accept pupils expelled from other schools until the expelling authority has been consulted. 87.92 percent.
12. To bid or underbid for a position. 86.06 percent.
13. For school officials to change pupils' marks. 84.21 percent.
14. To fail to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been accepted. 83.12 percent.
15. To fail to support school policies until they are changed even though one does not agree with them. 82.35 percent.
16. To fail to encourage the fit to enter, and to discourage the unfit from entering, the profession. 80.18 percent.
17. To fail to give all pertinent facts when writing recommendations. 78.79 percent.
18. To fail to participate in activities for community betterment. 77.86 percent.
19. To write general testimonials for salesmen. 76.62 percent.
20. For a school official to go to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him before he has conferred with her present officials. 68.11 percent.
21. To break a contract to accept another position. 66.09 percent.
22. To go "over the heads" of one's superiors. 65.94 percent.
23. To engage in a practise of recreation, dress, etc., of which the community does not approve. 64.55 percent.
24. To accept pay for tutoring one's own pupils. 63.15 percent.
25. For a teacher to apply for a position directly to a board instead of to the superintendent or to a similar executive. 61.30 percent.
26. To apply for a position not known to be vacant. 59.28 percent.
27. For school officials not to consult their subordinates before they make policies. 58.20 percent.
28. For school officials to take the side of pupils against the teacher. 58.20 percent.
29. To accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant was dismissed unjustly. 52.78 percent.
30. To seek an offer elsewhere for the purpose of securing advancement in one's present position. 51.54 percent.
31. To solicit sample textbooks. 48.45 percent.
32. To criticise the profession. 46.59 percent.
33. To enter a combination to force increases in salaries. 44.89 percent.
34. To issue or use a "to-whom-it-may concern" testimonial. 44.73 percent.
35. To use the profession as a stepping stone to other professions or vocations. 40.71 percent.
36. To do more than to vote for candidates in a political campaign. 31.88 percent.
37. To accept gifts from pupils. 28.48 percent.
38. To censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, including inefficiency, within the profession. 26.78 percent.
39. To accept a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is superintendent of schools. 23.52 percent.

The order in which those in subordinate administrative positions list the practises as unethical follows:

1. For a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a position in another community because he does not want to lose her services. 96.40 percent.

2. To violate official correspondence or conversation among teachers. 94.59 percent.
3. To endeavor to secure or to maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising. 94.14 percent.
4. To act as an agent for, or receive a commission, royalty, or anything of value from books or supplies in the purchase of which he or she exercises official decision. 93.92 percent.
5. To teach one's religious, political, or other private belief to pupils. 93.47 percent.
6. For one teacher to mark the work of a pupil in another teacher's class or to interfere in disciplinary or other problems. 93.02 percent.
7. To discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents. 93.02 percent.
8. To dismiss, or recommend for dismissal, a teacher without giving her ample notice and an opportunity to be heard. 92.57 percent.
9. To fail to defend members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked. 90.09 percent.
10. To fail to be a progressive student of education. 87.84 percent.
11. To fail to support school policies until they are changed, even though one does not agree with them. 87.39 percent.
12. To fail to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been accepted. 84.46 percent.
13. To bid or underbid for a position. 84.23 percent.
14. To accept pupils expelled from other schools until the expelling authority has been consulted. 83.56 percent.
15. For school officials to change pupils' marks. 81.31 percent.
16. To fail to participate in activities for community betterment. 79.95 percent.
17. To write general testimonials for salesmen. 79.05 percent.
18. To fail to encourage the fit to enter, and to discourage the unfit from entering the profession. 76.58 percent.
19. To go "over the heads" of one's superiors. 74.55 percent.
20. To fail to give all pertinent facts when writing recommendations. 74.32 percent.
21. For a school official to go to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him, before he has conferred with her present officials. 74.10 percent.
22. For a teacher to apply for a position directly to a board instead of to the superintendent or to a similar executive. 71.62 percent.
23. To accept pay for tutoring one's own pupils. 70.50 percent.
24. To break a contract to accept another position. 67.12 percent.
25. To apply for a position not known to be vacant. 66.22 percent.
26. To engage in a practice of recreation, dress, etc., of which the community does not approve. 64.64 percent.
27. To seek an offer elsewhere for the purpose of securing advancement in one's present position. 57.43 percent.
28. For school officials to take the side of pupils against teachers. 53.60 percent.
29. For school officials not to consult their subordinates before they make policies. 51.58 percent.
30. To enter a combination to force increases in salaries. 50.68 percent.
31. To solicit sample textbooks. 48.87 percent.
32. To use the profession as a stepping stone to other professions or vocations. 45.50 percent.
33. To accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant was dismissed unjustly. 44.82 percent.
34. To criticize the profession. 42.34 percent.
35. To issue or use a "to-whom-it-may-concern" testimonial. 40.99 percent.
36. To do more than to vote for candidates in a political campaign. 28.83 percent.

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 37. To accept gifts from pupils. | 28.15 percent. |
| 38. To censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, including inefficiency, within the profession. | 22.75 percent. |
| 39. To accept a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is superintendent of schools. | 18.92 percent. |

Chief executives list the thirty-nine practises as unethical in the following order:

- | | |
|---|----------------|
| 1. For a school official to fail to recommend one of his teachers for a position in another community because he does not want to lose her services. | 94.57 percent. |
| 2. To violate official correspondence or conversation among teachers. | 94.57 percent. |
| 3. To endeavor to secure or to maintain position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices, or advertising. | 93.22 percent. |
| 4. To discuss deficiencies of pupils in such a way as would embarrass them or their parents. | 92.44 percent. |
| 5. To act as an agent for, or receive a commission, royalty, or anything of value from books, or supplies in the purchase of which he or she exercises official decision. | 92.05 percent. |
| 6. To teach one's religious, political, or other private belief to pupils. | 90.50 percent. |
| 7. To fail to defend members of the profession when they are unjustly attacked. | 89.92 percent. |
| 8. For one teacher to mark the work of a pupil in another teacher's class or to interfere in disciplinary or other problems. | 89.34 percent. |
| 9. To bid or underbid for a position. | 87.60 percent. |
| 10. To dismiss, or recommend for dismissal, a teacher without giving her ample notice and an opportunity to be heard. | 86.82 percent. |
| 11. To fail to support school policies until they are changed even though one does not agree with them. | 86.05 percent. |
| 12. To fail to be a progressive student of education. | 85.47 percent. |
| 13. For school officials to change pupils' marks. | 80.43 percent. |
| 14. To fail to participate in activities for community betterment. | 79.84 percent. |
| 15. To accept pupils expelled from other schools until the expelling authority has been consulted. | 78.88 percent. |
| 16. To fail to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been accepted. | 78.49 percent. |
| 17. To write general testimonials for salesmen. | 77.91 percent. |
| 18. To fail to encourage the fit to enter, and to discourage the unfit from entering the profession. | 75.39 percent. |
| 19. For a school official to go to a teacher to persuade her to accept a position with him, before he has conferred with her present officials. | 75.19 percent. |
| 20. To go "over the heads" of one's superiors. | 73.45 percent. |
| 21. To apply for a position not known to be vacant. | 72.09 percent. |
| 22. To break a contract to accept another position. | 71.12 percent. |
| 23. To fail to give all pertinent facts when writing recommendations. | 70.44 percent. |
| 24. To accept pay for tutoring one's own pupils. | 68.60 percent. |
| 25. To engage in a practise of recreation, dress, etc., of which the community does not approve. | 66.28 percent. |
| 26. For a teacher to apply for a position directly to a board instead of to the superintendent or to a similar executive. | 66.09 percent. |
| 27. To enter a combination to force increases in salaries. | 60.85 percent. |
| 28. To seek an offer elsewhere for the purpose of securing advancement in one's present position. | 60.08 percent. |

29. For school officials to take the side of pupils against teachers.	55.04 percent.
30. For school officials not to consult their subordinates before they make policies.	51.36 percent
31. To solicit sample textbooks.	47.87 percent.
32. To use the profession as a stepping stone to other professions or vocations.	44.77 percent.
33. To issue or use a "to-whom-it-may-concern" testimonial.	40.89 percent.
34. To criticise the profession.	40.70 percent.
35. To accept a position from which the immediately preceding occupant was dismissed unjustly.	33.91 percent.
36. To accept gifts from pupils.	31.40 percent.
37. To do more than to vote for candidates in a political campaign.	27.71 percent.
38. To censure and disclose unprofessional or immoral conduct, including inefficiency, within the profession.	23.06 percent.
39. To accept a position in a community where a relative is a member of the board or is superintendent of schools.	22.29 percent.

The foregoing analysis is only a small part of the story. This shows how the different persons in the three groups reacted to the thirty-nine queries submitted to them by the committee. More illuminating matter still appears in the comments and original cases cited by those who answered the questionnaire. This material has so far been tabulated only for the group of chief executives. A glance at that material reveals much to guide the committee, but until replies of all groups can be passed in review together no authoritative deductions can be made.

A code for the teaching profession should include all those who have to do with education in any capacity. This is the belief of the committee and appears also to be the opinion for the most part of those to whom the questionnaire was sent. To sort out from this wealth of material cases of the type that will keep the members of the teaching profession thinking as one body is the task to be accomplished.

Some of the perplexities confided to this committee do not come under the head of ethics at all, it would seem. One member of the chief executives groups puts down "undue timidity" as one of the six most unethical practises. Some of us would claim that such a characteristic, while unfortunate, is none the less about as little to be remedied by a code of ethics as freckles would be. Other items listed might be characterized as inexpedient, impracticable, or out of taste rather than unethical. However, it will be conceded that nearly all point to the need of a clearly defined statement of cases and the publication of a code.

From 516 returns, representing forty-one states, 1698 unethical practises were tabulated. Of these 1698 practises, 370 were different. Most of them were mentioned only once, twice, or a few times, and are, therefore, not to be considered as particularly significant. The replies varied all the way from "applying for positions not known to be vacant" to "failure to love the world" and "failure to accept one's location in 'California style'." Ten unethical practises mentioned most frequently are

herewith listed. It will be remembered that they are items listed by chief executives:

<i>Item</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
1. Teachers applying for positions not known to be vacant.....	101
2. Breaking a contract to accept another position.....	93
3. Failure to give all pertinent data when writing recommendation.....	81
4. Bidding or underbidding for positions.....	69
5. Failure to support school policies until they are changed, even though one does not agree with them.....	61
6. Failure to be a progressive student of education.....	52
7. Endeavoring to secure or to maintain a position by innuendo, exploitation, complimentary press notices or advertising.....	49
8. Going over the heads of one's superiors.....	44
9. Failure to withdraw outstanding applications when a position has been accepted	37
10. Criticizing other members of the profession unjustly.....	37

Until the study begun can be completed, it would be unscientific as well as overventuresome for this committee to formulate a code.

One might hazard a few guesses about the tenor of some principles to be included:

1. Fairness of teachers to their superiors and of superiors to their teachers.
2. Scorn of vulgar advertising of oneself.
3. Frowning on the broadcasting of private information learned about one's pupils.
4. Tolerance, indicated by avoidance of stirring race, political, or religious controversies in school.
5. Respect for one's profession indicated by defense of one's colleagues, urging the fit to enter, keeping oneself abreast of the times.

It is hoped that before the summer is over, the committee will be able to have a digest of all this material in readiness. To those who believe that a code can be built up only by cases, the tabulations from this questionnaire should prove a gold mine.

REPORT OF LEGISLATIVE COMMISSION

WILLIAM M. DAVIDSON, CHAIRMAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
PITTSBURGH, PENNSYLVANIA

The report of the Legislative Commission has been printed and placed in your hands. By way of giving special emphasis to the organization, I desire to read certain paragraphs as set forth in the report.

Your Legislative Commission desires to submit the following report upon a few of its major activities since the date of the Seattle meeting of the National Education Association in July, 1927.

The Commission, under the set-up as provided for in the administration of Francis G. Blair and as continued under the present administration, now comprises 132 members, including representatives from every state in the union. In addition to this central, nationwide group, there is a very large

supplemental body, including some 3000 members of the National Education Association, who are assisting the Commission in carrying on its nationwide campaign of publicity and education. The members of this large supporting group are serving on state, county, and local committees in practically every state of the union and in every section of the country.

Increased Interest in Bill

It is largely through the 3000 members of these widely distributed supporting committees that the activities of the Legislative Commission have been broadcast to the country through the office of the Field Secretary of the National Education Association at Washington. As a result of their fine cooperation and support, we feel that we close the year with a more enthusiastic and intelligent interest in the Education Bill than in any previous year in the history of the National Education Association.

By careful check the volume of publicity on the bill during the past year has exceeded that of any other year. This has included newspaper editorials and reports of addresses by the president of the Association, the chairman of the Commission, the Field Secretary and other members of the Association. Such an increase in publicity is the natural result of the activities of 3000 people in behalf of a movement in which they heartily believe.

Curtis-Reed Bill Reintroduced

The Education Bill was reintroduced as H. R. 7 in the House of Representatives on December 5, 1927, by Representative Daniel Alden Reed of New York, chairman of the House Committee on Education, and in the Senate as S. 1584 on December 13 by Senator Charles Curtis, majority leader of the Senate and now Republican nominee for vicepresident. The bill contains one important change, a new Section 10, which provides for a national council of state superintendents of education. At the urgent insistence of a large number of leaders of the movement for a Department of Education, this provision was added in the hope of facilitating the work of the federal department as a clearinghouse for educational problems.

Great impetus was given to the movement for a Department of Education through the very excellent statement which President Coolidge made in his annual address to Congress on December 6. This strong endorsement of the principles of coordination of existing federal educational activities, provided in the Curtis-Reed Bill, reads as follows:

For many years it has been the policy of the federal government to encourage and foster the cause of education. Large sums of money are annually appropriated to carry on vocational training. Many millions go into agricultural schools. The general subject is under the immediate direction of a Commissioner of Education. While this subject is strictly a state and local function, it should continue to have the encouragement of the national government. I am still of the opinion that much good could be accomplished through the establishment of a Department of Education and Relief, into which would be gathered all of these functions under one directing member of the Cabinet.

Statements of Members of Congress

Not since the Education Bill has been before Congress has such an endorsement of the principles of the measure been made by a President of the United States. Nor have we, in any previous year, been so fortunate in having statements on the bill made by prominent members of Congress. On December 20 the Congressional Record carried the remarks on a Department of Education by Representative Reed, co-author of the bill. Reprints totaling 100,000 have been circulated, and excerpts have been widely printed. The late Senator Woodbridge N. Ferris of Michigan, another friend of our cause, prepared a speech on the Education Bill early in the Seventieth Congress, but was prevented from delivering it by his sickness and death. This undelivered address was filed in the Congressional Record of May 6 in connection with memorial services for the Senator, and distribution has been begun of 40,000 reprints. Senator Morris Sheppard of Texas, an avowed friend of the Education Bill, has fortunately been appointed to succeed Mr. Ferris on the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.

During the recent hearing on the Education Bill Congressman William C. Hammer of North Carolina made a brief but effective statement in which he said that he had no fear of the violation of state rights in education through the activities of a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. Already thousands of copies of this statement have been distributed throughout the country.

Conferences at Washington

In the first week of Congress I spent several days in Washington conferring with the President of the United States, the authors of the Education Bill, and a number of other important leaders in both houses of Congress whom I had come to know during my years in Washington as superintendent of schools in the District of Columbia.

A careful study of the personnel of the Committees on Education in both houses of Congress made it apparent that a vigorous attempt to force the bill out of committee would be unwise before the party conventions and the November elections. At the opening of the next Congress it is possible that the atmosphere will be cleared and the stage set for more sympathetic consideration of this bill than ever before.

In order to prepare for favorable action at that time renewed efforts will be necessary during the coming year by educators who are attempting to interest their Congressmen in this bill. It is therefore most important that members of Congress be interviewed on this subject while they are at home on vacations. Every teacher should arrange for a conference with his Congressman about this bill, and in addition get at least one business man of the community to speak to his Congressman in support of a Department of Education.

It is significant that both the major political parties in this country have at different times given their endorsement to the principles involved in the

Education Bill. The Republican party specifically endorsed a Department of Education and Relief at its Cleveland convention in 1924. The Democratic party in the same year, at its New York convention, and again this year at the Houston convention, has likewise committed itself to the general principle for which this association has stood since 1918 in its battle for a Cabinet post for education. It is likewise significant that the Republican party, at its recent convention in Kansas City, nominated as its candidate for vicepresident one of the sponsors of a Department of Education, Hon. Charles Curtis of Topeka, Kansas, co-author with Congressman Reed of the new Curtis-Reed bill, now before the Education Committees of both houses of Congress.

Plans Made for the Hearing

The Legislative Commission has continued the plan of holding a conference of its members at the time of the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence. Such a conference was held during the Boston meeting of this department last February, at which time plans were outlined and discussed in connection with the proposed hearing on the new Curtis-Reed Bill before the Committee on Education in the House of Representatives at Washington.

As a result of this Boston conference, a hearing on the bill was arranged for the last week in April, 1928. I hold in my hand a copy of the report of this hearing which contains, according to the friends of the bill in the House Committee on Education, perhaps the finest and most logical arrangement of proper statements for the bill that have yet been assembled in a single volume.

We were fortunate in having Mr. Reed, the author of the bill, as chairman of the Committee on Education which heard the arguments for and against the measure. I want to call your attention to the fact that in the report we have quoted the preliminary statement of Chairman Reed as set forth in the record of the hearing on the Education Bill which has just come from the Government printing press at Washington. A limited number of copies of the report of this hearing are available for distribution to the teachers of the land. Later I shall speak a word with regard to how we may secure a multiplication of the supply of copies. In the very beginning of the hearing, desiring to bring out a clear statement of the need for a Department of Education, Mr. Reed set up the following points to which he directed the attention of witnesses:

1. We know that the federal government has always been interested in the promotion of education and we want to ascertain if the purpose of this bill means in any sense a departure from the established policy of the federal government.

2. The United States has supported a Bureau of Education in the Department of the Interior for more than a half century. If this bureau is not adequate the committee wants to know in what ways it is inadequate and what remedy, if any, the present bill proposes for this inadequacy.

3. The present bill provides for scientific investigations or research in various fields. What would be the advantages of such research study to the country as a whole and to the different types of education?

4. The committee would like any light that it can receive on the question of the constitutionality of the present bill, especially if there are any provisions in the bill that place control of education in any way with the secretary of education.

5. The members of the committee would like to know how the present bill would affect private and sectarian schools throughout the country.

6. The committee wants to know whether or not the present bill is tied in with the proposal for federal aid or whether in the judgment of those who are proponents of the measure the question of federal aid is entirely independent of the present measure.

7. The committee would like to know definitely who are in favor of this bill and who are against it, together with facts, reasons, and arguments held by opposing groups.

If the committee can get light on the foregoing matters, the members will be in much better position to form a definite opinion as to the desirability of the bill.

Proponents of the Bill

Pursuant to Mr. Reed's introductory remarks, for five days witnesses for and against a Department of Education appeared before this committee. There was a notable array of speakers including Dr. John A. H. Keith, State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Pennsylvania; Dr. John H. MacCracken, Chairman of the Committee on Federal Legislation of the American Council on Education; Dr. Charles R. Mann, Director of the American Council on Education; Dr. Cloyd Heck Marvin, President of George Washington University; Dr. Thomas E. Finegan, Education Director of the Eastman Kodak Company; Dr. Milton Fairchild, President of the Character Education Institution, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Frederick P. Bagley of Boston, Vice Chairman of the National Committee for a Department of Education; Harlan B. Peabody, of Providence, Rhode Island, State Chairman of Activities in Behalf of a Department of Education; Joy Elmer Morgan, Director of Publications, and Dr. John K. Norton, Director of Research, National Education Association.

A number of persons who were unable to be present at the hearing also filed statements in support of the bill. Among these were Mr. A. Lincoln Filene, a leading merchant of Boston, whose secretary represented him at the hearing; Miss Cornelia S. Adair, President of the National Education Association; and Dr. Frank D. Boynton, President of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.

Strong Organization Support

In addition, statements and resolutions endorsing the bill were placed in the record from 34 state superintendents of public instruction, 30 state or sectional education associations, and 22 lay supporting organizations. Almost without exception these statements and resolutions were dated during the past year, while the opponents of the measure found it necessary to use some statements and resolutions from several years back in support of their arguments. The greater value of recent endorsements is most obvious, and for that reason state and sectional education associations are urged to take action on the Education Bill, at least annually, until the

measure is adopted by Congress. Only in that way and by personal communications can the members of Congress be convinced that the endorsement of this movement for a Department of Education is a matter of vital importance to the teaching profession.

Special Research Problem Presented

At former hearings the committee members were insistent upon knowing what problems needed study, what research would be undertaken by a Department of Education, and why educators had not presented this need for appropriations for such purpose to Congress. Such questions were answered in specific terms at this hearing by Dr. Charles H. Judd, Director of the School of Education, University of Chicago, who headed a committee of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools that appeared before the committee on education to ask for a special appropriation of \$500,000 for two years for a study of secondary school problems to be conducted by the United States Bureau of Education.

The members of this committee were Dr. W. W. Boyd, President of Western College for Women, Oxford, Ohio, and Past President of the Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; W. I. Earley, Principal of the Washington High School, Sioux Falls, South Dakota, and present President of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools; H. V. Church of Cicero, Illinois, Secretary of the National Association of High School Principals of the United States; and W. P. Morgan, President of the State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois, President of the American Association of Teachers' Colleges of the United States.

Representatives of only 10 national organizations appeared against the bill, while the total number of statements for the opposition was less than one-fourth as many as those in support of the measure.

Unusual Help from Committee

Experienced people, for the most part, presented our side of the case, and friendly members of the committee helped our cause by skillful questioning of witnesses. Especially helpful were the remarks of five members of the Committee on Education. They were Representatives John M. Robsion of Kentucky, Elmer O. Leatherwood of Utah, Willis G. Sears of Nebraska, B. G. Lowrey of Mississippi, and Chairman Reed of New York.

Mr. Reed was present at nearly every session of the committee and studied the arguments both for and against the bill. At the close he summed up the situation in the following short statement which ought to be familiar to every school teacher in America:

We have been listening, for the better part of five days, to the arguments advanced for and against enactment of H. R. 7, a bill which provides for the creation of a department of education, with a secretary in the President's Cabinet. Valuable information has been brought out about every point which I set up in my statement at the beginning of the hearing. After listening to the testimony it seems to me that a number of conclusions may be drawn.

Federal Government Has Always Promoted Education

It is not my purpose to review here the significant part which the federal government has taken from the very beginning in the promotion of education. I do want to urge the members of the committee, however, to read, in this connection, the testimony of John A. H. Keith, commissioner of education in the state of Pennsylvania, in which he outlined the history of federal participation in education. I think it has been definitely demonstrated at this hearing that the present bill does not mean in any sense a departure from the established policy of the federal government.

Bureau of Education Inadequate for Present Needs

The present Bureau of Education, created in 1867, is inadequate to meet the needs of a federal agency in this day and time. It was declared, by one witness who was opposed to a department of education, to be hopelessly inadequate. There was general agreement among the proponents of the bill that the Bureau of Education, under present conditions, cannot do the research work that it is hoped and expected a department of education will do. Convincing arguments in support of this point of view have been brought out at the hearing.

Research Now Applied in Many Fields

No one could have listened to these arguments or could read this record without marveling at the gigantic strides that have been made in the whole field of scientific investigation in recent years. Impressive evidence has been given concerning scientific research which is going on in almost every branch of human endeavor. When one contrasts the investigations that are being made in the field of business, agriculture, manufacturing, and distribution with the comparatively small effort which the federal government is putting forth in scientific research in education, one cannot help being impressed with the need for similar research in education such as would be possible only under a federal department of education.

Constitutionality of Bill Upheld

The question of the constitutionality of H. R. 7 has been raised during this hearing. The opponents of a department of education very generally agree that the work which the Bureau of Education is doing deserves support and ought to be continued, thereby admitting the right of the federal government to promote education. Because I have made a study of this question I should like to add further emphasis to the arguments that have been given to the committee regarding the constitutionality of the bill, which provides for a fourth "welfare" department.

Authorization for creation of the Department of Agriculture and later of the Departments of Commerce and Labor was found in Article I, section 8, of the Constitution, which provides that the federal government may levy taxes for the general welfare as follows:

"The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States, but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States."

This clause has given rise to much controversy, but the interpretation given to it by Story in his great work on the Constitution has been followed by Congress in practice since the Government went into operation. As Story observes, the clause should be read as follows:

"Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, in order to pay the debts and provide for the common defense and general welfare of the United States; the common defense and general welfare and the

payment of the public debts, being the ends for which the power is conferred, and taxation a means for their attainment."

This is the interpretation placed on this clause by Hamilton in 1791, in his Report on Manufacturers, who stated it as his clear opinion that the phrase "general welfare is as comprehensive as any that could have been used" and that "there seems no reason to doubt that whatever concerns the general interests of learning, of agriculture, of manufacturers, and of commerce, is within the sphere of the national councils as far as regards an application of money; the only qualification of the generality of the phrase in question which seems to be admissible is this: That the object to which an appropriation of money is to be made must be general and not local, its operation extending in fact, or by possibility, throughout the union and not being confined to any particular spot."

President Monroe in an elaborate and cogent paper entitled, "Views of the President of the United States on the subject of material improvements," submitted with his veto in 1822 of the Cumberland road bill, took the same view. His attitude is expressed in the following sentence:

"My idea is that Congress have an unlimited power to raise money, and that in its appropriation they have a discretionary power, restricted only by the duty to appropriate it to the purposes of common defense and of general, not local, national, not state, benefit."

Since the Civil War there has been no President who denied the right of Congress to raise and appropriate money for purposes of general welfare because such purposes were not within the fields in which Congress is, by other provisions of the Constitution, empowered to legislate.

The appropriations made annually since 1862 for the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Labor, the Bureau of Mines, and the Bureau of Fisheries can find no justification except under a power to raise and spend money for "the general welfare."

It will be noted, too, that by the Adams Act, the Smith-Lever Act, the Smith-Hughes Act, Congress has made appropriations of large sums of money raised by general taxation for the advancement of education throughout the country.

Question of Federal Aid Not Involved

At this hearing much of the opposition to H. R. 7 has been directed against federal aid to education, in spite of the fact that no federal aid is provided for in this bill. The creation of a department of education in no way involves the question of federal aid for education. The federal aid which the government has extended to education in the past has been authorized without any reference whatever to a department of education. In the future Congress could either increase or decrease the amounts granted for federal aid to education, but such increases or decreases are in no way connected with the proposal for the creation of a department of education.

Savings to Taxpayers Foreseen

It has been stated over and over at this hearing that money could be saved for the taxpayers through the elimination of duplication and waste which is to be found not only in the unrelated and uncoordinated educational activities of the federal government, but in the needless waste and duplication which is to be found in education in all the states. That being true, it seems to me that Congress would be wise in passing this bill at an early date, thus securing to education the advantages which have been outlined by the proponents of this bill.

State Control of Education Not Endangered

Opponents of the present bill have very generally agreed that there is no provision in it that would result in infringement upon the rights of the states. Their chief fear seems to be that subsequent legislation might be passed that would

curtail state rights. In this connection I wish to remind the committee that the tenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States reserves to the states the right to control and administer education. At the same time, the principle of state and local direction of the schools is so thoroughly entrenched in American thought as to provide another guaranty of the continuance of local control of schools. It is noteworthy that every person who has appeared in favor of this bill is opposed to national control of education. To my mind it is clear that a department of education can perform the large and important function for which it is to be created without in the least hindering local and state initiative. On the other hand, I firmly believe, as do many educators who have appeared here, that state and local initiative will be greatly stimulated by making available to all the facts and information which would be collected by the new department.

All Schools to Benefit From Work of Department

Private and sectarian schools will benefit alike with public schools from the scientific research which is to be made by the department of education. That they have benefited by the work of the Bureau of Education was cheerfully admitted by a number of opponents of this bill. Several representatives of privately endowed colleges and universities appeared in support of the bill because they believe their institutions would greatly benefit through the work of the department.

Support For Department of Education Nationwide

Friends of the bill have brought to our attention the fact that 31 great national organizations support the movement for a department of education and more than a score of these have filed statements, or resolutions, or both, at this hearing. In addition, statements have been filed showing that at least three-fourths of the state superintendents or commissioners of education have gone on record as favoring a federal department of education and have made it plain that they are not afraid of its interfering with the rights of the states to control and administer their schools in their own way. On the other hand, opposition to the bill has been voiced by representatives of 10 national organizations, 7 of which seem to fear some infringement upon the freedom and initiative of private and sectarian schools. Three local organizations with a membership largely in Massachusetts and Maryland, appeared in opposition to the bill.

Question Widely Studied in Local Groups

The need for a department of education has been presented in hearings to the Committee on Education at every Congress since 1918. The reports of these hearings have been widely distributed, and debates have been conducted in high schools, colleges, women's clubs and men's organizations in practically every state of the union. There is no question before the country today in which more people are interested than the one which this committee has been considering for the past week. Education is a huge enterprise in this Republic. We have more than 27,000,000 school children and nearly a million teachers. School property is valued at more than \$4,500,000,000, and the annual expenditure for public education is approximately \$2,000,000,000. Because the country is growing by leaps and bounds, the task of educating these children and directing the expenditure of these huge sums will be magnified with each succeeding year. It is my personal opinion that no other enterprise of comparable import would be conducted without more adequate facilities for determining methods and procedure than are now available in the field of education.

Education Entitled to Spokesman in Cabinet

The federal government, with profit to all concerned, has promoted the three great national interests of agriculture, commerce, and labor, and has provided representation for each of them in the President's Cabinet. Education, on the other hand, is represented only by a commissioner at the head of a small bureau in one of the large executive departments. Surely the large number of people supporting this bill are justified in their contention that education, which concerns so many individuals, which involves so much expenditure, and which is the very foundation of the Republic, is entitled to a spokesman in the councils of our nation.

Early Passage of Bill Desirable

It seems to me that we now have before us all the facts that can be presented both for and against the enactment of H. R. 7. It is my hope that during the recess of Congress the members of the committee will find time to study the record of this hearing which will be printed in the shortest possible time, and that we may be able to report this bill out favorably when Congress meets again in December.

During the years that this proposal has been before Congress, the people of the country, and Members of Congress as well, have had ample time to study the question. Requests that the bill be reported out of the committee, in order that it may be considered on the floor of the House, have been received from all parts of the country, and from Members of Congress. I do not believe that in fairness and justice to all concerned we can longer delay.

A study of this hearing will enable you to glean sufficient information to talk intelligently to congressmen, to groups of business men, and indeed to groups of citizens anywhere, upon the wisdom of placing in the Cabinet a Secretary of Education. With a secretary at its head the Department of Education could give the schools of our Nation a service comparable to that now offered by the great Department of Agriculture, the great Department of Commerce, and the great Department of Labor, and certainly could place itself in a position to justify the belief that education of the children and the youth of America is as important, as exalting, as deserving of Cabinet membership in this country as a Department of War and a Department of Navy.

Reprint of Hearing Needed

Only 1000 copies of the report of this hearing have been printed, and consequently there have been many more calls for copies than can be supplied. I wish to tell you how you can bring about a reprint of the record of the hearing and thus multiply the number of copies available for distribution. If you will only give attention to the request of the Commission we can assure you that results will follow.

Each of you delegates write to your Congressman, asking him for a copy of the record of this hearing, and then get 8, 10, 12, 15, or 100 of your teacher-acquaintances to do the same. If 10,000 requests for this report are received by Congressmen before December, you will find members of Congress so eager to satisfy the wishes of their constituents that they will pass a resolution asking for a reprint of this hearing in the number required to meet your demands.

Congressmen Look to Constituents

I have quoted from this hearing the following statement of Representative E. Hart Fenn of Connecticut, a member of the House Committee on Education:

Every town in Connecticut has a parent-teacher association, but I have not had a communication from one or from a single layman in my district with regards to this bill. If there was a great demand for this bill it would come from the people in our respective districts who would write to their Congressmen.

My secretary tells me of hundreds of letters I have had in regard to the increase in the Navy. The lay people of my district take a great interest in that, and there have been innumerable letters either in favor of a larger Navy or opposed to it, but in regard to this matter I have not received a single letter except a communication from my state board of education which I filed in the hearing a couple of years ago opposing it.

Regarding the great demand for this bill, as suggested by my colleague, these solicitations, to use that term, have come from the great organized bodies throughout the country, but not from people in the districts to whom Congressmen look for advice concerning what the people want. It is a singular thing to me that I have not received a single communication in regard to this bill.

In explanation of the situation referred to by Mr. Fenn I will cite the case of my own state, Pennsylvania. If we were to ask for the sum total of requests for a Department of Education that have gone direct to the Committees on Education of the two houses of Congress, we would make a poor showing in Pennsylvania. While the educational forces in the state, 57,000 strong, stand solidly for this piece of legislation, our communications from Pennsylvania have almost always been sent to our own Congressmen in our respective districts. Only a few letters in behalf of the Education Bill have gone from our state to the Committee on Education in the House of Representatives or to the Committee on Education and Labor in the Senate.

This is the case in many other states, and it has led the Commission to make a special request at this convention that you not only write your own individual Congressman, calling his attention to the Education Bill and to the necessity of enacting this measure into law and asking him to read the report of the hearing, but that at the same time you place yourself on record in favor of a Department of Education in a letter addressed specifically and directly by name to the Chairman of the Committee on Education in the House, Mr. Reed, and the Chairman of the Senate Committee on Education and Labor, Senator James Couzens.

May I ask that you give special attention to the Commission's need of being backed up by the individual members of the profession? We never can pass the Education Bill by the 132 members of the Commission working alone, nor can we pass it by the help only of that supplemental committee of 3000 which is working with us. The whole thing depends upon you and the 1,000,000 teachers of the Republic. They must be interested to the end that they will insistently and persistently fusillade the Committee on Education in the House of Representatives and the Committee

on Education and Labor in the Senate, as well as their own individual representatives in the House and Senate, in behalf of a Department of Education.

Campaign of Education Well Under Way

With 31 great national organizations supporting the movement for a Department of Education, with 44 state chairmen of activities in behalf of a Department of Education, and with a district chairman now in each congressional district in 35 states it ought not be said that the members of Congress have not been informed of the need for enactment of the Education Bill and the deep interest of their constituents in its behalf.

After all the campaign for this measure is largely a campaign of education. Not until the voters in the states, and especially the teachers themselves, know what the Education Bill provides and are enthusiastic in its support—not until then will Congress pass this legislation. Those people who think that this measure will be enacted into law by some clever strategy at Washington, rather than by a serious nationwide effort, are not familiar with the situation which exists in the Congress of the United States today.

During the past year the movement for a Department of Education has made considerable headway, but as chairman of your Legislative Commission I urge renewed and more purposeful efforts in this cause until the enactment of the bill shall have been assured.

I wish to put up to you, then, in my final word, the necessity for marshalling the forces all along the line in support of our slogan that somehow or other we will win. We must convince members of our profession that "Education in America can be made large and strong if the teachers of America will measure up courageously enough and unanimously enough to put over with power the force they have to accomplish things in the arena of national education."

I will state supplementally that at the meeting of the Legislative Commission yesterday this report was unanimously adopted by the Commission with directions that it be placed before the body in printed form this morning with a request for favorable action.

REPORT OF THE JOINT COMMITTEE ON HEALTH PROBLEMS IN EDUCATION

THOMAS D. WOOD, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY, CHAIRMAN

The Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association continues its work with the steadily maintained and effective cooperation of the corresponding committee of the American Medical Association.

This Committee on Health Problems was created as a committee of the National Council of Education at the meeting in San Francisco in 1911, at the suggestion and recommendation of the American Medical

Association, which was in session at the same time in Los Angeles. The committee was appointed at that time by the late Dr. Charles H. Keyes, who was president of the Nation Council of Education.

Dr. Keyes, from the beginning, took great interest in the work of the committee; he became a member at the expiration of his term as president of the National Council, and continuously during the remainder of his life was an active, loyal, constructive, and highly helpful member of this committee.

At the meeting of the National Education Association, in Des Moines, in July, 1921, this committee was formerly adopted as a committee of the National Education Association.

The reports of the committee include the following:

1. "Country Schoolhouses," prepared by Fletcher B. Dresslar, a member of our committee. This report is out of print.

2. "Minimum Health Requirements for Rural Schools." Three editions of 800,000 copies of this report have been distributed. The cost of printing the very large introductory edition of 750,000 copies of this report was covered by a gift of over \$3000 from the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund of Chicago. (This public-spirited organization has repeatedly given generous assistance in money and expert service to the Committee on Health Problems, which should be known to all the members of the National Education Association.)

3. "Health Essentials for Rural School Children" was printed in 50,000 copies. Two editions of this report have been distributed.

4. "The Health Chart Report." Two editions of this report, of 10,000 copies each, have been distributed and the third edition is now in press.

This pamphlet not only serves to illustrate and explain the health charts, but is being extensively used for health instruction in both city and country schools, and also as a guide in making health posters and scrap books.

5. "The Health Chart Set" comprises 60 charts, each 22 x 28 inches. Over 1100 complete sets of the health charts (over 60,000 individual charts) have been distributed in our own and in foreign countries. Many orders for individual charts have been received. One state department of health ordered 2400 copies of individual charts. Two charts dealing with school ventilation have been added to the original set of 58.

6. "The Teacher's Part in Social Hygiene" was published in 1921 with the cooperation of the American Social Hygiene Association, and this cooperating Association presented the Joint Health Committee with 5000 copies of this valuable bulletin. This report, containing a very carefully selected bibliography, has supplied a valuable bulletin for many teachers. A second and revised edition of this report has been printed and presented to the Joint Health Committee by the same Association. A moderate number of copies of this valuable report are still available for free distribution.

7. "Health Improvement in Rural Schools" was completed and published in 1922, with the substantial cooperation of the staff of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund. This report is still being distributed.

8. "Health Service in City Schools of the United States" is the report of a survey, conducted by our committee in 1922, of the health work which was being done in the city school systems of this country. Six hundred twenty-two six-page questionnaires were sent out to city superintendents of schools. Filled-out questionnaires containing much valuable information of current accomplishment were received from 340 (54.6 percent) of the superintendents.

9. "Daylight in the Schoolroom" is the title of a valuable report on school lighting which was prepared in 1921 by a subcommittee under the chairmanship of Dr. Edward Jackson, eminent ophthalmologist of Denver and a member of our joint committee.

10. "Health Education—a Program for Public Schools and Teacher Training Institutions." This report of 160 pages was prepared with the constructive cooperation of a technical committee of twenty-seven experts, and is considered by many recognized specialists to be the most authoritative publication ever issued in this field. Over 25,000 copies of this report have been distributed.

11. "Ventilation of School Buildings" was published in 1925. This report, dealing with another topic of great importance in the health program of the schools, was prepared with the cooperation of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, in Chicago. This Fund added to its extended program of generous contributions to our Committee by furnishing, without expense to our Committee, 2500 copies of this report on school ventilation.

12. "Conserving the Sight of School Children" is the first report in a series planned to furnish standards of health norms and health defects in school children. This report of 50 pages is based upon returns from questionnaires sent to 200 eminent ophthalmologists and has been prepared through the cooperation of the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness with our Joint Health Committee.

This national cooperating committee has already published a revised edition of this valuable report. This report furnishes a uniform standard for the examination and conservation of eyes and vision of school children.

Standardized (Snellen Type) Letter Charts and Symbol E Charts, illustrated and described in this report, have just been printed in wall-chart size and are now being distributed under the auspices of the Joint Health Committee and the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

13. "The Deafened School Child" has just been published and is being distributed at the Minneapolis meeting. This report has been prepared for the Joint Health Committee by the cooperation of the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing and the New York League for the Hard of Hearing. This very important report is

the second in the series planned to furnish standards of health norms and health defects in school children, and describes the methods approved by the highest professional authorities for the discovery, treatment, and prevention of hearing defects among school children.

In view of the fact that approximately 3,000,000 pupils in the schools of this country have measurable hearing defects which should be discovered and receive attention, this new report promises very important aid in relation to this problem.

Six other reports in this series are now being planned for and prepared.

Another report dealing with the periodic health examinations and inspection of school children is also in course of preparation.

In the preparation of these reports just referred to, the services of the cooperating committee of the American Medical Association are of the greatest value to this Health Committee of the National Education Association.

Many important health problems in education still need careful investigation, and call for reports which may be helpful to general and special workers in the education field. These specific problems, proposed each year by the members of the Joint Health Committee, seem actually to increase in number as the work of the Committee proceeds. To continue with reasonable efficiency the program now under way, the Health Committee respectfully asks for an appropriation for the coming year from the National Education Association. Your Committee, according to the custom of many years, confidently expects from the American Medical Association an appropriation equal to the sum granted by the National Education Association.

REPORT OF THE TENURE COMMITTEE OF THE HUNDRED OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

FRED M. HUNTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA,
CHAIRMAN

The work of the Tenure Committee of One Hundred appointed by Miss Olive Jones, President of the National Education Association in 1923, and continued by succeeding presidents of the Association since that date, has been chiefly to survey the prevailing tendencies in the tenure of teachers in the school systems of the several states and the legislative provisions for teacher tenure in the same and to make available the salient facts for all interested in the problem.

The findings of the Committee have been assembled in four reports to date. These reports have been printed in the form of bulletins issued by the Association. One of them—the first—presented at the Washington meeting of the Association in July, 1924 was reissued in November, 1925 as a bulletin of the Research Division of the Association.

The report of 1924 discussed the origin of the question of teacher tenure, assembled and presented facts showing prevalent conditions in teacher

turnover as reported by the state superintendents, reviewed flagrant cases of unjust dismissal of teachers, studied causes for dismissal by means of a widespread questionnaire survey among teachers and laymen, proposed provisions for tenure laws for recommendation to state teacher organizations, stated tenure conditions for teachers in the nations of Europe, and presented the texts of the several state tenure laws.

The 1925 report covered an investigation of tenure in colleges and normal schools and reviewed the principal arguments for indefinite tenure and tenure conditions in foreign nations.

The report of 1926 reviewed teacher turnover conditions and presented an extended bibliography on the subject of teacher tenure.

In 1927, the Committee offered a report defining the several types of tenure, included a tentative statement of principles which should control the framing and operation of tenure laws, presented the principal arguments for indefinite tenure and the principal arguments against indefinite tenure, made a pointed comparison in teacher turnover between rural communities with tenure upon a yearly contract basis and urban communities in which the policy of indefinite tenure prevails either by rule of the board of education or by state law, summarized data from an extensive survey among the high schools of the United States showing the number of young people entering the teaching profession among high-school graduates, and printed in full three newly enacted teacher tenure laws.

Thousands of copies of these reports have been available to members of the teaching profession, to laymen, to committees of legislatures, and to others interested in the problems of the profession. The data assembled by the work of the members of this Committee have had influence in determining the attitude of teacher organizations and of legislatures in arriving at sound judgments on tenure policies.

Restatement and Criticism of Tentative Principles Previously Presented by the Committee

As noted above, last year's report contained a tentative statement of principles proposed by the Committee for the guidance of those studying the problem of tenure legislation and establishing policies relative to it. For the purpose of review, this tentative list of principles is herewith repeated:

1. Tenure laws should be devised and administered in the interest of better instruction for children.
2. Tenure laws should be accompanied by proper legal regulations governing training, certification, remuneration, and retirement allowances.
3. Tenure laws should be devised and administered as a stimulus to better preparation and more efficient service on the part of teachers.
4. Indefinite tenure should be granted only upon evidence of satisfactory preliminary training, successful experience, and professional growth.
5. Indefinite tenure should be provided after successful experience during a probationary period of adequate length, usually two or three years.
6. The right of dismissal should be in the hands of the appointing board.

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.

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.

9. In cases of proposed dismissal, teachers should be granted right of hearing.

10. Teachers who do not desire to continue in their positions should give reasonable notice in writing of their intention.

11. Suitable provision should be made for teachers already in service in putting tenure laws into operation.

12. Indefinite tenure should be accorded to all classes of certificated school employees on status of teacher at least.

After a widespread circulation of the 1927 report of this Committee and a general call for criticism of the tentative principles stated therein, the Committee has received well-nigh universal approval of its initial statement. Of course, it is not to be assumed that all interested in tenure and all having had experience in administering tenure laws are in complete agreement with the detail of this statement of principles. The attitude expressed by widespread correspondence from almost every state indicates that approval is sufficiently universal to warrant a belief that this statement of principles should constitute a general platform supported by the Association as its tenure policy.

Has Indefinite Tenure Tended to Prevent or Retard Professional Growth?

It has been contended many times that indefinite tenure, and especially permanent tenure, will produce deleterious results on the part of members of the profession, that teachers who are not interested in professional growth or in the development of an effective service on the part of themselves and their coworkers in teaching are retained in the ranks, and that a proper stimulus is lacking toward the consummation on the part of individual teachers of the highest ideals of professional growth. In fact, the policies of the National Education Association and local teacher organizations have been questioned largely by two groups.

First, there is the unthinking opposition which stands against tenure because of prejudice. Those who are numbered in these ranks wish arbitrary control of schools and school systems and have a selfish desire to keep in their own hands the complete direction of all administrative procedures. In some instances a personal or political purpose is the immediate motive. This class of opposition needs not be seriously considered because in the long run, it will be defeated.

Another group opposes tenure because it has given thoughtful consideration to the question and as a result of this consideration has concluded that indefinite tenure causes deterioration in the ranks of the teaching profession. Some of our most distinguished educational thinkers belong in this group. They go so far as to maintain that cities and states which have had tenure in actual operation for many years show the effects thereof in a tendency of the teachers to take their positions for granted, and con-

sequently lessen their own efforts toward scientific study of teaching and professional growth.

In addition, this group maintains that because teaching is a public service, it is noncompetitive and that its very nature and the nature of the relationship involved in the employment of teachers by boards of education make the professional noncompetitive, and that it therefore tends to become mediocre.

The duty of teachers and teacher organizations relative to these two types of opposition is plain. The first group of opponents should be beaten by our own scientific study of the problem and organization to make clear to the public the real facts. The second type of opposition should be met by a vigorous attitude among ourselves to prevent mediocrity in the profession and to stimulate professional growth. Teacher organizations themselves should have a professional growth program and should devise and recommend means for eliminating the weak and ineffective members. It is only by such measures that we can hope to appeal successfully to public opinion for support.

It is the desire of the Committee of One Hundred to search assiduously for the facts. A sound and defensible policy will only come from finding and recognizing the truth whichever way it points. The best evidence, of course, is to be found from a study of conditions prevailing in the ranks of the teaching profession in states and cities where indefinite tenure has been in operation longest. The great difficulty lies in isolating the influence of tenure from the influence of other factors.

It appears possible, however, to muster some evidence from those states and cities where measures affording indefinite tenure have been in effect for some years in which fairly accurate records have been summarized or special studies made. For instance, the states of Massachusetts and New Jersey afford such opportunity. Two or three cities have also been investigating this problem. Studies from both these states and the cities of Portland, Oregon, and Oakland, California, are available.

It is also proposed to make studies in the states where new tenure laws have just been effective—for instance, Minnesota where a tenure law was enacted by the 1927 legislature applying to Minneapolis, St. Paul, and Duluth; and Indiana where a statewide tenure law became effective for the school year 1927-28.

Even in carefully directed studies, it is not possible to eliminate wholly other factors when we try to form conclusions about indefinite tenure and its effect upon the profession. If we ask, "Does indefinite tenure lessen turnover and tend to stabilize the profession?" and attempt to arrive at an answer scientifically we find such factors as increased salaries, better working conditions, better pension and retirement provisions, and the like going hand in hand and entering into the result.

On the other hand, if we state the principal question at issue as follows: "Can evidences be found to show that the practise of indefinite tenure in administering public school systems tends to deteriorate the professional

advancement of the members of the teaching staff," the evidence thus far seems to be unmistakable that such results do not follow. The Committee hopes through a study of the states mentioned above; namely, Massachusetts and New Jersey—representing those commonwealths in which statewide tenure has been practised longest, and Indiana and Minnesota—the states adding tenure laws most recently—and a study of professional growth in certain cities where tenure has operated over a long period of years, to ascertain definitely whether or not there are signs of deterioration in professional attitude.

Study of Massachusetts

Tenure Law in Operation Since 1914—Applicable to the Entire State Except the City of Boston

Statement of facts relating to professional attitude of teachers—The following data have been assembled by the state commissioner of education, Dr. Payson Smith, submitted by A. B. Lord, supervisor of research and statistics under date of April 9.

a. We do not have statistics showing the number of teachers who attended summer sessions in 1912-13. However, as I remember conditions at that time, the number was few as compared with the present day. There has been a decided increase every year. During the summer of 1927, there were over five thousand Massachusetts teachers attending summer sessions for professional improvement.

b. In the division of university extension of this department, 3269 teachers took extension courses solely for professional improvement last year, while a great many more teachers took courses in literature, current events, psychology, language, etc. We do not have the number of courses taken by teachers with private organizations, although we know that a great many teachers carried on extension courses with private colleges both within and without the state.

c. Number and percent of teachers in service who are university or college graduates:

1912-13	2697 or 15.9 percent
1926-27	5247 or 21.3 percent

d. Number and percent of teachers in service who are normal school graduates:

1912-13	9037 or 53.2 percent
1926-27	14,704 or 59.8 percent

City training schools:

1912-13	
1926-27	1551 or 6.3 percent

e. Number and percent of teachers in service who are graduates of no institutions of higher education:

1912-13	5245 or 30.9 percent
1926-27	3108 or 12.6 percent

f. I am unable to give you the number of high-school graduates in a typical city entering the teaching profession either in 1912-13 or 1926-27.

g. The enrolment in the teachers colleges and normal schools of the state in 1912-13 was 2644 and in 1926-27, 4368. We are now graduating about 200 teachers per year more than the vacancies in the state require. This has resulted in the establishment, two years ago, of a selective system of admission. The pupil who has a rating of A or B in all subjects is still admitted to the normal school without examination but a system of selection has been established which eliminated last year nearly two hundred applicants who were qualified so far as certification was concerned.

h. During the year ending December 31, 1925, of 301 towns and cities reporting, 1494 principals and teachers terminated their services in the positions which they were holding. Of this number 365 gave up teaching; 63 left to enter other employment; and 302 left because of marriage. The remaining number accepted positions in other communities.

i. In 1913 there were 48 organizations of teachers formed for professional improvement with 8000 teachers belonging to these associations. In 1926, there were 129 organizations to which 16,033 teachers belonged. This is exclusive of state and county organizations. It represents only the local town and city organizations of various types. These organizations were reported as carrying on for the most part series of lectures or extension courses during the school year for various groups of their members.

The number of teachers in public schools in 1912-13 was 13,959 and in 1926-27, 24,613 teachers were employed in the public schools.

Study of New Jersey

Tenure Law in Operation Since 1910

The following proposal to study effect of operation of tenure laws in New Jersey with a comparative study of same factors in other states not having tenure laws has been submitted by Willard S. Elsbree, assistant professor, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Proposed points to be studied:

1. *Turnover*—This is a study of the percent of teachers who left the profession in the state during the period the tenure law has been in effect and for several years previous to the enactment of the law. It will afford some evidence of the stabilizing effect of the law. Data are available which show the length of time in the present position for each teacher of the state, also the position held in 1926-27. These data will give a good measure of the stability of the group at the present time, as well as the amount of local turnover.

2. *Dismissal*—We shall attempt to secure all of the available evidence concerning the dismissal of teachers after tenure has been secured in order to determine what constitutes legitimate grounds for dismissal.

3. *Professional progress and training in service*—We shall study the professional improvement in service of those who have been on tenure for five years or over and compare this with teachers in Connecticut under similar conditions where tenure does not apply.

4. *Policies regarding the selection of teachers*—Because of this tenure law many school boards have established policies against retaining married teachers on tenure and regarding the employment of local teachers. The extent of such policies will be determined.

Special salary provisions for training secured in service exist in a few communities. Account must be taken of this and similar policies which might be factors in the problem.

Before any valid conclusions can be drawn from the above study, it will be necessary to make comparisons with states or communities similar to New Jersey but not having a tenure law. Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and the large villages of

New York will make it possible, we hope, to get some comparative data. From our discussion of this problem, and we have given it considerable thought, it will be impossible to draw any clearcut conclusions unless we make as extensive a study as we have outlined here.

Dr. Elsbree's investigation will probably be ready for the report of the Committee for 1929 if the Committee is continued. It should shed much light on the question of deterioration as stated above.

Study of Indiana and Minnesota

The Committee has asked the departments of education, respectively, in the state university of Minnesota and the state university of Indiana to undertake a study through its graduate division of the results of the operation of the tenure laws recently enacted over a five year period. At a future date, the Committee—if continued by the Association—hopes to render a report which will be of value upon the study of these two states.

Study of Two Cities Practising Indefinite Tenure for More Than Five Years

Oakland, California

Indefinite tenure law in operation since 1921—1852 members of teaching staff

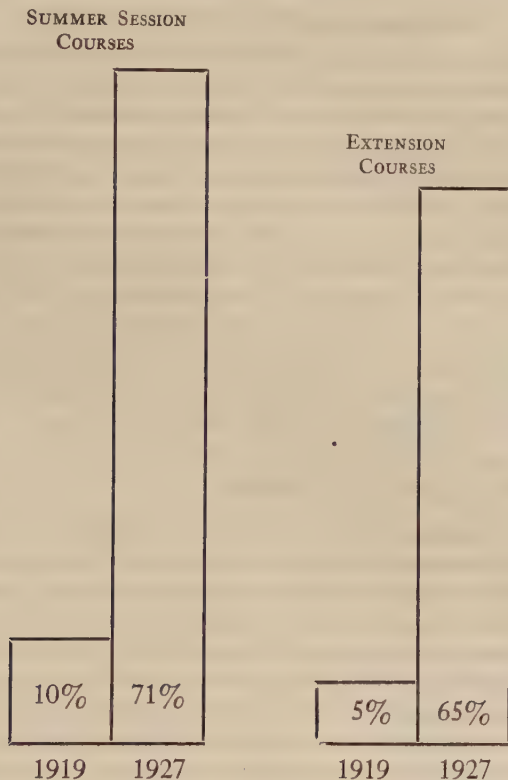
*Professional attitude of teachers of Oakland public schools as indicated by record of professional courses taken*¹—Of the 767 elementary teachers and principals who have taken summer session work, 7 of them have taken units or have received credit from courses taken in the university; 586 of them have taken extension courses; 187 of them have taken private work; and 26 have travelled in America or Europe. When 31 percent of all the elementary teachers and principals have taken from 1 to 15 courses in the summer session, and 38 percent have taken from 1 to 15 courses in the extension department of the university, it means that the teachers are busy and are forging ahead. Of the 316 junior high-school teachers, 250 have taken summer session work, 189 have taken extension courses, 81 have taken private work, and 10 have travelled in America or Europe. Of the 422 high-school teachers, 225 have taken summer session work, 202 have taken extension courses, 149 have taken private work, and 32 have travelled in America or Europe; of the 36 supervisors, 30 have taken summer session work, 24 have taken extension courses, 17 have taken private work, and 2 have travelled in America or Europe.

Taking it all in all, 1092 of the 1541 teachers or 71 percent have taken from 1 to 15 courses in summer sessions; 16 or 1.04 percent have taken from 1 to 75 credits in the university; 1001 or 65 percent have taken from 1 to 15 extension courses; 434 or 28 percent have taken from

¹ Excerpt from study "The Professional Preparation and Improvement While in Service of the Teachers of Oakland and a Comparison of a Similar Study Made in 1919," by Ray O. Diether, Viceprincipal, Technical High School.

one month to 12 years private work; and 70 or 4.5 percent have travelled either in America or Europe.

Chart showing the increase in Summer Session and Extension Courses taken by Oakland teachers in eight years, 1919-1927



Portland, Oregon

Indefinite tenure law in operation since 1913—1705 members of teaching staff

Statement by Charles A. Rice, superintendent of schools—"Approximately twenty-five percent of our teachers did professional work prior to tenure law; now sixty percent. Increase due in part to platoon schools requiring teachers to specialize; also to single salary schedule which pays maximum salary to teachers with Bachelor's Degree regardless of grade taught. We believe tenure stabilizes the profession and stimulates growth of teachers."

A review of the movement toward professional improvement shown by the cities of Oakland, California, and Portland, Oregon, indicates that other factors than tenure have entered. However, there certainly has been no deterioration. On the other hand, a manifest movement toward pro-

professional improvement by the members of the teaching staff is apparent in both cities. It is fair to reason that stability in each of the above cities has been one of the factors operating in conjunction with others to bring about this tendency toward professional improvement.

Statements of Professional Leaders

At a regularly called meeting of the Tenure Committee of One Hundred held in Boston on the occasion of the last meeting of the Department of Superintendence, it was determined that a statement of recommendations for tenure provisions should be asked from educational leaders in teachers colleges and universities who have expressed an attitude on the problem of indefinite tenure. The Committee was desirous of securing the views of those who oppose indefinite and permanent tenure as well as those who support it. We submit herewith such statements from Frank Spaulding, Ellwood P. Cubberley, Leonard V. Koos, and George D. Strayer.

Frank E. Spaulding, Dean of School of Education, Yale University—"Each state must work out its own tenure policy in the light of its own conditions. It is impracticable to attempt to formulate a policy which would be generally applicable. Hence 'the best state policy' can be nothing better than an unworkable abstraction. The greatest need now is unbiased studies of effects of policies in operation.

Ellwood P. Cubberley, Dean of School of Education, Stanford University—"The movement for life tenure of teachers is an outgrowth largely of injustices in the matter of employment, caused largely by the whims of communities and the unintelligent actions of local boards of education. That yearly reemployment is both unsatisfactory and unjust to teachers, and that the effect upon the teaching force and in turn upon the schools is injurious cannot be doubted. The results have been that the teachers, to cure an evil, have proposed to create what in time is very likely to become a greater one, as full life tenure is almost certain in time to be even worse than annual reemployment.

That security in tenure, so long as the services rendered are satisfactory, is desirable there can be no question. Security will tend to draw a better class of young people to teacher training institutions, and to retain a better class of instructors in the teaching ranks. The schools exist, however, to afford the best possible instruction for children, and only incidentally to afford places for teachers, and any consideration of the tenure problem must be approached from the child's point of view, rather than from that of the teacher.

Annual reemployment and life tenure represent two extremes in the matter of teacher employment, and there is no necessity for having either. There is, instead, a middle ground that is fair alike to the children, to the teacher, and to the public which pays the bills; namely, probationary employment, followed by indeterminate tenure. Indeterminate tenure, following a reasonably satisfactory probationary period, guarantees the

teacher virtual life tenure during efficient service, lays proper basis for the improvement of teachers while at work and for a general salary and pensioning scheme, and at the same time guarantees the public that a capable and progressive school system can be maintained. Nearly all the permanent tenure laws so far enacted contain a provision that teachers enjoying tenure may still be dismissed, after a public trial, for immorality, insubordination, neglect of duty, unprofessional conduct, or incompetence. The first four causes seldom occur with teachers, and when they do a quiet resignation is usually the solution, while the only serious charge—incompetency—can almost never be proved if the teacher chooses to fight; and when it is attempted it is the accusing officer and not the teacher who is in reality put on trial. Almost any attorney, representing the teacher, can create a bad situation for the board and the superintendent, while the resulting newspaper publicity and the personalities exchanged leave a bad impression with the community. If the board dismisses the teacher, an appeal to the courts almost always results in the reinstatement, with full back salary, of the teacher so dismissed. The result is that school boards and superintendents soon give up the attempt to rid the schools of incompetents, and life tenure for all, regardless of efficiency, becomes a certainty.

That a body of teachers, reasonably efficient at the time a life tenure law is enacted, will all continue to be capable and efficient instructors fifteen to twenty-five years afterward, any one who has had much to do with teachers or is acquainted with human nature knows will not be the case. Most teachers, like other people, keep themselves alive best if under the influences of a gentle but constant spur. For some teachers the surest method for producing inefficiency is to take away the incentive to activity, growth, and personal improvement which the opportunity for a periodic review of what they are doing provides. If the purpose is to develop a self-satisfied and an unprogressive teaching force, ultimately to weaken seriously our American public schools, and in time to turn over education, for those who can afford it, into the hands of the private and parochial schools, leaving the public schools to minister to the needs of only the rural and village populations and the poorer and more ignorant classes of our cities, then unlimited life tenure laws for teachers and principals is one of the surest means that could be devised for so doing. So large and so important a national undertaking as public education, where progress and personal growth are so essential to efficiency, cannot be for long successfully carried on on a life tenure basis of employment.

A sound plan for teacher tenure, in the judgment of the writer, should be constituted substantially as follows:

A new teacher entering the service of a city or a county school district should enter on probationary appointment, for say a five-year term, with credit for service elsewhere, to be determined at the time of entrance, not to exceed three years in amount. At the completion of the probationary period, if satisfactory, the teacher should be elected to indeterminate tenure, after which no yearly

election would be called for, as long as the teacher met the general requirements of the state as to certificates and professional study and improvement. The teacher would then be given virtual life tenure, as long as she, or he, did not fall under some of the legal causes for dismissal from the service, as provided by general state law.

The causes for dismissal should be two types, and should be dealt with differently. The first type should include causes requiring immediate attention, such as immorality, insubordination, willful neglect of duty, and probably certain clearly defined cases of unprofessional conduct. For these, on proper proof, the teacher should be subject, at any time, to suspension by the superintendent and dismissal by the board of education, always subject to the appeal provided for hereafter. The other type of cause is incompetency or unfitness for the teaching service. When this is the charge, the teacher should not be brought to trial before the board in an attempt to prove what can seldom be proved, but instead be transferred back to the probationary class for teachers for the ensuing year. In a large city there could be a special school, or schools, under a very competent training principal, where teachers could be transferred, helped, and if necessary, retrained and prepared for reassignment. Her work should then be placed under careful observation, and she should be given any needed help. There should be no reduction in salary, and, if the teacher demands it, a change to another school in the city or county school district should be permitted. At the end of the year of probationary service the teacher should either be restored to indeterminate tenure or be dropped from the service. If necessary to assign her again to probationary status, she, or he, should be discharged instead.

As to the validity of the evidence for dismissal under either type of cause, the board of education concerned should be the judge. If dismissed, the teacher should be permitted to appeal the case to the state commissioner of education—or to a state appeal board—for review and final decision, but with no appeal of the case to the courts except when the rights of the teacher in the matter, as defined in the law, have been infringed. The question of competency is an educational and not a legal matter, and it should be decided on educational and not on legal grounds.

After a little while, under such a law, boards of education would cease to attempt the dismissal of teachers except for sound reasons; all good teachers would have undisturbed tenure; weak and inefficient teachers would not find the schools a safe haven in which to earn a livelihood; public trials under the guidance of lawyers interested only in establishing a case for their client would be almost entirely eliminated; and the children—for whom the schools exist—would be protected in their right to have as good a teacher as the money available can secure.

Leonard V. Koos, Professor of Educational Administration, University of Minnesota, and Director of Survey of Secondary Education of the State of California—"For many years, I have been favorable to providing such assurance by statute. I am still favorable, but after recent contacts with those who have had experience with laws in operation, I have modified my viewpoint somewhat. Perhaps I can best describe that attitude by saying that I am just as strong as I ever was for tenure for those employed in the profession of teaching, any qualification of my former attitude arising out of a present lack of professionalization in the teaching group. For example, I begin to doubt whether we should assure permanent tenure to teachers with lower grades of certificates and professional training. Again

I doubt whether it is feasible to pass tenure laws applicable to situations where professional supervision does not apply as in the case of county superintendents who are elected by popular vote and who make very infrequent contact with the schools under their direction and control. This revised attitude may be put positively by saying that I am favorable to tenure laws for teachers who are professionally qualified and who are in situations where they receive professional supervision."

George D. Strayer, Teachers College, Columbia University—"Teachers who enter the service after having received standard professional training should serve a probationary period of three years during which time their fitness for the teaching profession should be determined. After the probationary period, they should be given indeterminate tenure. After this tenure has been established, they should not be subject to annual or term elections. Their continuance in the service should, however, be dependent upon meeting the advancing standards of the profession. They should be dismissed only after trial for inefficiency and for immorality. There should always be provided an appeal from the decision rendered by the local board of education. This appeal should be to the commissioner of education or state superintendent of schools."

Summary—The Committee believes that a continued study of the operation of indefinite tenure in the states where such laws exist and in the cities where the practise prevails through rules and regulations of the board of education or by virtue of long established precedent will afford the facts upon which a permanent policy for the Association can be based. The Association has already taken a definite attitude in favor of greater stability in the profession and better conditions for teachers everywhere. A sound policy of state legislation can be recommended to state legislatures and state teachers associations only when the facts are well established.

The study of Massachusetts and New Jersey, where the oldest tenure laws exist—the study of Indiana and Minnesota, where the newest tenure laws exist—undertaken over a period of five years, and the observations of the effects of tenure in large city school systems ought to be a valuable guide to those who determine the policy of the National Education Association and of the teachers associations in the several states.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RETIREMENT ALLOWANCES¹

E. RUTH PYRTLE, CHAIRMAN, PRINCIPAL, BANCROFT SCHOOL,
LINCOLN, NEBR.

The Retirement Committee now has 187 members representing every state and territory.

¹ These remarks were made at the Minneapolis meeting by Miss Pyrtle, chairman of the committee, in presenting a preliminary report. The revised report will appear as Vol. VI, No. 3, issue of the Research Bulletin of the N. E. A.

Retirement Committee objectives

1. The preparation of reports and other materials valuable to those working for the development of sound teacher retirement systems.
2. The maintenance of a clearinghouse of information for those concerned with the problem of teacher retirement allowances.
3. The conduct of studies of major problems growing out of the movement for sound teacher retirement systems.
4. Assisting with the proper kind of press publicity for sound teacher retirement allowances outside as well as within the teaching profession. This is one if not the greatest need in this great cause, so important to the efficiency of the teachers' profession.

The reports contain material which should be of great value to those striving to establish or to maintain and improve sound teacher retirement systems. The reports show that 23 states and the District of Columbia have now state-wide retirement laws, 15 more states have state laws that apply to certain cities only and the other 10 states are now working diligently toward state-wide retirement legislation. Our Committee through correspondence has assembled in the Research Department of the National Education Association at Association headquarters an excellent library of theoretical and practical material and a file of the texts of practically all the retirement laws in effect.

A continuing correspondence is carried on with state officials and members of state and local teacher retirement systems to secure the latest information concerning the progress of retirement legislation, assembling it in one place, in order that the Association may respond promptly to the many calls for assistance from those out in the field working on retirement problems.

A statement of the "Fundamental Principles of a Teachers' Retirement System" contained in this report and which is the result of several years' research and the cooperation of experts on teacher retirement, located in all sections of the country, has become the bible guide on retirement study, so one of the hard working committee members wrote me a few weeks ago. Frequent letter responses reach me similar to this received June 19, 1928 from Miss Jennie Roch of New Orleans. She writes:

It may be of interest to you to know that we have introduced into the Louisiana Legislature which is meeting at present a bill for the reorganization of the New Orleans Retirement Fund. The Act was planned by Mr. Buck. The new law contains all except two of the principles advocated by the Committee on Retirement Allowances of the National Education Association. The two principles that are not included are reciprocal relations and options. The Bill has passed the house unanimously, and we expect no opposition in the Senate.

Our Retirement Committee appreciates the cordial effective cooperative relations which has been established with the National Council of Retirement Systems. A most valuable half day joint session of discussion was held at the Boston meeting.

The Committee hopes to initiate during the coming year some cooperative research studies valuable in the retirement field—protection and proper investment of large reserve funds now being built up.

General progress of retirement movement—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 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.

Our 1926 retirement report recommended to the Board of Directors the establishment of a modern, sound retirement plan covering the Association headquarters employees.

Such a plan was worked out and at the Seattle meeting was authorized by the Board of Directors.

The plan went into effect Dec. 1, 1927. A review of the plan is in the June, 1928, *Journal of the National Education Association*. The Committee heartily approves the action of the Board of Directors. We feel it means the continued efficiency of the headquarters staff.

This Committee is greatly indebted to John K. Norton and his assistants of the Research Division for their efficient work in the preparation of this report.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE TO COOPERATE WITH THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS IN COL- ORED SCHOOLS

N. C. NEWBOLD, DIRECTOR, DIVISION OF NEGRO EDUCATION,
RALEIGH, N. C., CHAIRMAN

On a basis of averages, every tenth child born in the United States belongs to the Negro race. He is just as human, just as anxious to enjoy the privileges of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness as are the other nine. He is a potential citizen. He appeals to America for a chance to develop all the God-given powers with which his Creator has endowed him.

Representing this tenth child and his twelve million kindred in America, your Committee wishes to express appreciation for interest and coopera-

tion already manifested in the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, and to recommend for your earnest consideration, and, we hope, your adoption at this meeting, the following plan for further cooperation.

1. Studies or surveys or investigations by this Committee or other persons under its direction.

(a) Collecting data on the status of Negro education in this country—elementary schools, high schools, and colleges, teacher training, school attendance and the like.

This would be done mainly by bringing together the facts from reports already published by the states and by the United States Bureau of Education. This summary of the present status of Negro education would be of real value to educational officials and to students of this subject throughout the country.

(b) That a basic study be made, if possible, of the conditions affecting the health of the Negro school child as they exist at the present time. To aid, in some measure, in organizing and directing such a study we can, in all probability, secure the cooperation of the American Child Health Association.

2. That in at least one program of the General Sessions there be included an address by some leader in Negro education who has a wide reputation for service in this field.

The obvious purpose of such an address would be to remind us of existing conditions in Negro education, and, if possible, furnish a basis for helpful cooperation.

3. That a Negro musical organization be invited to furnish the music for at least one program of the General Sessions. Such organizations as the Hampton, Tuskegee, Atlanta University, and other college quartettes, and the Fisk University Jubilee Singers would charm and delight the thousands who attend the National Education Association meetings.

4. That the National Education Association give its sympathetic interest and encouragement to the preparation of a motion picture which will describe on a factual basis the history of Negroes in America, their struggles, their accomplishments in education, literature, art, music, and in the accumulation of wealth, their contributions to America in industry, agriculture, and in the arts and sciences, and in peace and war.

The purpose of such a serious effort to describe the Negroes' part in our history is selfevident, viz: To inform the mass of our American people that Negroes form a component part of our population, that they desire to share in the privileges of our great government, but that they are eager to bear their full part of the responsibilities of other American citizens.

5. That the Committee to cooperate with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools be included in the list of permanent committees of the National Education Association, and that an adequate appropriation be made for its activities in the current year.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE ECONOMIC STATUS OF THE TEACHER

B. R. BUCKINGHAM, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY, COLUMBUS, OHIO,
CHAIRMAN

Sandwiched as I am between the legitimate people on this program, I think it is not proper that I should occupy much of your time or attention. I don't want to prevent the talking of the people who talk so lovely. They are getting nervous on the right and left, and I am sure they would like to begin.

The Committee on the Economic Status of Teachers was appointed by this representative body meeting in Seattle, to collect data concerning the situation of the teaching force of this country. I should like to point out that it isn't entirely a question of salary. An excellent committee has been appointed by Miss Adair and it will set to work on the problem right away as soon as the Budget Committee does its part, which I presume it will.

The committee met early this week and formulated certain plans. It is true that the question of salary in various aspects as it relates to the purchasing power of the income of the teacher is a large factor in our thinking, but it is not all by any means. If I had time and you had the inclination to hear me, I should tell you some of the topics that we decided we had better look into.

I wish we might hear from some of the delegates who were particularly responsible for the appointment of this committee at Seattle. You must have had something in your minds that you wished the committee do. If we could know what those things are, we should appreciate it greatly. Of course, it isn't possible for us to go into all phases of the question, but we should not like to leave out some of the major things, some of the things that are particularly lying in your minds.

I said a moment ago that they are not all questions of salary and you know that right well. It is a fact, isn't it, that socially the teacher is not always as highly regarded as we think he or she should be.

Right here I want to say that I am not going to say he or she, or him or her. I am going to say he and him. You can take the masculine pronoun to include the ladies. Miss Adair reminds me that the men embrace the women.

I was at one time visiting a school on the occasion of a parent-teachers meeting. This was one of these swell schools in a high class residential suburban section. After the meeting one of the parents was talking to me, a lady of very evident wealth and station, presently she said, "There goes the teacher of my little boy."

"Do you know her?" I asked.

"Oh yes," she replied.

"I presume you have had her to dinner at your home?"

"Oh, no," said she evidently surprised. "No, we wouldn't invite her to our home. She wouldn't enjoy that," and so on. The lady succeeded in impressing me with the idea that in her opinion the teacher was not up to her standard.

A part of this question of status of the teacher takes in that whole problem of the social setting in which the teacher finds himself. You know the lawyer and the doctor and the engineer are all recognized as experts. We go to a lawyer when we have business that we know he can attend to better than we, and we don't oppose his judgment, at least not very strenuously. The same is true with the doctor, and likewise with the engineer and all sorts of other folks who specialize, but everyone under heaven seems to have a clear idea how the school should be run.

One of the things the teachers most need to establish is their rightful status as experts in education; but in order to do this they must be really and truly and conspicuously expert. As perhaps some of you know, I preach the idea of studentship on the job, the idea of studying education, its products, its processes, and its curricula. The thought that research is something that university professors alone indulge in has done a whole lot to hamper the scope and dignity of the professionalism of the teacher in the elementary and secondary school.

We know, of course, that the university professor is employed to investigate and to teach. It ought to be a doctrine held throughout all educational institutions that teachers should be trained, hired and expected both to teach and to investigate, in other words, that teaching and research go hand in hand.

I do not mean that the emphasis on research need be as great in the elementary school as it is in the university, but I do mean that it ought to be there and that it ought to be planned for and expected.

You know we are different from the people in the physical sciences and in the linguistic and social sciences. We do not have old manuscripts or bugs or fossils upon which to exercise our spirit of inquiry, but human beings; and we have human beings at the most engaging period of their existence, namely, childhood. In endless procession, as one class succeeds another, they pass before us ever at the level of childhood. Moreover, each of these children has his own peculiarities, which it is our privilege to study and to serve. If therefore the work of the teacher includes, besides teaching, the study of childhood and the ministration in the most intelligent way to childhood, then the status of the teacher, it seems to me, takes on new meaning and new dignity.

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; and three chosen by each of the Departments of the Association. The list of members is published in this volume, pages 256-262. 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 1928-29 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, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, A. J. Matthews, President, Tempe Normal School, Tempe, Ariz. (term expires 1929); M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa (term expires 1930). 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: 147-440	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	1927:247-292

THE COORDINATION OF EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS IN DEVELOPING A PROGRAM FOR CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND PARENT EDUCATION

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BEFORE we can discuss the question of coordinating the educational interests of the public schools into a functioning program of child development and parent education, it is important first to consider the school's share in this program and how it can best discharge the responsibilities which it must assume in connection with it.

The school of today is committed to the ideal of giving to each child who comes within its guardianship a chance for maximum development within the range of opportunities which it is able to provide.

The school's share in the program of child development and parent education must start then with its first contract with the child or the child's home, for as early as possible the school and the home should set up a partnership, the purpose of which is to furnish the best possible opportunities for the child to develop to the optimum his potential capacities. This co-operation should be continued throughout the child's school life.

The school cannot intelligently do its share unless it has a pretty clear understanding of the life of the child outside of school hours, his physical condition, his food habits, his rest and his play—something of the home which is conditioning the behavior which is evidenced in school. As education is a continuous process and all of life's experiences are educative, the school cannot select wisely those experiences which it can best offer to the child unless it knows something of the full round of his activities, particularly in the home, for in these early years the home is primarily responsible for shaping child behavior. This means that the school should start its program of parent education at the time that it accepts its charge from the home, for it is no longer content merely in doing what it can for the child during school hours, it will wish to affect for the better the home from which he comes. The school must not supplant the home, but it must supplement its work, oftentimes guide and direct it, in its handling of problems of child care.

Much excellent work is already being done in the early grades, but not enough. The program suggested above takes cooperation with doctors, nurses, health specialists, habit clinics and nutritionists, as well as teachers especially trained in the various aspects of child development. Nursery schools, kindergartens and primary education are costly say the school administrator. The numbers are great here and they fast drop out in the upper grades. It is much more economical to spend at the top. Perhaps so, but what becomes of the one who drops out without ever having had even a chance to make the most of himself? We see evidences every day of this vicious circle—the unfit beget the unfit—even the best of schools

cannot save all, but psychological, educational, and sociological research have directed the way to salvaging many, if we are ready to pay for the cost of such a program.

The next very important aspect of this problem, the school's program of child development and parent education, is the school's responsibility for giving to its girls and boys training which will achieve our objective of "Worthy home membership." We have accepted this as one of the cardinal principles of education, but we have done little to promote a functioning program. Are we ready to pledge ourselves to a program of curriculum and extracurriculum activities which will give to every girl and boy an appreciation of the significance of the right kind of home life and a desire to perpetuate it? Which will build up ideals and attitudes of home loyalties and which will influence the part which they play as a member of a family?

Many children in the public schools come with no ideal of the kind of home which should be preserved, or of the kind of home which is worth struggling for or working for. Is the school of today ready to furnish this ideal to the boys and girls under its charge? Are we ready to teach a democratic organization of the home in which every member shares in the work and in the responsibilities, and at the same time has a share in the planning of its activities and its organization?

Are these questions of importance for boys and girls of high-school age?

Statistics show that there are now 700,000 girls who were married below sixteen years of age, and statistics further show that marriages of students completing the seventh and eighth grade produce three to four children, while marriages from high-school graduates, two children, and marriages from college graduates, .35 to .95 of a child. These facts clearly indicate that not only should our public schools assume responsibility for developing ideals of homemaking but that they should also furnish training in the social and biological sciences underlying the maintenance of a home in the problems of child care and management and the skills which must be practiced in the home. A number of our schools are offering good courses in homemaking but many are limited too much merely to the teaching of the skills and most of them are reaching comparatively few girls and practically no boys.

A recent survey reports courses in child care offered as a part of the home economics program in a number of schools and indicates that they are using a good deal of ingenuity in providing for their pupils observation and experience in handling young children. This is being secured through cooperation with kindergartens and primary grades, day nurseries, health and behavior clinics, children's hospitals, orphanages, child placing homes, playgrounds, and nursery schools. The girls are given opportunity for directed observations and after some experience are permitted to assist with the care of the children. The class discussion is based upon the questions which contact with the children provoke. It is thus well motivated and grows out of very genuine interest on the part of the students.

The nursery school is growing in popularity in this country and it is one of the most effective means for offering parental and preparental training. The children can be observed under quite normal conditions and the way in which they respond to wisely conditioned environment and the skill with which the well-trained teacher handles situations is of much consequence to young women and to mothers who wish help in handling young children.

One of the most effective nursery schools, organized as a part of the home economics course in public school, has now been open for more than two years. In this school the course in child care is required of every girl for graduation. Groups of high-school girls are assigned each day to the nursery school and they are given regular duties which are rotated so that each girl has a chance for a wide variety of contacts. They help supervise the cloakroom, assist in the bathroom, toilet, with the preparation and serving of lunches, and with games and outdoor play. There are sixteen children in attendance and the school is open from 8:30 until 3 o'clock. The children have a light mid-morning luncheon and a heavy noon meal and have their rest period and their nap in the afternoon. This experience is rich in opportunity for high-school girls and they avail themselves quite eagerly of it. The service in the nursery school is supplemented by class discussions and readings which give opportunity for many questions and which open up many important topics. This training is not designed for nurse maids or teachers of little children but to give high-school girls, who will in a few years have homes of their own, some appreciation and understanding of the problems of child care and how they can most intelligently be handled.

A program which will encourage girls and boys to assume their share in the home today and challenge them to strive for the maintenance of worthwhile homes in the future, demands the cooperation and coordination of a number of the subjectmatter departments and of the extracurriculum activities as well. Life's problems and situations are not solved in terms of chemistry, mathematics, or biology, they are solved only when these subjects function as tools and are understandingly used to this end. Child care and other problems of home and family life cannot be adequately taught as a subject or by one department alone. It can very well be organized by the home economics department but it should have the assistance of the school nurse, physician, psychiatrist, health and physical education departments, and the social and biological sciences, as well as music, literature, and arts, if they will serve. Community agencies interested in the care of little children, such as day nurseries, children's hospitals, clinics, etc., must assist if adequate laboratory facilities are to be made available.

There is no objective, which has come into the school's program, which offers more of a challenge to the school authorities or to the subjectmatter departments than does that of providing in the public schools opportunity for child development under wise guidance and for preparental training for high-school girls and boys. A program in the schools which will further worthy home membership will stand or fall, by the vision and the under-

standing which is shown in coordinating all available agencies which can function in its promotion.

In conclusion I can only say a few words about the parental program—interest in adult education is growing steadily and parent education is an increasingly important part of this movement. Several cities now employ a specialist in parental education, who gives her whole time to such work. The states that are leading in this movement are Oklahoma, Nebraska, Iowa, Massachusetts, New York, and California. We have become accustomed to spending public school funds for the training of auto mechanics, brick layers, milliners, and for the teaching of history, geography, and English—can we question the wisdom of spending of public funds for training in homemaking and parenthood? It is a program which meets vital needs, which promotes in the most effective manner the maintenance of the best principles of the institution of the home and it well deserves the support of our educators.

THE NEED FOR SYNTHETIC TYPE OF RESEARCH

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As inductive and deductive reasoning were used pragmatically by every individual from the dawn of the human race but awaited an Aristotle for logical formulation and Francis Bacon and the modern scientists for application and control of the phenomenal world, so with the analysis and synthesis of research. Both types have been used pragmatically from the first gropings of human understanding, yet richer experience and wider application permit only an adequate formulation even at the present day.

When our father Adam gave as an excuse for the first misstep that the women tempted him and he ate to discover what manner was the fruit of the tree of knowledge he furnished the first recorded instance of analytic research. And later when he accepted the penalty of analytic research that thereafter in labor and the sweat of his brow should he obtain life and future knowledge, he furnished also the first record of research of synthesis.

We are accustomed to contrast pure research and applied research much as for practical purposes as we are accustomed to make the distinction which in reality does not exist between pure and applied science. So in reality analysis and synthesis in thinking and analysis and synthesis in research are not contrasting, much less antagonistic, processes. They are in reality parts of the same process when completed, but which too frequently are left incomplete or separated.

The place of analysis and synthesis in educational research can best be indicated by comparison with related fields. The teaching of history has long been criticized because of its exclusive emphasis on the political and resulting military interests in human experience. The historical student

has isolated or analyzed the political interests and activities, probably because they are best recorded in documents, and has followed out this one interest of man and called it history. Analysis is isolation of essential factors from the mass of phenomena for the sake of better understanding. This isolated political aspect of life has been called history. More recently great emphasis has been laid upon another factor, the economic, and has led to the economic interpretation of history. Much of the recent controversy over the teaching of history has arisen from the attempt to correct the one-sided and misleading interpretation which is bound to arise through the isolation of the political factor by a similar isolation of the economic factor. It may be just as much of an error pedagogically and historically, but probably less debatable a fact, to present John Hancock as a smuggler as to present him as a patriot of the purest ray serene, or the framers of our Constitution as petty lawyers and speculators, anxious for a rise in Continental paper money, as to consider them the statesmen, moved only by the purest patriotism and of political wisdom little less than inspired. Certainly the clue to the teaching of history as a part of the common education of all youth is to be found in the substitution of synthesis for an analytic approach, which can only be made possible by researches of corresponding character.

No American historian has been more bitterly criticized for his emphasis on the economic aspect of American history than Dr. Charles Beard. But in his most recent work Dr. Beard has stated:

In reality the heritage, economics, politics, culture and international filiations of any civilization are so closely woven by fate into one fabric that no human eye can discern the beginnings of its warp or woof. And any economic interpretation, any political theory, any literary criticism, any aesthetic appreciation, which ignores this perplexing fact, is of necessity superficial. That a few students recognize the nature of the problem and are beginning the search for a synthesis is a striking sign of the new epoch in American intellectual development.

This is exactly the situation in education and particularly educational research. Perhaps further illustrations from the field of practical education are desirable before attempting the application to the field of educational research. We have long been familiar with the merits or at least the advocated merits of the analytic and synthetic methods of learning to read, learning to write, or of studying geography, arithmetic, or nature. The same controversy over the merits of the analytic and synthetic methods extends to the more advanced fields of mathematics and science.

It is easy to see the complete inadequacy of the extreme analytical position of the old; and long discarded, alphabetic method of learning to read; though it is not so easy to dispose of the controversy between advocates of the word method and of the sentence method. But it is easy to see that as opposed to the alphabet method, the word method is a synthetic method, whereas as opposed to the sentence method, it is synthetic. Perhaps to the practical, mature man, as to the student of education, the truth

lies in a combination of analysis and synthesis, and it may be that in reality they are not opposed and contradictory and mutually exclusive, but are parts of the same process.

In fact, both analysis and synthesis are for the sake of understanding and control and both are necessary to the completed process, whether this process be a simple process of thought or an elaborate program of research to solve a complicated problem of education. We analyze to isolate a factor in a situation, in order to clarify, to understand, to control. On the other hand, it is quite as necessary to synthesize the various elements isolated by analyses, also in order to clarify, to understand, to control. And the synthetic process is ordinarily far more difficult, and more subject to errors than the analytic process.

A child understands a flower or a fruit by analyzing its color, form, smell, taste, size; a scientist by analyzing its component parts, pistils, stamens, petals, sepals, and each classifies according to the analysis. But in the case of either child or scientist, a real understanding of the place of the flower in life is absent until the flower is synthesized again and connected back with plant and bud and fruit.

Further, it may be seen from this illustration that in our ordinary educational processes we are often satisfied with the analytic processes because we are satisfied with partial results. If we demand the complete results of absorption of the process into life so that it has become a real educative process, it must have proceeded from analysis to synthesis. That is—neither the analytic nor the synthetic process is complete in itself; both are means to an objective—the completed educative process.

So also is it with the analytic and synthetic aspects of research, and this presents our problem. Unity of the educative process on a scientific basis depends on development of synthetic scientific research. As matters now stand, scientific research in education has made great strides in the analytic phase. We have scientific tests by which children can be segregated, classified on the bases of abilities, interests, and achievements. These can be applied *pari passu* through the school progress of the child. Accurate interpretation of various phases of the child's mental life are available for the student and for the teacher. While there have been some very creditable attempts at the interpretation of specific social needs and demands, some attempts on a scientific basis for moral education, some efforts other than purely pragmatic ones at a unified curriculum logically connected with actual classroom processes, social situations and the growth of individual children, yet after all nothing comparable to what has been done in the fields amenable to the analytic procedures has been accomplished in the synthetic field. The very complexity and enormity of the task baffles and repels.

During the war it became rather a commonplace observation that man's moral and social development had not kept pace with his development of the control of forces of nature through science. Through chemical and physical research we had learned how to manipulate chemical and me-

chanical destruction of life on a huge scale, while this same knowledge might have been used to enrich rather than to destroy life. But though mankind became most efficient in cooperative action and cooperative research to carry on such destructive activities, we have not learned how to cooperate to confine the use of such knowledge to constructive purposes. The reasons, of course, are obvious. The increase of knowledge of nature and with this an enormous increase in practical power is the result of the analytical process of investigation. An understanding of this is within the scope of the average intelligence. Its devotees are numbered by millions. But the other side of the process, the unification of these new forces, of this new knowledge, until it takes its proper functional place in the whole life of society, awaits the results of a multitude of studies that call for the highest order of the intellect, that deal with the most puzzling problems of complicated education, in fact that demand the constructive, unifying, synthesized types of mind that are rare, and that can neither be appreciated nor rewarded as can the more definite, more tangible, more ponderable results of the scientific analytic type.

So also is the situation in education. The results of a generation's effort in education in the United States is not to be measured by the mere growth in bulk—as from 250,000 to 4,000,000 students in the secondary field, or by the entire development of quantitative measurement, or by the progress or clarification of the qualitative, in child psychology, as is revealed by the difference between the child study of the nineties and the child study of today, in itself almost as great as that between the infant schools of Wilderspin of a century ago and the preschool education of today.

One thing that gives the junior high school and the junior college their significance today, is not merely the more effective educative advice of prevision, but that both have fostered and developed not only essential phases of this larger educational integration, which my topic subsumes, but that in themselves they have in turn stimulated this more integrating type of education as a whole. Witness the courses in contemporary civilization and the courses of orientation in general in the junior high school, in place of the old isolated required courses in philosophy, economics, history and logic or whatever was tried in the old college. In the junior college in a similar way, the exploratory courses, even if these earlier attempts, are not always successful, or even if not usually successful, there is the effort to integrate—which is the essential point we are emphasizing.

Now all of this experimentation by various institutions is one form of research, but like all of our institutional and administrative experimentation in American education, it is expensive and wasteful; both expensive and wasteful because not sufficiently checked up, that is, made sufficiently scientific, not clearly enough placed in the whole educational procedure and not sufficiently made well known to other experimenters.

In all of these respects there has undoubtedly been a great improvement in the course of a generation. Experimentation in educational administration, whether of college, university, or public school, is usually after con-

siderable discussion and criticism of plans. In fact, most experimentation is an outgrowth not of individual insight but of the general professional discussion of the problem under consideration. If insufficient publicity is given either to the scheme, its initiation or to the results from time to time, this is usually no fault of the proponent, but rather because there is insufficient time for all others interested to keep informed of all that is being attempted.

One interesting aspect of our subject is this: that the integrating or synthetic type of investigation cannot often or so successfully be carried on by individual investigation. More often it must be done by institutions and involves a large number of individuals. While such procedures may be recognized as experimentation, we do not always think of them in terms of research. But the investigations of individuals into aspects of the curriculum, are never completed until they have been tried out in school and applied to large numbers of children. So the school as well as the individual researcher must take part in the research. The organization and scientific checking necessary are far more difficult than in the case of an analytic process wholly under the control of the experimenter. The physical as well as the human material necessary for such experiments are far more elaborate than in the case of an analytic study; the difficulties of scientific checking are far greater; and the tangible results are far less definite and far less amenable to measurement. In fact, we readily realize that we have not progressed far as yet in the scientific measurement of such phenomena.

In certain aspects my topic involves a more serious consideration than that of an abstract question of method. We have greatly improved our technic, both of teaching in the classroom and of study and investigation. We have greatly multiplied the opportunities for education and spread its influence more intimately and more extensively over the population. We have made more efficient the administration of education, until it has become a profession with quite as scientific a basis as some others. But in certain essential respects it remains quite as inchoate, quite as untechnical, as it always has been. No one knows with certainty what materials are really cultural for our civilization; no one seems to know in what proportion actual and practical social, that is, industrial and technical processes, should enter into the cultural education; no one seems to know for what purpose the children are to be given a cultural education or why they should have it. In other words, purposes or needs in education are just about as much the product of opinion as they ever have been.

Let us take one illustration: the marked tendency of the extension of secondary and higher education to develop an excessive number of people only for the clerical, professional, and academic circles—the white collar classes. In countries where the social structure is less complex than our own, the result can be seen more clearly. In both the Philippine Islands and Porto Rico we carried the American public school system about a generation ago. While both these countries are wholly agricultural and cannot be to any extent either industrial or commercial, and while the

professional opportunities and needs are strictly limited, the American high school with its academic course was set up as the logical goal for all graduates of the American elementary schools. As such opportunities had hitherto been greatly restricted and as undue social rewards went to the few who did have such an education, an arbitrary and exaggerated importance was given to this type of education which greatly stimulated attendance. According to the first census taken by the Americans in the Philippines a generation ago, less than 2 percent of all persons employed in gainful occupation were in the so-called white collar job. In the census of four years ago, 12 percent of those so engaged were in these jobs, and unnumbered graduates of the high school were would-be's. In Porto Rico, wholly agricultural, the teaching profession is the one profession involving large numbers and some prospect of moderate expansion. But here of the 1100 students enrolled in the state university, over 700 are in the school of education, and most of the graduates of the faculty of arts, go into teaching in the high schools. But high-school positions are now all filled, and there is a waiting list of 600 licensed teachers for the graded or rural schools out of a population of slightly over one million. In both of these cases it is obvious that large numbers of educated people are doomed to disappointment, that society has a great many misfits in occupation, and that there is great social wastage. As a matter of fact most of the political and social discontent in both localities is due to this one fact, and because the educational situation is being aggravated, the political and social situation is apt to become worse rather than better. Not only are American political ideas being given a rigid and trying test in these regions; so also are American educational practices. In these major aspects the results in social attitudes, aspirations, and achievement are far from unquestioned success. And yet there is no evidence of any great realization of the significance of these experiments, or of educational investigation.

The condition is different in our own country because size obscures the evils of the problem, because enormous natural resources permit the support of a large number of socially unprofitable individuals, and because the complexity and the wealth and the lack of rigidity in the social structure permit of innumerable readjustments which a more limited policy such as that of the island societies mentioned, do not. Yet the problem is the same. We are applying on a huge scale an education which justified itself in the past because applied to a very small proportion of the population. Consequently the significant aspects today of our secondary and higher education are those wherein we are experimenting with others than the traditional cultural aspects of life in the endeavor to work out this problem. We really do not know where we are going in this greatest of educational experiments.

The types of integrating research we have mentioned are those concerning the content of a given subject; or of the educational integration of analytical tests; or of the effects of certain types of education or of programs of schools in the social outcome. Manifestly the dominant types of inte-

grating research relate to the curriculum and to the social aspects of education. In fact it is probably this wide spread and comparatively recent emphasis upon the curriculum and upon curriculum research that has suggested the topic on this program.

One other phase of current research interest illustrates the growing recognition of the importance of integrating or synthetic research: namely, the studies of moral or character education. The analytic studies in children's interests have played a large part in shaping educational thought over a generation or so of teaching. The philosophical and psychological study of interests of an empirical character is even of longer duration. But all of this has gotten us nowhere in actual character formation in the schools. An integrated process such as the Boy Scouts' training, though wholly empirical, has often proven far more effective as an actual educative procedure.

But numerous recent efforts have been made towards the integrating study of character as a whole. Some of these studies have been ill-starred and unscientific; but several recent ones have been far more scientific in quality and have had far more suggestive results. At least sufficient progress has been made to indicate that the old analytical methods of study of interests and motives are quite inadequate and that there are possibilities of investigations of the integrating, synthetic character that have been undreamed of before. Sufficient achievement has been made to demonstrate the inadequacy of much of our complacent attitude with regard to the moral aspect of education and the need for a much more critical attitude and active interest in this problem on the part of American educators.

No doubt your chairman in assigning this topic was aware that the writer would necessarily bring in his special interest as one phase of the subject under discussion. And indeed one phase of the curriculum problem is that which bears on the most inclusive of our social problems, namely: our attitudes towards other peoples. The public-school system in every country has found its chief justification and purpose in the creation of satisfactory group attitudes and in training in the necessary skills of an accepted national citizenship. The recognition that patriotism, the entire cultural content of citizenship, the adaptability of people in mass to social control, could be created for an entire population by the artificial processes of school-room discipline and instruction, was in fact the social discovery that lay at the basis of modern public educational systems. As one nation after another has realized this truth, it has proceeded to make effective its public schools. A number of nations which we are apt to term backward yet believe that a small trained educational class is sufficient and that the masses may be left untrained and ignorant. Recent experiences and dawning realization of the possibilities of the future both in the Orient and in the West force the conclusion that the power or capacity for social evil of such groups is a most dangerous one. The problem is forced upon us—how can an effective, workable, durable, greater integration, which will include attitudes of toleration, of world friendliness, of cooperation be produced, as

national integration has been produced by the old processes. We do not know. We do not even generally know that we ought to know.

But we never can know except by investigation and experimentation and effort. And investigation and experimentation must begin on a small scale and be repeated innumerable times and precede the wholesale effort on a national scale. Undoubtedly the most effective of such investigation and experimentation must be in the contents of the curriculum as that effects the attitudes and character of children and hence the action of adults.

Thus a further type of research of synthesis challenges us: how can we of our public-school materials create a world citizenry which is a natural outgrowth of an effective national citizenry? And again the answer is, only by research and experimentation, only by effort on our part as educators. We no longer think faithfulness to one's profession, to one's church, to one's family, is incompatible with good citizenship. We know that one may be a good father, a good teacher, a good Roman Catholic or a good Protestant, and yet be a good patriot. May it not be that one may be a good patriot—in the national sense—and a good citizen of the world?

To consider this general problem aside from its political aspects, is difficult. Yet it must be considered fully and frankly and effectively as an educational problem, or all other educational and social endeavor may be of little consequence.

Isolated as we are in the United States from these international problems, we are prone to persuade ourselves that such problems do not exist, or if they exist do not concern us.

As one important aspect of the situation it is well to recognize that the leaders in many countries believe that all attempts now being made for a better international understanding and particularly those now being made through the schools to create friendly international attitudes are but attempts upon the part of successful or of favored or of dominating nations to preserve the *status quo* and to prevent any disturbance of their enjoyment of unjust privileges, territory, or political, and economic advantage. In a similar way, nations not suffering from defeat in war, but suffering from economic backwardness or what they believe to be the unjust disadvantage imposed upon them by stronger foreign powers, take a similar attitude. All such peoples are deliberately using the schools to make clear to the children the character of such injustices and are developing attitudes of antagonisms rather than attitudes of understanding and goodwill. In other words, numerous nations, whatever may be their relationships to others politically and publicly, are inculcating the idea in the coming generation that these national maladjustments are so fundamental that they can be remedied not by educational means but only by appeal to force.

Altogether aside from the political merits of the case and carrying quite as much responsibility for the nations responsible for the supposed injustices or maladjustments as for those who are now using their schools to produce attitudes of revolt and protest against existing conditions, I am

pointing out the facts and the serious consequences involved and the need for adequate scientific study of these conditions; not attempting either to justify or to condemn the situations as they exist.

The millions of children in the government schools of China have now been taught for fifteen years the successive steps in the filching of her territory by western powers; the anti-foreignism of the present day is no occult phenomenon, nor one due to communistic influence of recent date. The educational authorities of Mexico are doing many most excellent things, among the best being a wide campaign for adult education. Yet about the first thing that is presented to the youth in these schools is a map of North America with all the western part of the United States painted in solid black with a discussion of the process by which these lands were taken from Mexico by the United States. I am not raising the question of the merits of the case, but simply pointing out how the schools may be used and are being used to create unfriendly rather than friendly attitudes among peoples. Our own experience with reference to the attitudes towards England created by our history texts is obvious to every observer. In Continental Europe both "the victorious" peoples and the conquered are using their schools to justify to the coming generation their conduct and achievements or to protect their present status, thus creating a distinctly hostile attitude towards their neighbors. German educators firmly believe that they are justified in using the schools to fix in the minds of the coming generation what they consider to be the injustices of the Versailles treaty. In America almost any attempt to develop attitudes of world-citizenship is looked upon with suspicion.

Even wholly unintentionally the school texts may be used to cultivate unfriendly attitudes. In the Philippines we used extensively the ordinary United States history texts, with their antagonism to Great Britain and to a remote overseas government with their emphasis on the wrongs of colonists; and then we were quite surprised to discover that the Filipino youth had developed "callow" ideas of independence, what we popularly consider to be a lack of appreciation and of gratitude and an ill-founded and impracticable belief in the rights, needs and possible continuance of their own independence.

These instances of major character are all cited to show that schools can be and are used whether consciously or unconsciously to develop natural group antagonisms. If this is so, they may be used to develop friendly attitudes. In fact, while school materials are used to this end to a marked degree, in many respects they fail. Oftentimes this failure is that of giving a wrong impression of foreign peoples, of developing wrong attitudes through incorrect or partial information, or factual statements which in their isolation produce the undesirable attitude.

This is the problem; by no means a merely academic or schoolmaster's problem, but one upon which the continued well-being of our whole social structure may depend.

Such a problem cannot be solved unless it is given very general attention by large numbers of educators. It cannot be solved except by extensive programs of investigation. While many isolated portions of the problem may be attacked by analytic research, no great progress can be made without comprehensive and repeated inquiries of a synthetic type.

Civilization is control of environment. We are very conscious of this truth when we think of the control of the physical environment through science. The Oriental is very conscious of this truth when he thinks of control of conduct and of his adjustment with his fellows in social institutions. When during these last few years we in the West have drawn this contrast between the control of environment through science as used in the destructiveness of war, and that lack of control of political and social environment that made the war possible, we are conscious of that contrast which was mentioned above as one of the great human lessons taught in our generation.

As educators we formulate the problems of education for the individual in terms of the child's control over his own social and physical environment, which means control over conduct.

Education as a whole then means, just as civilization means, control over environment. The questions which arise are: what are the essential features of that environment which need control; what do we mean by control; how is control to be secured? Each of these questions implies a multitude of subordinate questions. Each of these questions implies research, investigation; and as we have indicated, education or civilization in the sense of control means that each of these researches at each stage, or for each problem, must be carried through from the first analytic steps to the stage of completed synthesis. On the social side we are just beginning to see the implications of the scientific conception of education.

In conclusion, may we say: that the many recent achievements of analytic research call for consolidations of gains through research based on methods of synthesis rather than upon those of analysis; that research through the formulation and application of various types of scientific measurement permits advance in the formulation of the principles of education through such synthesis; that reformulation of the content of various subjects, as well as of methods of teaching them, are now proceeding on the basis of synthesis; that the emphasis on curriculum research, experimentation and reformulation is an evidence of the same change in the basis of approach; as is also the new methods, new approach and new advance in character education; and that the general subsidies recently given to research in the social sciences, research in the various subjects of the curriculum, Latin, modern languages, etc., and for research in curriculum study and experimentation, are but evidences in the large of the realization of the truth that progress in human endeavor is secured through the related steps of analysis and synthesis in research and experimentation, as well as in thought and the action which grows out of thought.

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR DEALING WITH BEHAVIOR PROBLEM CHILDREN

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Few recent changes in education are as significant as those that have to do with behavior problems. What may fairly be called the scientific attitude—that of patient observation, recording of data, interpretation, understanding—is beginning to replace older methods of handling difficult children. The situation has been clearly stated by Howard W. Nudd of New York City, chairman of the National Committee on Visiting Teachers:

Every teacher, every social worker, and many a parent is familiar with the problem child—the boy or girl whose school progress or whose reactions to normal requirements point toward later inefficiency, delinquency, or some other failure in personal or social adjustment.

What is the trouble with such children, and what can be done for them? How can the school obtain and utilize a knowledge of the forces that are affecting their success, and give them in fullest measure the benefits of their educational experience? Puzzles or pests at home, in school, or elsewhere, their personal welfare and the welfare of society require painstaking effort in their behalf. They cannot wisely be regarded as temporary nuisances, whose present weaknesses a kindly fate will in some way heal with the balm of time, nor can they wisely be ignored without serious study and effort, as inevitable liabilities which society must expect along with its blessings. Tomorrow they will be citizens, for weal or for woe, and their shortcomings today, if left uncorrected, may have dire effect upon the character of their citizenship tomorrow. They present the most baffling, the most urgent, and the most interesting problems in the field of education.

The visiting teacher and the regular teacher—During the past few years the visiting teachers, or counselors, as they are called in some localities, have made a very important contribution to the task of dealing with behavior problem children. With their study of home background, their application of the principles of social case work, their understanding of mental hygiene, they have helped the schools and the teachers greatly in this difficult situation. It has become clear, however, that, important though the services of the visiting teachers have been and will continue to be, ultimately the problem becomes one of giving to all teachers, in their preliminary preparation if possible, something of the same basic understanding of human behavior that visiting teachers are obliged to have, to the end that they may better understand individual boys and girls in school. That a real beginning has been made in this direction is indicated by the fact that, of some two hundred universities, colleges, and normal schools whose catalog announcements were examined, at least twenty are giving special courses definitely intended to prepare teachers for handling difficult children, and another score or more are offering courses in mental hygiene with something of the same purpose. These courses have nearly all made their appearance in the past year or two. Most of them are the direct outgrowth of the work of the National Committee of Visiting Teachers. During the summer of 1927 courses on children's problems as seen by the visiting teacher

were provided in seven teacher-training institutions. For 1928 courses have been arranged with the help of the Committee in the following universities and colleges: University of Alabama; University of California; George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.; Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Mich.; University of Minnesota; University of Missouri; New York University; University of North Carolina; University of Washington; Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio; and the University of Wyoming. Courses of the same type, given by visiting teachers, are also being offered independently at the University of Colorado. "The purpose of these courses," says a statement from the Committee, "is not in any sense to train visiting teachers, but primarily to assist the class teacher to understand and teach puzzling and difficult children."

Typical courses—One of the newer courses which clearly shows the influence of the visiting teacher movement is the course called "The Problem Child in School," given at the summer session of the School of Education of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio. This course is described as follows:

A study of the school problem of the individual child based upon actual case material drawn from the experiences of visiting teachers. The relation of behavior and scholarship to developmental history, mental ability, personality make-up, environment, family relationships, recreation, and other causative factors. The adjustment of their problems through adaptation or change of attitude in home or community and schools. Utilization of community resources. Adaptation of the curriculum to special needs.

Another course at the Cleveland school is the "Seminar on the School's Responsibility for Adjustment of the Individual Child." It includes "intensive study of several types of problem children, such as the dull-normal, superior, emotionally unstable, neglected, and socially unadjusted," and provides for "additional case material drawn from the experience of visiting teachers."

The school of education of the College of the City of New York calls its course "Problems of Child Behavior":

The aim of this course is to train teachers in the technic of dealing with the behavior problem of school children through actual study of cases reported by child-guidance bureaus, habit clinics, disciplinary schools, and similar agencies. Emphasis is placed on methods of gathering, assembling, and interpreting data. Fundamental laws of behavior are formulated as a result of these case studies.

At the University of Utah courses of the newer type are illustrated by the following:

Case work and the schools. (a) An application of the technic of social case work in dealing with normal and "problem" children. (b) The rôle of the child-guidance clinic in facilitating the behavior adjustment of children. (c) The visiting teacher and her work.

Mental hygiene (Advanced). An attempt to formulate the established principles of mental health. An advanced course for teachers, hygienists, counselors, etc., looking toward the development of mental hygiene guidance and instruction in the schools.

At the New York State College for Teachers, Albany, a course intended for graduate students and seniors is labelled "Psychological Study of Problem Children." It includes "study of intellectual, emotional, and other characteristics of children who differ from the average"; it attempts to "trace various causes of unsatisfactory work, truancy, lying, destruction of property, and other forms of undesirable behavior", and it "considers constructive measures for aiding children to adjust to life situations."

Besides a number of courses dealing with child psychology, child development, and mental hygiene, the National Kindergarten and Elementary College, Evanston, Ill., offers the following:

Child guidance—A series of lectures stressing the necessity of observing carefully the reactions of normal children in normal situations in order to help individual children realize their greatest potentialities.

In the summer session the same institution offers a course in the "Scientific Method in Handling Behavior Problems," in which "a study is made of the outstanding behavior problems with young children and the application of the principles of mental hygiene and psychology to their successful solution." A survey of the current literature in case studies and observation in the demonstration school of the college are required.

"The growing conviction that the school must concern itself with the entire personality of the child, and not merely with his intellect," is the reason announced by the Central State Teachers College, Mount Pleasant, Michigan, for its course on "Mental and Sex Hygiene." Another state teachers' college that has shown its interest in the newer approach is Marshall College, Huntington, West Virginia, which offers a three hour course in the summer session on "The Problem Child." The college of education of the University of Minnesota calls its course in the regular session "The Psychology of Behavior Problems in Children." The University of Cincinnati, in its college of education, offers, in addition to courses on personality and education, the study of personality differences, psychology of character, and principles of mental hygiene, a special course on "The Problem Child in Home and School," which is described as "a review, through case discussion, of the typical social and psychological factors leading to undesirable behavior in children; types of motivation; remedial measures." The course on mental hygiene in the summer session of the same institution covers:

Meaning and scope of mental hygiene; need for it in the schools; what has been done; human nature and social adjustment; practical suggestions for use in the schoolroom; for leaders of youth movement and for adults.

Field-work experience for teachers in training—In a few instances field work is offered as a major part of the work of the course. This is the chief element in the plans that have been worked out by the White-Williams Foundation, of Philadelphia, particularly in cooperation with the Philadelphia Normal School, but also with other institutions. "The chief

emphasis of our work," says a report of the director dated February, 1928, "is coming to be upon cooperation with teacher-training courses in order that the problems of children's behavior may be better understood and handled by classroom teachers." Accordingly "counselors" (visiting teachers) are placed in the schools of practice and a course in behavior problems is given by one of the counselors to a selected group of students who in connection with this are doing field work with the school counselors in their schools. Miss Emma Rannells furnishes the following description of the work as done under the senior sociology course:

A small group of students, instead of doing the regular senior work in sociology, are having all their class and field work with the White-Williams Foundation, gaining in a very practical way further knowledge of child psychology and mental hygiene principles. This group of students, for a nine weeks period (the other nine weeks of the term they are doing practice teaching), meets for an hour a week of class discussion and spends two afternoons a week in field work in the two schools of practice and in the other elementary schools in which we are working.

Since starting the work in February, 1927, we have had five such groups, and a sixth group is starting this spring (April, 1928). Because of the practical difficulty of offering field work to many students, our largest group so far has consisted of 12 girls. Altogether so far we have had 48 girls. In our new group we have 13. The group having this special work is selected by the sociology department of the normal school on the basis of high averages in the two departments of psychology and sociology.

In the class period our method has been that of discussion. The aim has been to give the students the point of view that behavior, troublesome and irritating to the teacher, is *symptomatic* and that to affect the behavior we must understand and treat the causes of the symptoms. Each group of students have chosen their own list of problems to discuss in the nine class periods. The following is the list of one group: The rude, fresh child, the bully, the shy, backward child (the one who cries often), the lazy, indifferent child, the defiant child, the child who steals, the child who lies, the fussy child, the tale bearer, the selfassertive child, the nervous child.

In class the counselor presents a case referred to her by the teacher because the child has been exhibiting the particular type of behavior under discussion. In this way the fundamental causes of the behavior and the treatment applied in one case are clearly brought out. There is free discussion of the case, of other possible causes for the same type of behavior, and of other treatment measures. We choose the case carefully. For instance, the case of the lazy, indifferent child discussed by the last group was chosen, from among a number of such cases, for several reasons—it was the case of an only child, in which problem the class had expressed interest, the child was of a well-to-do family, and, too, it offered the opportunity of presenting the work of the Child Guidance Clinic, as Thomas was studied there. In this case the chief causative factors of the laziness and indifference Thomas was exhibiting were found to be hyperfatigueability and immaturity, both of these factors in turn having causes in both the physical and the emotional realm. For instance, one factor accounting for immaturity was the tremendous care and protection the boy had always had. This had made it difficult in school for him to apply himself because the teacher could not give him the constant stimulation which he had so depended upon in the home. In considering cases the students think in terms of which factors in the situation are assets and which are liabilities, and treatment, of course, is directed toward the modification of the liabilities.

When the students first come to the school for field work they meet the principal and teachers, have a trip through the school, learn about the neighborhood, and consider the problems one might well expect to arise because of neighborhood conditions, such as lack of play space, factory neighborhood, etc. Field work experiences consist of conferences with children referred as problems of one kind or another, consultation with their teachers, visits to their homes, and visits to social agencies at the time, or formerly, interested in the family. Home visits are made only to those homes well known to the counselor and for a special purpose—such as giving the date of a hospital appointment previously consented to. However, because of the familiarity of the student with the situation as a whole, she invariably brings back information which is helpful in an understanding of the case. Before sending the student to a social agency the counselor explains every phase of the problem as we know it. She confers with the agency worker, telling her of the student's background, and so the worker gives the student not only a report of the agency's contact with the family, but also an interpretation of their work in general, the aims and ideals of the agency. When the student comes back with the report from an agency she goes over all the material secured with the counselor and the part the information plays in an understanding of the present situation is thought out by counselor and student together.

A course in which field work is the major element has been carried on during the past five years by the education department of Swarthmore College in cooperation with the White-Williams Foundation. The course is called "Social Work and the School," and is described in the Swarthmore catalog as follows:

This course is given in cooperation with the Department of School Counseling and Training of the White-Williams Foundation of Philadelphia. It consists of at least one half-day each week of supervised field work with the counselors in the public schools; and a fortnightly conference with the supervisor of the department for discussion of particular problems and interpretation of the work. The aim of the course is (1) to enable those who intend to be teachers to enter teaching with an understanding of some of the social causes of school difficulties, and some knowledge of social resources, and (2) to give those students who are interested in social work as a profession an opportunity to get a brief practical contact with one kind of social case work.

What can be done through existing courses—It is, of course, quite possible to help prospective teachers for handling behavior problems by modifying existing courses, without necessarily introducing entirely new ones. Indeed, there is something to be said for this method of making the needed changes in the preparation of teachers in normal schools and colleges. An introductory course in educational psychology may, of course, help little or much in preparing teachers for the work they have to do. It may merely be the old psychology of the nineteenth century, with little or no relation to teaching; it may be modern in its viewpoint on laws of learning and scientific measurements; and it may—and of course should—include the contributions of what is sometimes called the newer psychology in respect to emotional life and human behavior. If prospective teachers can actually get their introduction to psychology and teaching from college and normal school teachers who themselves have the modern approach and are equipped with the newer psychology and mental hygiene, a real advance will have

been made toward preparing teachers adequately to handle the problems of behavior. Dean William S. Gray, of the University of Chicago, points out that while at Chicago, for example, no special emphasis is given to courses on behavior problems, actually "a very large number of our courses in the school of education give attention to behavior problems of children." He cites the following titles: "Mental and Physical Growth of Children," "Psychology of Elementary Education," "Psychology and Treatment of Exceptional Children," "Psychopathic Retarded and Mentally Defective Children," and remarks: "I seriously question the advisability of organizing special sequences of courses to take care of this particular field. I believe the best results can be secured by incorporating the necessary training into the basic courses which a department gives."

That significant case material can be introduced into courses bearing rather conventional titles is the experience of a number of institutions. Supplementary notes on the published announcements at Johns Hopkins indicate that in the regular educational psychology courses "teachers and students make case studies of individuals having adaptive difficulties"; the course in clinical methods includes the purpose of "helping those who take it to increase their ability to understand the behavior problems of children and to help in the solution of these"; and the educational clinic "has for its aim the discovery and diagnosis of behavior problems of individual children," including "follow-up and recommendations of remedial treatment."

"School Use of Social Agencies" is the title of a course given at Teachers College, Columbia University. This is:

A course especially designed to orient superintendents, principals, and teachers in the problems of personality as they arise in the field of education, which, while not primarily involved in teaching, fundamentally condition the total experience of the child. A consideration of the resources that exist at present to meet such problems: the visiting teacher; the pupil's life-history record; the home; the neighborhood; the community and its social work agencies, especially child clinics and bureaus of welfare, research bureaus, agencies for the prevention of delinquency. Guidance, its methods and values for the child and the community. Throughout, discussion will proceed so far as possible from the consideration of actual cases.

The inadequacy of any courses, whether of the special sort or regular courses in which the newer point of view is incorporated, unless contact with social agencies is made possible, is emphasized by Dr. Elizabeth L. Woods, Director of the Psychology and Educational Research Department of the Los Angeles schools. "Few of our teacher-training institutions give much if any work which is definitely practical on this subject," says Dr. Woods. "Some mention is made of conduct difficulties in certain of the courses in educational psychology. The best help is usually obtained, however, in careful work under supervision from such laboratories as a Child Guidance Clinic or a Psychological Clinic dealing with behavior problems. I believe that we are on the right track here in our system. We are lending a school counselor each year to the Child Guidance Clinic

to do intensive case work on problem and behavior cases under careful supervision. This counselor comes back at the end of the year to us and assumes her own duties, but with new enthusiasm and point of view."

Child Guidance Clinics, such as Dr. Woods mentions, are now in operation in seven communities, following the five-year demonstration of the Commonwealth Fund, which came to a close in 1927, and visiting teachers are at work in 55 communities, in 21 of which a demonstration had previously been made by the fund. The opportunities, therefore, for co-operation between teacher-training institutions and social agencies interested in the schools are better than ever before, both for teachers in training and for teachers already in service.

Minimum essentials in preparing teachers for behavior problems—In his report to the National Conference of Social Work in May, 1928, Dr. Henry W. Thurston, who served as chairman of the subcommittee on training of his organization and has cooperated throughout with the subcommittee of the National Education Association, presented a number of statements he had secured in answer to the question: "What are the minimum essentials regarding the problem child and his treatment which social workers in general and school teachers ought to know." Because of their direct bearing upon the topic of this report summaries of several of these statements are included in this report.

Dr. William Healy, of the Judge Baker Foundation, sums up the needs as follows:

I. Some knowledge of physiology and medicine is needed by social workers and school teachers.

II. They also need a very considerable acquaintance with the values and weaknesses of social backgrounds.

III. Thoughtful consideration of the following facts will serve to enrich the knowledge and aid the everyday judgments of any who wish to deal understandingly with delinquents:

(1) The problem of mental capacities in terms of standardized forms as far as these have been established.

(2) The problem of mental balance.

(3) Certain dynamic qualities of mental life, such as states of temporary or constitutional lethargy and laziness, as contrasted to alertness and forcefulness.

(4) The qualities of mental life which are subsumed under the head of personality characteristics, etc., love of adventure, revengefulness, stubbornness, rebelliousness, or loyalty, generosity, kindness, responsiveness, etc.

(5) Certain traits and trends as related to characteristics of the individual's group.

(6) Of immense significance frequently for the study of delinquency is the mental content—ideation or imagery.

(7) Mental experiences, plus repressions, are worthy of much attention in many cases showing the most persistent trends toward delinquency.

(8) The fact and force of mental habit should never be lost sight of.

(9) General mental attitudes, such as grudge formations against individuals or groups or against society as a whole.

(10) Mental impulses.

Dr. Lawson G. Lowrey, of the Institute of Child Guidance, New York City, lists the following statement of essentials:

1. Every social worker and teacher should have a knowledge of psychology, reading Burnham's *The Normal Mind* as a foundation.

2. Social workers and teachers should know a great deal about modern dynamic psychiatry, reading such books as White's *Outline of Psychiatry*, Alfred Adler's *Individual Psychology*, Freud's *General Introduction to Psycho-Analysis*, and Bleuler's *Textbook of Psychiatry*.

3. They should know a great deal about how children get to be problem children, reading such books as Healy's *Individual Delinquent*, and *Mental Conflict and Misconduct*, as well as the Commonwealth Fund publications—"The Problem Child in School," "Three Problem Children," and "Teachers' Attitudes."

4. All this reading should be tied together by courses of lectures on the dynamics of behavior and by actual case experience. The worker should carry at least one case through a clinic and attempt to work it out in detail, particularly with treatment.

5. One of the most important things such work must accomplish is to give the worker and teacher some insight into her own personality trends and the meaning of those trends in stimulating responses from those with whom she comes in contact, particularly children.

A brief summary of the needs is the following from Dr. Marian Kenworthy, of the New York School of Social Work:

1. Teacher and social worker should feel unsatisfied until they gain enough insight into the total experiences of the child to evaluate what these experiences have done in the development of the child's personality.

2. Social worker and teacher should feel challenged with the necessity of discovering what need lies behind the child's behavior, and what his behavior actually means to the child in his attempt to work out his adjustment to life.

3. Teacher and social worker need to know causes in the child's environment, as well as in his personality. They need contact with family background and knowledge of interaction between parents and children, sisters and brothers, their attitudes, interests, and prejudices relative to the child.

4. Teacher and social worker need to know the child's habits; the methods of handling him, and his educational experiences, beginning with the methods used in habit training and including his school experiences, both academic and in social adjustment.

5. Teacher and social worker should feel the necessity of planning treatment based upon knowledge of physical and psychological treatment of the child and directed toward the causes of behavior, whether physical, academic, social or environmental.

Conclusion—The past decade has been the period of scientific measurement of capacity and achievement as applied mainly to the traditional school subjects. With something of the same scientific spirit teachers are now giving attention to the problems of children as human beings. It seems likely that teacher-training institutions are about to expand and modify their existing programs to include the recent contributions of psychologists, social case workers, and mental hygienists in the field of human behavior. Edith Everett, former president of the National Association of Visiting Teachers, says:

For the teacher already in service, the scientific attitude toward undesirable behavior, as a fact for which the cause may be sought and found in earlier ex-

periences, and the remedy for which may be provided through a change of conditions, making possible a more genuinely satisfying success, puts a new dynamic quality into her classroom relationships. For the student in training for teaching, it often removes effectively a bugbear which has been hanging over her—her fear of meeting disciplinary problems. For when all behavior becomes, not a subject for praise and blame, opinion and judgment, but for thoughtful study and analysis, it leaves no room for fear, unless it be fear that we have not yet skill and understanding enough to give it the wisest treatment.

Subcommittee on Training, National Education Association Committee on Behavior Problems of Children

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REPORT OF A COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION, ON THE FUNDAMENTAL BASES OF THE RELATION OF THE BUSINESS AND THE PROFESSIONAL ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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A modern school system proposes to offer to each pupil enrolled those unique opportunities for acquiring skills, for practice in precise thinking, and for growth in power of appreciation which are attainable by one of his intelligence. In the administration of a school system that seeks to achieve this desirable end, problems of personnel, of pupil records, of diagnostic and achievement test programs, of attendance and health service, of courses of study and curricula, of the planning, maintenance, and operation of the school plant, and of the financing of the school system, must be integrated by the executive who relates each administrative procedure to the realization of the purposes for which the schools exist.

The efficient administration of our schools depends upon the recognition of the distinction in function between the school board as a policy-determining and legislative body and the superintendent of schools as its chief executive officer. The members of a school board render their most important service when they select the ablest executive available; having rendered this service, they may continue to serve the public best by advising with him concerning the schools, by interpreting for him the will of the people whom they represent, and by requiring of him from time to time a record of the work done by the school system and proposals for its further development. The superintendent of schools, if he be competent, will present his program to the board of education and will demonstrate the wisdom of the policies which he advocates.

In recent years it has been suggested that the business administration of schools can to advantage be divorced from their professional management. It has been argued that the construction of school buildings, their maintenance and operation, the purchase, storage, and distribution of supplies, the making of the budget, and the like, can be best handled by one trained in business affairs. In a considerable number of school systems the business manager has been made an officer coordinate with the superintendent of schools, reporting directly to the board of education. This type of organization ignores the fact that every act of the business manager is worthy of approval only as it contributes directly to the furtherance of the educational program adopted by the board of education.

A budget should be adopted only after the most careful consideration of the educational program which it proposes to finance. A school building is well built only when it has been planned to serve the needs for a school offering a program of education which has been proposed by the superintendent of schools and accepted by the board of education. In our modern school systems it will seldom happen that any two buildings will accommodate exactly the same educational program. In the maintenance and operation of the building, the health and convenience of teachers and pupils are matters of primary importance. In the purchase of supplies, the needs of teachers and pupils, and the demands of the educational program furnish the only sound basis for determination of the quantity or quality of materials to be purchased.

Where the business executive has been given a place coordinate with the superintendent of schools, this action has been taken upon the assumption that better business practice would prevail and that economies would be effected. A thorough going investigation covering the states of New York and New Jersey has proved that this assumption is not true, and there is no reason why it should be true. The board of education that places responsibility upon the superintendent of schools for the complete administration of the school system and requires the assistant in charge of business affairs to report through him, may reasonably expect to secure as high efficiency in the business office as could be attained were the head of this division to be given a position coordinate with the superintendent. Other investigations have established the fact that misunderstandings and inefficiency are bound to occur where a dual system of administration has been adopted. Indeed, it not infrequently happens that under dual control the superintendent of schools, who certainly must be the leader in the educational program, supported by the board of education, spends a large part of his time in making adjustments with the business office, often on a personal basis. No good can come from this waste of the time and energy of the man responsible for the development of an efficient school system.

All affirm the necessity for adequate business procedures in the administration of a school system. The board of education in our larger communities should elect, upon the nomination of the superintendent of schools,

an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs. This man should be highly trained as a business executive and should cooperate with the superintendent of schools in the making of the budget, in the development of plans and the supervision of the construction of buildings, in the purchase, storage, and distribution of supplies, in the handling of the payroll, and the like. His efficiency will be increased by virtue of the relationship which he bears to the chief executive officer of the board of education. The administration of the school system will profit from a relationship which is sound in theory and which has been successfully established in practice.

REPORT OF THE ILLITERACY COMMITTEE OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

MRS. CORA WILSON STEWART, AMERICAN RED CROSS BUILDING
WASHINGTON, D. C., CHAIRMAN

Your committee has been as watchmen in a tower observing the movement to wipe out illiteracy, its growth, its changes, its tendencies, methods, and purposes. Milton said, "He also serves who only stands and waits." In this case might we not add the words, "waits for a message and runs to tell it to those who can help." It must not be supposed that the persons making up this group were not anxious to be in the thick of the fight. Some of them have been on the firing line much of the time, and in the watch tower the remainder. This, however, is not a campaign committee. There are agencies so engaged, but this one was created for another purpose—for the purpose of observation or survey.

Three of those in the watch tower have made their observations and presented their reports—H. V. Holloway on "Textbooks Suitable for Teaching Men and Women to Read and Write"; A. B. Meredith on "Methods of Financing Illiteracy Campaigns"; and Charles H. McKenny on "The Prevention of Illiteracy in the Future." Two noble and valued members of the group, J. G. Crabbe, of Colorado, and Ada Van Stone Harris, of Pennsylvania, were called into the presence of the Great Teacher before they had completed the investigation on which they were so earnestly engaged. Theirs was a well earned promotion, but their going desolated their coworkers and left an irreparable weakness in the work which this committee has undertaken to do.

Prior to the year 1911 illiteracy was little discussed in the councils of education in this country, and was a subject not mentioned by the laity at all. No literature had been created on the subject because there had been no study of the problem, no interest in it, no effort to solve it. Nothing could be found in print in any library save the statistical reports of the Federal Census Bureau and one slender bulletin in the public library of New York City, which was a copy of an address by a former commissioner of education of New York State. Decade after decade had seen the staggering figures marshalled, showing that millions of men and women in

our nation could not read or write, but to these figures there was not the slightest response. "Youth must be served" was the slogan of the educators of the past generations. "There are elementary schools to establish and finance, school terms to lengthen and laws to enact to compel attendance on their sessions, there are high schools to found and vocational schools to equip, colleges and universities to endow and expand," thus they reasoned and thus they wrought, until the education of the child became the fixed policy of the state, and, more than a policy, a proud and sacred duty. In the noise and din of their building a public school system that would insure to every child a chance, the cries of illiterate men and women were drowned out. Only a few indeed were crying for their chance. The millions were mute in their despair. Through the ages there had come down a few examples of individual illiterates who had thrown off their shackles. Robert Browning, in defiance of his father's wishes, had taught a negro to read and write. In North Carolina, where the law specifically forbade the teaching of a negro slave, Christian-hearted masters had, in a few instances, taught their aged slaves to read the Bible. The wife of a Tennessee mountaineer had put her husband to the book one evening after supper and, finding him apt, had taught him to read and write, little dreaming that she was educating a future president of the United States. In Ohio John Davey, at the age of twenty-one, had carved his way out of illiteracy to become the greatest authority on tree surgery in the world. These were examples that might have proved the results which would come from an organized movement to teach illiterate men and women. In the light of recent developments we are led to believe that could the education of the elders have gone hand in hand with the education of the child, it would have made the education an easier and happier experience for the youth and would have enlarged the boundaries of democracy. But had this been done, it would have deprived our generation of a great opportunity and a rich experience in a vast, new field of education.

It was in the decade ushered in by 1910 that the cry of the illiterate was first answered. A fortunate thing it was that the first experiment was made among mountain people of fresh, keen minds, ambition and eagerness that could not fail to make of the pioneer experiment a success; and it should be a matter of pride to educators that public school teachers first answered the challenge. It is a reform that could so easily have started from the outside rather than from inside the profession. It was in Rowan County, Kentucky, that a band of fifty school teachers led out and established free schools for illiterate men and women, who had been humbly solicited in advance to attend. "Moonlight Schools" they were called, being held only on moonlight evening when mountain roads could be negotiated with the least danger. Thus the first campaign against illiteracy began. In this pioneer effort, designated by the United States Commissioner of Education as "An Experiment for the Elimination of Illiteracy in the United States," there was demonstrated a fact which Dr. Thorndyke

of Teachers College, Columbia University, proclaimed sixteen years later—that in the acquirement of knowledge, the grown person could outdistance the child. There it was first demonstrated that an adult beginner could cover in a course of twenty-four lessons—forty-eight hours—as much as a child could cover in any one of the first four years of the elementary grades. Two other important facts were demonstrated to the world: the intense craving of adults for knowledge, and that no age limitation existed to either the desire or the ability to learn.

The movement has now attained nation-wide and even world-wide proportions, and where no method was being proposed, today various methods are being suggested and many doctors are appearing with remedies that they would apply. Two distinct methods, or schools of thought, have developed in this new field of education. One group, “despising the day of small things,” says, “Away with these crude pioneer methods with their spectacular and vociferous campaigning. We want no volunteer teaching. System and money are the things. We will have no schools for illiterates save those with paid teachers especially trained for teaching adults.” They claim for their method stability and thoroughness. They would quickly standardize and set their institutions. They would turn out fewer products through longer period of school attendance, who would, according to their theory, be better trained. This group of educators would be professional rather than pioneers.

There is nothing original in their method. It is what the evening schools of the cities have been doing for about fifty years and more, and these schools were modeled after our public day school system for children. The followers of this method, or school for the education of illiterates, simply prefer to follow their pioneer grandfathers, who developed the elementary school for children, rather than their pioneer fathers, who blazed the trail for the education of illiterate adults. The results of this school or method is that it attracts a majority of educated adults and a minority of illiterates. The sessions being longer and no early goal in sight the attendance dwindles as a rule, but those who stay to the end are supposed to be well-grounded in the prescribed, but not particularly inspiring, course of study. The effect of this method on the leaders is to make them lose sight of the main objective. Illiterates become to them of diminishing importance and pupils of any degree of elementary education count as much with them as do those who have no knowledge whatever.

The other school of methods speaks and says, “Until we have enlightened and enlisted the educated public to come to the aid of the illiterates, there is need of beating the drum, hence a vociferous outcry against illiteracy and a spectacular campaign to bring everybody to the rescue is essential. We welcome trained teachers and are glad to see them paid, but we claim that it is the right of others to help a brother out of the ditch if they can reach him first. We regard the illiteracy movement as the Red Cross work of education, as first aid and rescue work, and urge immediate succor rather than leisurely training. We agree that it is good to be thorough and well

to systematize, but we say you must build your house before you can set up equipment and begin to keep books. We ask how are you to get the money for a system of schools for the people and paid trained teachers until you have aroused the public sufficiently to bring the state to appropriate funds, and where are you to get teachers trained to teach adult illiterates, save in the school of experience in teaching adult illiterates? We believe in efficiency, but not in too much fixation at this stage of the game. We would keep the movement fluid until we have learned how best to do the job. We see in this movement a laboratory in which we may learn how to teach illiterate men and women. We do not contend that ours is the best method, but we believe that it is the way to find the best method. While the movement is yet in its pioneer stage, we would use it as a great laboratory in which we can learn the most tactful methods and out of which we can draw suitable materials for the instruction of adult beginners. Believing that it would delay the opportunity for millions of illiterate men and women and would cut off other millions forever from a chance, we would not wait for adequate finances to be provided and every teacher to be trained, but we would say, "All together let us do what we can with the means we have at hand, each who has profited by education immediately returning something from his store to the brother who has none, and thus we shall start many on the road to knowledge, who, in turn, will swell our army. We shall teach many as we go on learning how best to do this rescue work. Thus would we pave the way for a better system with trained and compensated teachers."

This group asks, "Did the day schools wait for trained teachers and money to lengthen their term?" No; they started with the preacher, the doctor, the peddler, and the blacksmith as teachers and ran for a two or three months' session. By these crude efforts education was popularized until a longer term with teachers better trained was secured.

The difference in these two schools of methods may be illustrated by a brief description of their plan of teaching writing to beginners. One of these schools would first ground the adult illiterate well in penmanship, by teaching principles and movements before introducing sentences or words. The other group holds that immediate achievement is necessary to inspire the adult beginner with selfconfidence. They begin by teaching him to write his name, the thing which he most needs and craves to do. This being accomplished, they set a new goal—the writing of his first letter on a date set far enough ahead to be possible of attainment, and yet near enough to sustain his interest. They set up standards of attainment before him, to serve as milestones by which he can measure his progress. This group regards definiteness and achievement as important factors in the success of educating adult beginners—a definite number of hours to complete a prescribed course—a road where both the volunteer teacher and the adult pupil can see to the end. It may be forty-eight hours, twenty-four evenings with two hours each evening—or twice forty-eight, but it must be marked out clearly so that the pupil can realize that it is no long process of years.

Another difference in these two schools of method is that one would plaster a certain selected group of a thousand words onto the minds of the illiterates, and the other would build the word content to suit their environment, interests, and life activities. If they happen to be stationed in an army camp, the latter group would provide lessons in terms of camp life, that daily activities and environment might be translated into writing and conveyed in letters written home. If the illiterate lives on a farm, his lessons would be largely of farm life, its needs, its possibilities and its joys. If he is an Indian on a reservation, his first lessons would be of Indian life, illustrated in brilliant colors and dealing with Indian traditions, preferences and pride, leading on to preferences and practises that would be desirable to add to the background which is the heritage of the Indian. Even illiterates in prison have problems peculiar to their environment and their need to which first lessons might contribute something in the way of cheer, strength of character and determination for a new start and a better life. So, the one group would work with tools that are very professional, picked by the man who has not been much among illiterates, and the other would go among them to find out their needs, to learn what they are thinking and to relate it to the thought that might be most desirable for them to hold.

The best test of any system is its results. The campaign method, coupled with an established school, seems to have secured the result of teaching the largest number of illiterates. Alabama, a state which has devotedly sought the best method for fifteen years, swung away from an illiteracy commission a few years ago to a more standardized type of work, but recently found it advisable to create a new and volunteer state illiteracy commission charged with the duty of appointing a county illiteracy commission in every county in the state. This indicates that Alabama believes that system and money alone cannot do the job.

There is not time to dwell longer on the difference between these two schools of thought, which in this report can only be indicated. We must turn to the tactics employed in the campaign against illiteracy, which is most fully represented in the pioneer school of methods. It is a campaign which aims primarily at reaching and teaching illiterates, though it welcomes near-illiterates and other adults, when possible, into the schools set up through its influence or efforts. It believes in the dramatic in education—in this type of education at least, for the reason that if the older and better known phases of education do not need advertising, this new movement must dramatize itself to the public to draw adherents. The movement is carried on during its pioneer stages in most of the states with dramatic and wartime intensity. Slogans, campaign songs, posters, parades, and prizes have been utilized to drum up an army and to provide the munitions of war. Not one type of school alone or one name but many have been used, according to the need of the individual and the choice of the community. Moonlight schools, grown folks schools, lay-by schools, adult schools, community schools, opportunity schools, old folks schools, and by other names they have been called, and their sessions have been held in public school houses, in

churches, in women's clubs, in Elks' clubs, in public libraries, in prisons, in the homes of school officials, in the homes of illiterates, and classes have even been held in court squares, at fair grounds, and in public parks. Perhaps one of the most unique schoolrooms, and, certainly one offered with the most pride, was one of the two rooms in the home of an Indian on the Blackfeet reservation, an Indian not long gone from the tepee to the cottage, not long enough indeed, to have his two rooms furnished, but proud that he possessed space that he could offer for the first moonlight school on the Blackfeet reservation.

This campaign has developed some inspiring slogans. There are slogans expressing purpose, slogans expressing determination, slogans of suggestion, slogans appealing to pride, slogans fixing a definite goal. "Honduras without an Illiterate"; "Eliminate Illiterates and Make New Citizens for China" are slogans expressing purpose. "Illiteracy in Alabama, Let's Remove It"; "Illiteracy in Mississippi, Blot It Out" are slogans of suggestion. "Let South Carolina secede from Illiteracy"; Delaware, "First to Sign the Constitution, First to Wipe Out Illiteracy"; relating to historic events in the history of the state, are appeals to state pride. "No Illiteracy in the United States in 1930"; "No Illiteracy in Chile in 1930"; "No Illiteracy in Russia in 1933," are slogans fixing a definite goal. Of all the slogans the latter are perhaps the most dramatic and set up the most definite ideal, but may be subject more than any of the others to criticism and jeers. Those who voice this slogan may retort to their critics. "Not failure but low aim is crime," and may have the satisfaction of knowing that even though they may be "the lunatic fringe" of the movement, their fanaticism has helped to bring the conservatives half way. To their war-cry of "No Illiteracy in 1930" there begins to come from conservative camps the rejoinder, "No Illiteracy in 1940," where in former days the attitude was, "Illiteracy to be abolished from the nation never."

The battle of statistics has been one most vigorously fought. Until the year 1911 no analysis was made in the public mind of illiteracy figures by counties and municipalities. Such figures were considered only in bulk for the nation. The number of illiterates was read and dismissed at a glance with the idea that it was the nation's business, or to use an old adage, "Everybody's business is nobody's business." The figures running into millions were staggering, but were vague. They looked too stupendous for any individual or community to attack, and the people represented by these numbers were supposed to be far away, somewhere, up in the mountains, or, anywhere, other than next door. To bring this home to each individual and to each community has been the purpose of the "battle of statistics," and so the figures have been proclaimed by cities and counties and preached from the housetops. They have been hurled at every school official and headlined in the press until now many people, school people and others, know and are concerned over the number of illiterates in their own localities, where formerly none knew the number and few thought such information necessary, or even cared to know.

The movement in this country is thus far largely a rural movement, though the urban centers have better facilities for organization and for the removal of this evil. And they have need of it too, for Chicago is showing an increase in illiteracy with each decade; New York has two boroughs, Richmond and the Bronx, which had an increase in the percentage of illiteracy between 1910 and 1920, notwithstanding the Federal literacy test; Boston has enough illiterates to make six regiments of soldiers; Philadelphia, the city of brotherly love, has enough to make a city the size of Springfield, Ohio, and the City of New York has enough to populate another Kansas City, but it would be a place without books, newspapers, stationery stores or public libraries, for none could use them. Dr. Phillips of the United States Bureau of Education has suggested a standard to which all communities of the future will unquestionably measure and all school systems will have to meet. It is that in ranking the state or community in its educational efficiency, its efforts to wipe out illiteracy shall be the thing which gives it first rank.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Boston Meeting

OFFICERS

President—HENRY LESTER SMITH, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana

Vicepresident—MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California

Secretary—ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.

First Session, Monday Afternoon, February 27, 1928

The meeting was called to order by the president in the auditorium of the First Church of Boston.

The theme for the first session was Synthetic Research (Integration).

Papers were presented as follows:

UNITY AMID DIVERSITY IN EDUCATIONAL ENDEAVOR

J. C. Miller, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

COORDINATION OF EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS IN DEVELOPING A PROGRAM FOR CHILD DEVELOPMENT AND PARENTAL EDUCATION

Anna E. Richardson, Field Worker in Child Development and Parental Education, American Home Economics Association, Washington, D. C.

NEED FOR THE SYNTHETIC TYPE OF RESEARCH

Paul Monroe, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

After a brief general discussion in which a few questions were raised on one or two of the papers read, the president appointed John R. Kirk, Kirksville, Missouri, and Arthur Chamberlain, San Francisco, California, to present at the next meeting of the Council, any further comments on the program of the afternoon.

Second Session, Tuesday, February 28, 1928

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2:15 P. M. in the auditorium of the First Church of Boston.

The president introduced John R. Kirk, Kirksville, Missouri, to round out the discussion of the previous afternoon on the synthetic method applied to education.

Miss Olive M. Jones, Principal, School No. 120, New York City, and chairman of the Committee on the Behavior Child Problem, presented a brief report on the organization of her committee, the plan of work and progress to date, and then introduced W. Carson Ryan, Swarthmore College, who led a general discussion on the problems connected with the training of teachers to deal with the behavior child.

The president announced that the report of the Committee on Illiteracy scheduled for this session would not be presented due to the absence of the chairman because of her illness.

On motion of Katharine Blake the secretary was authorized to send a telegram to Mrs. Stewart expressing the regret of the Council at her inability to be present.

Request from Dean Milton Bennion, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, that his unavoidable absence from the Boston meeting of the Council be excused was granted.

Following the meeting of the Council in Seattle, where it was decided that certain problems should be taken up by that body for special investigation, Dr. George D. Strayer was asked to serve as chairman of a committee on "Fundamental Basis of the Relation of the Business and Professional Aspects of Educational Administration." At the request of the president of the Council, Dr. Strayer's acceptance of the chairmanship of that committee is here made a matter of record. Adjourned.

Minneapolis Meeting

President—HENRY LESTER SMITH, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana

Vicepresident—MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California

Secretary—ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C.

First Session, Monday Afternoon, July 2, 1928

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2 P. M. in one of the auditoriums of the Wesley M. E. Church, Minneapolis.

Following an excellent musical program furnished by the Roosevelt High School Mixed Chorus and Girls Glee Club, the president explained that the two outstanding speakers scheduled for the afternoon were unavoidably absent.

He stated that arrangements had been made for Dr. James C. Yen, Director General, National Association for Mass Education in China, Peking, China, to speak later in the afternoon and proposed that the first part of the session be given over to a Round Table discussion on the significant educational developments of the year. This suggestion was accepted and the members participated as follows in the Round Table:

H. B. Wilson, Washington, D. C.: "Work of the Junior Red Cross in relation to the school."

E. E. Bass, Greenville, Miss.: "What the Red Cross did for Greenville under flood conditions."

J. M. Gwinn, San Francisco, Calif.: "Prominence aviation is to have in education."

A. E. Winship, Boston, Mass.: "Remarkable growth in educational achievements now in progress."

James E. Rogers, Des Moines, Iowa: "Progress under way in health and physical education."

Caroline F. Fairchild, St. Paul, Minn.: "What ten minutes of daily physical education has done for the children of one school."

E. E. Oberholtzer, Houston, Texas: "What guidance can be given in the development of junior colleges."

John R. Kirk, Kirksville, Mo.: "Determination of the people to have Junior College opportunities for their children."

A. O. Thomas, Augusta, Maine: "Progress of the World Federation of Education Associations during the past year and plans for the meeting at Geneva, next summer."

The round table discussion was discontinued on the arrival of Dr. Yen, who was at once introduced by the president of the Council, and gave a very enlightening talk on the need for mass education and how China was attempting to solve the problem. He stated that no nation was secure unless its government was "of the people, for the people, and by the people." The first two conditions may exist so long as rulers are good and have at heart the welfare of their people, but a surety of government for the people is contingent upon government by the people.

Mass education will make possible successful government by the people as well as of the people and for the people. While only 5 per cent of the student body enrolled for educational purposes in the institute of China are women, the attendance surpasses that of the men, and varies from 85 percent to 95 percent. Dr. Yen referred to the great numbers of people in China—approximately 400,000,000—and the 4,000,000 square miles of territory occupied, and appealed to those present to assist China as far as possible in the solution of their great problem of mass education.

At the close of a brief discussion in which Dr. Yen answered questions raised by those present, the Council went into executive session and the secretary read the report of the Membership Committee on recommendations for supplying vacancies in the offices of the Council and in membership. On motion of J. M. Gwinn, the secretary was instructed by the Council to cast the ballot for those recommended by the Membership Committee for office and for Council membership. The list follows:

Officers

- President*—HENRY LESTER SMITH, Dean of the School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, with term expiring in 1931. (Re-elected.)
Executive Committee—M. G. CLARK, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa, with term expiring in 1931. Elected to succeed GEORGE N. CHILD, Superintendent of Schools, Salt Lake City, Utah. Membership lapsed.
Committee on Membership—H. B. WILSON, Director, Junior Red Cross, Washington, D. C., and OLIVE M. JONES, Public School No. 120, New York City, with terms expiring in 1931. (Re-elected.) CAROLINE WOODRUFF, Principal, State Normal School, Castleton, Vermont, with term expiring in 1929. Elected to succeed WILLIAM B. OWEN, Chicago, Ill. (Deceased.)

Members

Reelected with terms expiring in 1934:

- ROBERT J. ALEY, President, Butler College, Indianapolis, Indiana.
 ROSE PESTA, Windermere Hotel, Chicago, Illinois.
 CHARLES E. CHADSEY, Dean of School of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.
 MELVIN G. CLARK, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa.
 A. B. HILL, President, Ouachita College, Arkadelphia, Arkansas.
 MINNIE J. NIELSON, 901 Fifth Ave., Valley City, North Dakota.
 ALBERT E. WINSHIP, Editor, Journal of Education, 6 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.

Elected with term expiring in 1934:

- GUY M. WILSON, Boston University, Boston, Mass., to succeed CLARENCE H. DEMPSEY, State Commissioner of Education, Montpelier, Vermont. Membership lapsed.
 WILLIAM H. ZEIGEL, Dean of School of Education, State Teachers College, Cleveland, Mississippi, to succeed E. M. BAINTER, Junior College, Kansas City, Missouri. Membership lapsed.
 ERNEST HORN, Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa, to succeed W. A. JESSUP, President, Iowa State University, Iowa City, Iowa. Membership lapsed.

Elected with terms expiring in 1930:

WILLIS A. SUTTON, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Ga., to succeed CARLETON B. GIBSON, Superintendent of Schools, Savannah, Ga. Membership lapsed.
AGNES SAMUELSON, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa, to succeed OSCAR T. CORSON, Oxford, Ohio. (Deceased.)

Elected with terms expiring in 1931:

SHELTON J. PHELPS, Professor of School Administration, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn., to succeed C. R. RICHARDS, Ardmore, Okla. Membership lapsed.

Elected with term expiring in 1932:

W. CARSON RYAN, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa., to succeed W. M. DAVIDSON, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa. Membership lapsed.

In order to secure the consensus of opinion of members of the Council on the desirability of changing the dates for the meetings in an effort to insure larger attendance, a suggested list of dates for checking had been sent out by the secretary a few weeks previous to the Minneapolis meeting.

The secretary reported that up to date less than 20 per cent of the replies had been received, and those were about evenly divided among the dates to be checked. On motion of Mr. Oberholtzer, it was voted to make no change for another year, at least, in the time of holding the meetings of the National Council of Education.

Second Session, Tuesday Afternoon, July 3, 1928

The meeting was called to order by the president at 2 P. M. in an auditorium of the Wesley M. E. Church, Minneapolis. A delightful musical program was rendered by the Roosevelt High School Mixed Chorus and Boys Glee Club.

Olive M. Jones, Chairman of the Committee on Behavior-Problem Children, stated briefly the plan of work of the committee and progress to date and explained that the special report for this session, copies of which were distributed to those in attendance, would take up "The Preparation of Teachers for Dealing with Behavior-Problem Children." She then introduced W. Carson Ryan, who gave the results of a survey on what teacher training institutions are doing to train teachers to handle these problems. He stated that while twenty institutions are doing some work of this kind, few if any of them have very definite programs. Dr. Ryan felt that the report would contain helpful materials for those attempting a solution of the problem of training teachers to handle behavior-problem children.

It developed in the discussion that since teachers are being trained to teach large groups rather than individuals, the introduction of this type of teacher training into teacher-training institutions, is necessarily delayed as the problem of handling behavior-problem children must be largely individual.

It was further brought out that such training at the present time is largely that of teachers already in the field and not preemployment training of prospective teachers. In harmony with the suggestion of the chairman of the committee it was unanimously voted that in continuing the work of the committee the scope of such work be enlarged.

Dr. George D. Strayer, chairman of the Committee on "Fundamental Bases of the Relation of the Business and Professional Aspects of Educational Administration," presented the report of his committee. Dr. Strayer stated that the committee felt that a fund of at least \$50,000 would be needed to make a study of this kind, and that the committee had simply set up certain principles to be followed later by investigations if funds were available.

On motion it was unanimously voted to adopt the report of the committee as presented by the chairman and request that it be printed by the National Education Association and made available not only to school administrators but to

school boards. It was agreed that Dr. Strayer would make necessary contacts with the group of business managers in schools.

The final report of the committee on illiteracy was presented by Mrs. Cora Wilson Stewart, chairman of the committee.

Mrs. Stewart explained that the report did not in any measure attempt to cover the field, as no committee could do this, but the time seemed opportune to make a final report.

It was voted to adopt the report as final. It was further voted to express the appreciation of the Council and its thanks to Mrs. Stewart and her committee for their excellent work.

Mr. Oberholtzer said that he had hoped the report would go far enough to define certain standards of illiteracy and to determine what is and what is not illiteracy. After some discussion of the need for further study in this field, a motion was made by Mr. Oberholtzer and seconded by Dr. Kirk that the president of the Council appoint an advisory committee to look over the ground and bring in or formulate some plan for the next step in the study, if any additional step should seem advisable, such plan to be presented for the consideration of the Council. The motion was carried and the president stated that he would name such advisory committee later. Adjourned.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION OFFICERS AND MEMBERS FOR 1928-29

OFFICERS, STANDING COMMITTEES, MEMBERS

HENRY LESTER SMITH, Dean of School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind., *President*. (Term expires in 1931)

MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, Superintendent of City Schools, Los Angeles, Calif., *Vicepresident*. (Term expires in 1930)

ADELAIDE STEELE BAYLOR, Chief, Home Economics Education Service, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C., *Secretary*. (Term expires in 1929)

Executive Committee

THE PRESIDENT, EX-OFFICIO, CHAIRMAN

ANNA LAURA FORCE, Principal, Junior High School, Denver, Colo. (Term expires in 1930)

M. G. CLARK, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa. (Term expires in 1931)

A. J. MATTHEWS, President, State Normal School, Tempe, Ariz. (Term expires in 1929)

Committee on Membership

THE PRESIDENT, EX-OFFICIO, CHAIRMAN

JOHN R. KIRK, State Teachers College, Kirksville, Mo. (Term expires in 1929)

CAROLINE WOODRUFF, Principal, State Normal Training School, Castleton, Vt. (Term expires in 1929)

CARROLL G. PEARSE, Milwaukee, Wis. (Term expires in 1930)

ROBERT H. WRIGHT, President, East Carolina Teachers College, Greenville, N. C. (Term expires in 1930)

H. B. WILSON, Director, Junior Division, American Red Cross, Washington, D. C. (Term expires in 1931)

OLIVE M. JONES, Principal of Public School No. 120, New York City. (Term expires in 1931)

Members

Terms to Expire in 1929

Elected by the Association

- EMMA COLBERT, Dean of Teachers College, Indianapolis, Ind.
 EMILY GRIFFITH, Opportunity School, Denver, Col.
 FLORENCE M. HALE, State House, Augusta, Maine
 R. G. JONES, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio
 UEL W. LAMKIN, President, Northwestern Missouri Teachers College, Maryville, Mo.
 MARY MCSKIMMON, Principal, Pierce School, Brookline, Mass.
 S. M. N. MARRS, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Austin, Texas
 A. J. MATTHEWS, President, State Normal School, Tempe, Ariz.
 M. E. PEARSON, Superintendent of Schools, Kansas City, Kans.

Elected by the Council

- E. E. BASS, Superintendent of Schools, Greenville, Miss.
 J. A. C. CHANDLER, President, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.
 THOMAS R. COLE, Superintendent of City Schools, Seattle, Wash.
 MRS. SUSAN M. DORSEY, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, Calif.
 T. E. JOHNSON, Lansing, Mich.
 C. W. A. LUCKEY, Washington, D. C.
 FREDERICK E. PARRINGTON, Chevy Chase School, Washington, D. C.
 LIDA LEE TALL, Towson, Md.
 AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Augusta, Maine
 GEORGE L. TOWNE, University Publishing Co., Lincoln, Nebr.

Terms to Expire in 1930

Elected by the Association

- C. M. BEACH, Superintendent of Schools, Enumclaw, Wash.
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Terms to Expire in 1931

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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 1928-29 are: *President*, A. W. Castle, Director of Extension Education, State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.; *Vicepresident*, Mrs. Ethel Richardson Allen, Assistant State 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. This Department meets once a year in July. 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	1925:337-353	1927:293-334
1922:905-968	1924:565-582	1926:327-371	

ADULT EDUCATION FROM THE STATE POINT OF VIEW

THEODORE UTNE, DIRECTOR, DIVISION OF EVENING SCHOOLS, STATE
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, ST. PAUL, MINN.

THE early pioneers, men of rugged but of high intelligence and moral character, many of whom had been denied the privileges and advantages of education, comparable to those existing today, recognized that the welfare of the state depended largely upon the educational opportunities made perpetually available to its future citizens. In Minnesota, as in other states, this was recognized by the framers of the state constitution, in which we find the following provision:

"The stability of a Republican form of government depending mainly upon the intelligence of the people, it shall be the duty of the legislature to establish a general and uniform system of public schools." Article 8, Section 1.

In conformity with this constitutional provision, the legislature established and provided for the maintenance of a system of public schools. Recognizing the high character of its citizenry, it delegated to the local communities the actual management and conduct of its elementary and secondary schools. In order that the system of public schools might be uniform throughout the state, however, it fixed by statute the duties, responsibilities, and powers of the local school authorities. It also provided for a measure of state direction and leadership and financial assistance to help equalize the burden of school maintenance.

The period of childhood and youth is primarily a period of preparation for the responsibilities to be assumed by the adult. In order to insure to each individual at least the elements of a common school education, we have compulsory attendance laws, requiring the school attendance of our boys and girls.

When the time comes that all the states of the Union enact and enforce compulsory school attendance laws, illiteracy on the part of our native-born population should disappear, except for the poor unfortunates who are mentally handicapped to such an extent that they are not educable.

At the present time, however, we have a considerable number of adults, some born in this country but more of them abroad, who had little or no educational opportunities in their earlier years. In general they are thrifty, industrious and law-abiding. Many of them are desirous of securing now the schooling which they failed to obtain as children. Others, who may have been educated in their native lands but have migrated to America with the intention of making this their permanent home, seek to learn our language and our institutions in order that they may fit themselves for American citizenship. The welfare, not only of these individuals, but of the state itself, requires that educational opportunities be afforded them. This becomes an obligation of the state. It cannot be left to private enterprise.

Since the large majority of adults are engaged in daily tasks which make it difficult if not impossible for them to take advantage of daytime instruc-

tion, evening school classes have been organized for them. The state of Minnesota has a law on its statute books authorizing any school district in the state to provide evening school classes for adults and to pay the necessary cost of instruction from public funds.

Among the standards set by the state board of education for such state-aided evening school classes are the following:

1. Aid will be granted for an evening school term of not less than six weeks of six hours per week, and for a term of not more than eighteen weeks of six hours per week, or the equivalents.

2. The average attendance in each class shall be at least six during the period for which aid is granted, except that in rural districts the average attendance shall be at least four.

3. The curriculum shall include spoken and written English, Reading, Writing, Spelling, American History, Civics, Geography, and Health and Sanitation.

4. Teachers in evening schools shall have the same qualifications as those who teach the corresponding subjects in day classes. Teachers not so included shall be specially certified by the department of education.

As part of its guidance program, the state department of education, in cooperation with the local schools, has prepared and published a bulletin outlining syllabi for elementary non-vocational classes for adults, stressing the work in English and citizenship. These syllabi provide a course of study covering a period of three years.

The adult education work in the public schools, however, is not limited to the elementary non-vocational classes in English and citizenship. In the larger urban centers we find classes organized in home economics, in the industrial and fine arts, in commercial training, and in various vocational fields. For those seeking additional academic training, evening high-school work is offered. Colleges and universities, moreover, through their extension divisions, offer advanced academic and professional evening courses for those who cannot attend the regular day classes.

Our schools, be they elementary, secondary, or collegiate, are providing educational opportunities for a considerable number of adults, but there are other agencies, at least partly educational in nature, that come in contact with tens of thousands of men and women whose so-called school days are past. I note that three of these agencies are represented on the program of our session tomorrow: The public library, parent-teachers organizations, and the press. My time does not permit of a discussion of the services they render.

As far as the state is concerned, it is the duty and the privilege of the state to furnish such educational opportunities to its citizens, young and old; rich and poor, as will promote the happiness of the individual and the welfare of the group. Much has already been done to this end. Much still remains to be done. May I take the liberty of pointing out what appears to me to be the next forward steps in adult education?

Too frequently the teachers of adult classes have had no specific training for this field. The methods which may bring excellent results with pupils

in the primary grades are scarcely suitable for use in teaching the parents, the grandparents, the aunts, and the uncles of these children. In our day schools we would not expect a teacher trained for junior high-school work, for instance, to take charge of a kindergarten. For work with the more mature pupils, such as are found in our junior and senior high schools, we provide departmental teaching. One teacher is trained in the field of English, another in the social studies, a third in mathematics, a fourth in natural science, and so on. Specific training for a given field will promote the classroom efficiency of the teacher. This is also true in the field of adult education. May the time be not far distant when we shall provide and require specific training for the teachers of adult classes.

In all our work it is essential that we never lose sight of our objectives, the goals toward which we are striving. What are these objectives? One is the acquisition of useful knowledge. Men and women, for instance, should know our language; they should know something about the structure and operation of the government. A second objective is the acquisition of useful skills. We need to be able to write neatly and legibly, or to add, subtract, multiply, and divide with reasonable speed and accuracy. But there is a third objective, probably of more far-reaching significance than either knowledge or skills, and one which I am afraid we sometimes overlook, and that is the importance of right ideals, attitudes, and appreciations. Our penal institutions are filled with people who have committed crimes, not because they were lacking in knowledge of what was right and wrong, but because they were not actuated by right motives. Education of the head is important; education of the heart is at least equally important. We are training the intellect; we must also train the emotions.

Do not misunderstand me. I do not mean to imply that in our adult education work we are paying no attention to attitudes and ideals. But I am inclined to think that we do not always give them the emphasis they deserve. I wonder if there is not danger of our overemphasizing the mere acquisition of facts without paying adequate attention to the interpretation of these facts.

ADULT EDUCATION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF A CITY

ALBERT FERTSCH, DIRECTOR OF ADULT EDUCATION, GARY, IND.

Adult education from a city viewpoint is not necessarily different from any other point of view. Especially is this true when education is considered in the modern light of a continuous adjustment of life to changing and expanding situations and the adjustment of the individual to his hopes and aspirations limited only by his capacity and willingness to act.

Naturally, general education recognizes that persons young and old educate one another. In a city there may be more opportunities for conferences, committee meetings, clubs, and organizations as well as lodges, the active

participation in which is an educational process and procedure comparable to the opportunities for selfactivity in parttime schools, libraries, and the business houses of a city.

Viewing adult education from the tower of a city hall, one estimates the educational situation from the variety of homes, variety of mentalities, variety of degrees of school progress, variety of interests, and the variety of occupations represented. Looking toward the horizon certain educational facts stand out prominently in our country.

- a. Fifty percent of those between 15 and 20 years of age are in school and 50 percent are at work, 5,000,000 in school, 5,000,000 at work.
- b. At 20 practically 200,000 are in colleges and 1,800,000 are at work.
- c. Of all over 21, 60,000,000 are at work and 300,000 are in training.
- d. Of the adults not in school over 3,000,000 are improving themselves through systematic study.
- e. Private correspondence schools collect between sixty and seventy million dollars in fees a year.

And yet there is another peak of facts indicative of the adult education problem. Each year:

- a. Four billion dollars' worth of substance is stolen.
- b. Fifteen thousand homicides.
- c. Nineteen thousand automobile deaths.
- d. Six hundred thousand dollars is spent to guard the mails.

A city is up against the proposition of providing an adult educational program which includes opportunities for all who have determination and ambition to improve themselves through systematic study and also includes provisions for the encouragement of the determinations and ambitions of others.

A hundred percent program of adult education challenges the ingenuity of the master minds of a city. However, there are ways open and a decision for action is essential.

Throughout the cities, the viewpoint is fast coming to a realization that education is a capital investment, the value of which is dependent upon how it is added to as years go by. It is time that educationists teach that viewpoint as well as almost universally practice it. Yet, if I may digress, there is a need of realization of educational people in general that coerced training in any line of work, study or play for those without capacity or interest kills other fine individual characteristics. All of us have examples galore in our minds, especially if we have dealt with dropouts and "squeeze-outs" of our schools and colleges.

The development of an adult educational program in a city must be based on this present trend and should include provision for the expansion and growth of the program. The strength of such a program lies in the fact that the knowledge and power of interpretation and appreciation which adult individuals achieve in their educational venture become usable

in the practices of life of a community. These applications may be put to vocational, social, recreational, political or general citizenship uses.

There is a need, then, of an economical and efficient use of the public school facilities in a city to make possible the development and growth of the adult citizenship by providing opportunities in and encouragement for:

- a. Systematic study in elementary, academic and liberal arts and sciences. (Academic Program.)
- b. Increasing skills. (Vocational and Industrial Program.)
- c. Expanding social aspects of the community. (Club and Social Program.)
- d. Gaining higher appreciation and greater variety of interests. (Auditorium, Music and Film Program.)
- e. Continuing adventure. (Physical Education Program.)

If I may speak of my home city, Gary, Indiana, I may say that it provides an adult educational program through the school city's organizations of: (a) The general continuation school; (b) the day school for adults; (c) an evening school for adults at each school center and in every department from seven to twelve months a year; (d) a university program in cooperation with Indiana and Purdue Universities.

Gary considers the adult school program a logical and economical step in extending the facilities of the work-study-play program, the basis upon which the school system is organized. Through this adult educational program, Gary is offering further opportunities of study to all groups of persons from the unlettered to the college graduate.

In the several departments of academic, vocational, music, club, auditorium and physical education activities, there were enrolled during the year just closed 15,000 in the evening schools. Over six thousand were taking academic and vocational work, while the remainder participated in the physical education, social, and auditorium divisions of the evening schools. A far larger number have been spectators at the physical education and auditorium activities.

It should be borne in mind that in Gary evening school activities are not confined to the use of one or two centers, but are extended to all school centers in the city. The school libraries, the clubrooms, the auditoriums, the moving picture machines, the academic and science classrooms as well as the commercial, millinery, and sewing, machine shop, drafting, and printing departments, the showers, swimming pools, gymnasiums, and athletic fields are made available in each school community for adults. The field of adult education in a city is so great that when agencies other than the schools provide adult activities there can be no competition so long as the programs are educationally effective and economical. The real competition is between all educational agencies and outside distracting influences.

In Gary we were interested several years ago to know how many of the boys and girls between the ages of sixteen and twenty who were not in regular day schools were participating in the several activities of the evening school centers. The census department tabulated the names of 1672 young men and women not in school. The department of adult education

tabulated the names of all between the ages of sixteen and twenty participating in the adult activities. This total was 1365. Naturally, in Gary we hope that the 300 of these ages not participating in the evening schools were active in programs of other educational agencies rather than engaged in the real competing groups of activities of an undesirable distracting type.

Besides the regular program evenings at each school there are meetings of all kinds during the year. Some of the meetings are as follows: Political, local improvement discussions, parent-teachers' meetings, parties, banquets, special lectures, radio programs, and concerts. The auditorium of each center is available for any educational activity to meet the needs of a developing community.

From a city point of view, then, an adult educational program provides an opportunity by the efficient and economical use of the public educational facilities of the city for all adults irrespective of the degree of previous training. An adult educational program recognizes that participation in lodges, conferences and clubs are for many educational opportunities comparable to provisions in other selfeducational activities of parttime schools, libraries, and business houses. It appreciates that because of the rapid progress and changing situations, education has become a necessary lifelong adjustment. It consequently makes provision for the cultivation and stimulation of intellectual interests, not for a few years only, but as a permanent, necessary and inspirational aspect of citizenship.

ADULT EDUCATION FROM THE RURAL POINT OF VIEW

BEATRICE ARNOLD, SOUTH CAROLINA

To all persons experienced in putting across a program for adult education, the rural problems are far more difficult than the urban—because, in the first place, we have landlords who are more indifferent to tenants than officials in manufacturing concerns; this indifference possibly due to absentee landlordism. Second, we have the small farmer who needs financial background as well as cultural background. Third, in rural communities the educational urge is not so great—slogan, "Aim a little higher, Ma." Fourth, isolation is a problem unto itself which must be met. Fifth, notwithstanding the fact there is leisure on the farm, it is hard to make the farmer believe it. He has formed the habit of thinking he is busy when, really, if his hours were planned and checked up he would find that his time would be by no means taken up.

To solve these problems we must take the school to the rural person, make it so practical, so appealing, and so attractive, thereby giving to this rural population ideals which will mold their lives, stimulate their imagination, widen their interest, create a zeal for reaching out after the finer things of life and bringing into their lives culture in its widest and truest sense, making them wiser parents, more intelligent and happier men and women.

These schools must make for pleasant associations and avoid unpleasant ones, so the pupil will become interested in further efforts. The adult school, taught by the right sort of teacher greatly enriches the seven tangents in the educational aim—health, vocation, civics, social, recreation, aesthetics, and ethical character.

What kind of teachers do we need for these rural adult schools and why? Our aim is to wipe out illiteracy and we are very, very careful of the teacher, who has such a gigantic share in realizing our aim. Our teachers are chosen with this particular type of pupil in mind. We try to send our adult pupils only to teachers of personality, tact, enthusiasm, Christian training, friendly attitude, having a sense of humor, neat in appearance, orderly in habits and very vivacious, so that the learning process will be guided and facilitated in an able and, above all, a pleasant way. These teachers are trained not only in teaching, but trained in formulating and carrying out a community program.

How are we to get trained teachers for this particular work? One good way, when you have a state program, as we have in South Carolina, is to have an organizer for each county. This organizer selects the type of teacher which I have just mentioned. These teachers are required to attend an institute which is held each summer at our state institution at Winthrop, where they are given intensive training along our summer program.

After this training they come back to the county where the organizer, with the county superintendent, has a group meeting just prior to these teachers going into their districts. At this meeting the program is outlined and all plans for work discussed. The aim being the enrolment of every person in the district literate as well as illiterate in some type of study group. In the campaign this summer the project will be the rural home: Teachers will be given a detailed project placing all work—reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, English and civics around the home. The project will be arranged so that definite community growth can be checked similar to better homes contests in cities. Pupils will be permitted to take phases of work in which they are most interested and feel the greatest need.

As soon as the teacher goes into the district a survey of the district is made to find the status of educational opportunities of the people, the hour when they can come or devote time to study and arrangement of classes, as to whether they are in the home, in the school building or in what place.

The organizer places these schools. Preference is given to those communities where the need is greatest and where best local cooperation can be secured. These schools usually leave some tangible results other than the knowledge obtained from books, such as a lighting system left in the school building, shrubbery placed around the school building, steps to be repaired and subscriptions to magazines left to the day school children. Daily newspapers are sent complimentary by newspaper managers to each home represented not already taking the paper.

For the closing exercises of our summer program there will be a two-day stay at Clemson College, our state institution, verifying the project study during the lay-by school, which is what our state college is doing for the rural home.

We are studying the pupil, the teacher, the subjectmatter, the time allotment, the materials of instruction, and we are trying to fit our methods to the results of these studies. Then with such effort we must succeed. We are looking forward to the 1930 census proving this.

The greatest good resulting from adult schools is the awakened public sentiment changed from educational apathy to keen interest in all which touches the welfare of the children and of the United States.

ADULT EDUCATION FROM THE NATIONAL POINT OF VIEW

L. R. ALDERMAN, SPECIALIST IN ADULT EDUCATION, U. S. BUREAU OF EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Adult education is a much used phrase. That we are unable to define it seemingly does not decrease its use. The phrase has a different meaning for different groups and for the same group at different times.

The speaker has seen the members of various organizations attempt to define adult education and has seen them adjourn without any agreement, but with the idea that adult education is expanding so rapidly that we shall have to await some future time to define it accurately. Nevertheless, the phrase "adult education" is a challenge which is causing much comment and considerable activity. Utopian writers are using adult education as the new element in their alchemy to bring about a new world.

For the purpose of this address we shall think of adult education as the voluntary, leisure-time education of those who are above the compulsory school age specified by law. Attention will be called to a few of the types of public adult educational activities which are national in character.

The evening schools will be spoken of first, because these schools make formal public education possible for adults. To the evening schools of a district, if there be such schools, may come the native population whose early education has been neglected. Just how many of these there are, we do not know. The 1920 Federal census shows that there were at that time 3,084,733 native-born people over 10 years of age who were illiterate. The American Academy of Sciences reports that of over one and one-half million men in the draft at the time of the World War, 31 percent could not take the Alpha classification test. This test required a reading ability in simple English.

To the evening schools may come the men and women of other lands, that they may learn English, American customs, and be prepared for citizenship. The census figures show that there were in the United States in 1920, 1,763,740 foreign-born white illiterates over 10 years of age. This

number could not write in any language. The American evening schools have been called "blessed" by thousands of our foreign-born citizens.

To the evening schools may come that large army of youths past compulsory school age whose earnings are needed for family support. Notwithstanding the very rapid growth of secondary schools, more than one-half of our boys and girls of high-school age are not in school. For those who must work in the daytime the evening school is the only school available.

In most school districts there are no evening schools. School officials who do not provide adequately for evening schools may unwittingly do a great injustice to those who can attend only night school, if they attend school at all. Evening schools cost so little in comparison to the cost of day schools, it would seem that every school system, where there is need for evening schools, would make a serious attempt to provide them. To illustrate the expenditure of public money for evening school pupils as compared to that expended for day school pupils, let us take the case of two neighbor boys of high-school age, namely Tom and John. The family of Tom does not need his earnings. Therefore, he has the privilege of attending the day high-school for four years at an average yearly cost, to the district, of \$173.72. He then attends the state university for four years at an average yearly expense to the state of \$593.75. It is thus seen that \$3,069.88 of public tax money has been spent upon the education of Tom during those eight years.

Of considerable contrast are the conditions surrounding John. He lives in a home where all must contribute to the family's support, and his only chance to attend school is after the day's work is done. Provided he is privileged to attend an evening school for eight years, he has spent upon his education, from public funds, an average of \$10 a year, or a total of \$80 for the same period of time that the education of Tom has cost the district and state \$3,069.88.

The fact that there are in America more John's than Tom's, as pictured in this illustration, should make school officials who believe in educating all of the children of all of the people strong advocates of such schools as will give this larger group of American youths their chance for development and service.

To the evening schools also may come that large and ever-growing group of mature people who need some guidance in the study of vocational or cultural subjects, that they may be better adjusted to their complex and constantly changing environment. To the evening schools may come those who need help in the wise use of their increased leisure time. Many of these are surfeited with passive amusements and are hungry for the worthwhile things of life.

To the evening schools may come parents, young and older, who have discovered that they, as parents, have unsurpassed opportunity in the care of their children to give them a mind-set and to establish in them

habits that will make them more effective and happier human beings. Parents are asking for classes that they may learn how to be better parents.

The evening school bids fair to become one of the greatest educational institutions of our times. It will enable school authorities to reach those who have the most powerful influence upon children. It is probably true that the older members in most families have more influence upon the growing child than do the public school systems and all other public institutions combined. Hence, if our purpose were merely to teach all the children of all the people, we would find that adult education is necessary in order to do this effectively.

From a national point of view we find that the evening school is not receiving the attention it deserves. Here and there localities have developed schools of this type which show clearly what can be done in this regard when the matter is given proper consideration by school officials. Most school districts have no evening schools at all and in many districts, where there are successful evening schools, there is constant uncertainty as to their continuance. Should not the evening school be made a regular part of the public school system? Many districts make evening schools entirely selfsupporting by collecting student fees; indeed, some very successful schools are supported in this way. The most important matter is, not how the school is supported, but that evening schools be maintained. Experience show that adults in considerable numbers will attend evening schools even if they must pay the cost of instruction. Just why the public school trains for citizenship the child of nine and not the man of 21 years of age is a question that is difficult to answer.

Another type of adult school is that held in the homes of foreign-speaking mothers. Such mothers, on account of inability to speak English and often because of the number of children in the home, are unable to attend classes elsewhere. This work is doing much, not only to bring these foreign-speaking mothers into citizenship, but to increase the efficiency and happiness of the whole family.

A most interesting development has been made in the state of Delaware in rural evening schools. These schools have now been in session for three winters. The attendance shows that rural people are interested in attending classes if they may choose the subjects they are to study. They welcome an opportunity to study in a group and to secure the help of a teacher. The speaker attended the graduating exercises of these schools recently and was deeply impressed by the zeal and earnestness of the students who ranged in age from 25 to 60 years.

Another type of adult education that gives promise of very large development is university extension. In many cases the evening school attendance at these institutions is larger than the day-school attendance. In some cities university extension work amounts to junior college work. There are over 200 institutions of higher learning that give work either

by classes held outside of the institutions or by correspondence. The number taking advantage of the opportunity offered by these types of work is capable of being expanded manifold. A question which constantly arises is, "Shall adults who pursue work through extension methods be given entrance or college credits for the work accomplished?" The speaker has heard many college people express the idea that in this new field of education we should not encumber ourselves with the machinery of credits. "Let us do this for the love of the work itself," they say. While the matter of receiving credit for extension work is not important to many adults, there are those who do wish to receive credit for work done in this way. College credits which lead to a degree have a financial as well as a social value. Those colleges which are to render the greatest service in this work will be those which develop methods of examination that will both safeguard the standards of the university and be just to students, whether they be regular or extension students, young or old.

Undoubtedly the greatest opportunity for the expansion of informal adult education is through reading good literature. Many people waste time by not reading at all, and others by reading books of little or no value. Many of these people would welcome information as to good books, where they may be procured, and guidance in reading them.

Reading courses issued by various organizations are in great demand. The United States Bureau of Education has, for many years, issued reading courses and given certificates for the completion of the courses. The demand for these courses and guidance in reading the books grew to such an extent that the bureau could no longer handle the work with the personnel available. A plan has now been worked out and adopted by national organizations which may link up many educational forces and render a great service to the public.

The plan is that the Bureau of Education and the American Library Association will continue to issue reading courses. The National University Extension Association has agreed to recommend to the various institutions composing its membership that they distribute these reading courses. To those readers who desire it the institutions will offer guidance and, at the successful completion of a course, a certificate of accomplishment will be awarded.

In addition to the institutions forming the above association, there are over 400 colleges and universities in the United States which conduct some kind of extension work. It may be that many of these will desire to offer guidance for reading courses.

The American Library Association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers will call to the attention of library boards, both state and local, the importance of having available at the libraries the books required by these reading courses.

This plan, to the extent that it provides attractive, up-to-date reading courses, secures their distribution to all parts of the country, makes available the books to be read and gives help and encouragement in the reading, may render a much-needed service to many who desire it.

Under the proposed plan any organization or individual may request that reading courses be prepared on a given subject. Librarians are alert to find out what demand there is for reading matter.

This plan, which links up for the promotion of good reading four national organizations, is a start in the right direction. It is hoped that many other organizations will cooperate in providing reading courses, in the distribution of courses, or in providing service in the conduct of the courses.

Here, then, is the clarion call for cooperation of organizations and individuals in bringing good literature into the lives of millions of readers.

State departments of education, one after another, are adding a worker in adult education to their office force. This officer, in many cases, has other duties. Sixty percent of the states have already enacted legislation tending to encourage adult education. We find the state of Pennsylvania has this law:

Article XLI. Extension Education. (4102) That the board of school directors of any school district may and upon written application, signed by twenty or more residents of such district above the age of sixteen years who are not in attendance at any public or private day school, shall provide free extension education for the instruction of said applicants in any curricular course of study so requested, or in English and citizenship for immigrants and native illiterates, or in citizenship for adults and in such other extra-curricular courses of study as said board may deem advisable: Provided, That any such board of school directors may refuse to provide or continue such extension education whenever less than twenty of its said applicants are unfitted to pursue with reasonable profit the course of study requested.

Twenty of the states of the Union now provide state funds for adult education, sharing with the local district the expense of such schools.

PROPOSED COORDINATION OF ADULT EDUCATION AGENCIES

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ON COORDINATION OF ADULT EDUCATION AGENCIES

Section I

Review of committee organization and work—The Committee on Coordination was authorized two years ago at the Philadelphia session by the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association. Its organization was attributed to at least three reasons, although we may not all have been fully conscious of them at the time.

First, a desire to broaden the scope of the department to recognize and include various types of education for adults in keeping with the general movement for adult education. Second, the apparent need of coordination and articulation from, by, and between various agencies engaged in different types of education for adults in order to prevent waste and reap the advantages of cooperation. Third, the need of better organization for adult education of various grades, particularly under public auspices, requiring the coordination and articulation of departments and types of work within publicly supported systems of education.

Your committee met several times last year and made a preliminary report at Seattle, much of which was printed in the *Interstate Bulletin* on adult education. A large part of the report was devoted to definitions and to a statement of policy and program with the scope of adult education. In the judgment of the committee, this preliminary work was imperative largely because of general confusion of thought and ideas. The committee decided, furthermore, that the scope of its work related chiefly to various forms of adult education under public auspices, which heretofore has received little attention. By this, however, the committee did not attempt to isolate adult education under public auspices from other organized forms of education for adults. On the contrary, it is the sense of the committee that all types of adult education within a community should be coordinated and correlated as far as possible, including such activities under public support.

It was the deliberate opinion of the committee that study of and recommendations on specific problems of coordination and articulation involved larger problems than could be covered in its first survey. Supplementary work was deemed necessary.

Before proceeding this year on such studies, the committee, having been continued by the last meeting of the department at Seattle, soon learned of the organization by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association of a somewhat similar committee of which Superintendent C. R. Reed of Bridgeport is chairman and who was authorized to complete the personnel of his committee. Subsequently the two committees were merged or affiliated. Including the preliminary meeting three sessions of the two groups—including two or three additional persons—have been held and steps taken to publish, through the medium of the National Education Association yearbook to be published this fall, a treatment of the subject as a whole. This work is now partitioned among several committee members. It is expected that from 60 to 70 pages of the yearbook will be devoted to adult education.

Section II

General conclusions—Largely for these reasons, your committee has not pursued its original plans. Deliberations of the committee and many informal decisions of its members, who at various times have been able to be together, have led to the following conclusions:

First, the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association should be broadened in scope to include various types of adult education and to promote within this national educational body a recognized division for leadership and discussion of problems relating to adult education as a whole.

Second, in view of the growth and extension of education for adults, means and methods should be devised to secure increased coordination and articulation of its various activities under public, institutional and private auspices.

Third, because of the prospective development of adult education under public auspices, increasing attention should be devoted to the efficient organization and correlation of departments of work, program and fiscal and administrative policies. Preliminary recommendations on matters related to adult education under public auspices were presented in the committee's report last year.

The committee now desires to suggest some of the main items involved in coordination and articulation between various agencies engaged in adult education. According to its previous report, the committee refers particularly to adult education under public auspices for persons of maturity who devote some portion of their time to educational pursuits. It is the sense of the committee that no single agency may be more useful in the field of adult education than the public school with an adequately organized and directed program.

Section III

General policy and practice in coordination—In order to obtain the full benefits which cooperative and coordinated effort will insure, the committee suggests that:

A. National.

1. The Federal Bureau of Education be encouraged to continue its policy of affiliating and coordinating in appropriate ways, the interest and efforts of various national organizations active in various forms of education for adults.

2. The governing body and officers of the National Education Association be requested to encourage the affiliation and coordination of appropriate activities and interests within the scope of adult education within a well-organized Department of Adult Education.

Membership in the Department, representing various types and grades of education among adults, indicates current tendencies in coordinate effort. The Committee believes that an active representative Department on Adult Education within the National Education Association is peculiarly needed at this time as a medium for consideration of numerous matters relating to education among adults.

B. State.

State departments of education or regularly authorized or recognized public state agencies for adult education, as for instance, departments of extension education, in connection with state universities, are urged to affiliate and coordinate in appropriate ways, organized effort within state borders, in order to secure the benefits of coordinated state-wide service.

Illustrations of this policy and practice are as follows:

Workers education in California—A joint enterprise between the state federation of labor, the extension division of the University of California with a joint Committee representing organized labor and the university, and local operating centers.

Adult education summer school—California—A joint enterprise under auspices of the state department of education with the following cooperating agencies: The California Association for Adult Education; The Adult Education Teachers Association; The California Library Associations; the California Federation of Women's Clubs; The California Federation of Labor; the Association of University Women; The California League of Women Voters; The Y. M. C. A. Sessions were held at Mills College, Oakland.

Organized reading—A cooperative undertaking in which the Indiana Federation of Womens Clubs, with the help of the Indiana Library and the extension division of Indiana University features club plans and reading courses published by the American Library Association, Indiana University, and the U. S. Bureau of Education.

Parental education—The joint undertaking of the Indiana Parent Teachers Association and Indiana University in promoting and organizing appropriate forms of education for parents.

Miscellaneous types of coordinated effort—As for instance between state organization and agencies in provisions for library service, university extension, visual education, teacher training, farm institutes, civic education, education for adult literacy, education for the foreign-born, etc.

C. Local.

Cities and local communities are urged to mobilize and coordinate activities of local agencies and organizations to take advantage of possibilities in mutual aid; to procure increased efficiency, to avoid waste and duplication; and to mobilize and direct facilities and means to meet a wide diversity of conditions and needs. To illustrate:

Coordinated and articulated programs in which local libraries, museums, educational visitations, evening schools and organizations representing business, industry, women's clubs, and civic and other organizations participate.

Section IV

Three types at least of articulated effort in education for adults may be recognized.

A. Progressive coordination—This type involves a program of continuous educational effort to be followed by participants. Such may be illustrated by arrangements by which, particularly under public auspices, in evening and extension schools, adult students may progress from elementary to higher grades of learning. This makes possible continuous educational effort through evening elementary schools, into evening high schools, and so on into university, trade, or technical schools.

B. Curricular coordination—This type of articulated effort provides for a curricular program as for instance, at Torrington, Connecticut, where evening school students in English find their studies related largely to trade courses which may be pursued later in regular trade school courses when their working knowledge of English is sufficient.

Variation of this type may be found where university extension students find material for study in their local museum or art centers or in connection with other organized educational facilities.

C. Community Coordination—In this type of articulated education for adults advantage is taken of resident local resources, as to organization and instructional facilities, in order to serve broad local needs. Such may be illustrated by working agreements between schools, libraries, museums, civic, business, and industrial organizations, etc., as suggested in Section III, C.

Section V

General recommendations—Canvass of the field of education for adults reveals extraordinary diversity in kind and amount. Largely because education among men and women is pursued voluntarily, diversity in organization and responsibility is marked. Communities possess more organized and operating facilities for adult education, conducted at public or part public expense, than is usually recognized. Much of it is self-sustaining. Much of it would enjoy the benefits of better organization, direction and purpose, if more closely integrated and articulated. Apparent competitors may profitably become collaborators and cooperators to the benefit of all, particularly to those whom they desire to serve.

Education for adults in the United States is marked by variety, diversity, and more or less adequate organization. More clearly defined objectives and programs are desirable. Many organizations, both public and private, are operating. Need of coordinated effort is conspicuous. The current tendency is to discover and utilize the forces of mutual aid and cooperation in common undertakings. The committee suggests, therefore, that organizations and agencies serving within this field endeavor to find, not only their own peculiar task, but also to discover in what ways

their service may be facilitated and improved through coordination and articulation of their service with that of other organizations and agencies.

The committee furthermore urges closer articulated and coordinated effort within communities to prevent waste, confusion and duplication. Cooperative effort in advertising, publicity and organization, as for instance, through the medium of the Central Chicago, Dallas, Buffalo, Brooklyn, New York, and Cleveland councils or organizations for adult education is suggested.

The committee again welcomes the service of the American Association for Adult Education as a needed coordinating agency for various types of effort among adults.

The committee recommends the organization of local councils on adult education, which, through the medium of their individual and organization memberships, may extend the idea of cooperative and coordinate effort within their respective fields. It urges closer working relationships between organizations and agencies and complete understandings between their recognized leaders as to division of the field of service and as to their respective representatives. Experience proves the need of such developments, both in rural and urban communities.

The committee especially urges the adoption by boards of education and other local and state public educational authorities of a policy of enlarged educational service among adults, in which coordinated and articulated organization with other agencies is an essential feature.

Committee on Coordination

L. R. ALDERMAN, Washington	C. S. MARSH, Buffalo
A. W. CASTLE, Pennsylvania.	ETHEL RICHARDSON, New York
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METHODS AND OUTSTANDING DEVICES USED IN MINNEAPOLIS ADULT EDUCATION CLASSWORK

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In Minneapolis the elementary English classes for adults are centered in twelve districts and are in session for two terms each year, a total of twenty-six weeks. In 1924, because of demand on the part of the students, a third term of nine weeks was added. Since funds were limited and the number of students in each center was small, it seemed expedient in the spring of 1926 to open only one school located in the center of the city. Upon organization of this school with its various classes, each one of which necessarily included students from all the schools, it was soon apparent that there was a great divergence in the standards for classification in the various evening schools as well as a wide range of ability in each class.

These findings called for immediate remedial measures. A committee on research was appointed and various studies were made. One of the results of the work of this committee is a testing program covering the following objectives:

1. *To assist in placing students in classes best suited to their needs*—Students often are assigned to classes where the work is much too difficult for them. This not only is discouraging to them but also hinders the work of the rest of the class. On the other hand, many students who progress faster than the majority of the class often remain in classes in which the work is too easy for them. It should be possible for each student to proceed from class to class as fast as he can. The testing program is intended to help avoid the first of these conditions and to provide for reasonable adjustments of the second.

2. *To indicate to the teacher the range of ability possessed by the students in her class*—Even though the students have been very carefully classified there is in many of the classes a great range of ability. If the teacher knows the limitations and special abilities of her group, she can plan her work in a more satisfactory way.

3. *To give the teacher definite information concerning the individual needs of the students*—Such factors as length of residence in the United States, amount and kind of foreign education, peculiar environmental background, the amount and kind of education in this country, nationality, speech peculiarities, age, and occupation vary for each student in the class. Consequently, each student is encountering different kinds of difficulties, and is in need of a different kind of special help. The instruction following is determined by these individual needs.

Specifically the testing program is planned to aid in revealing the ability of the student in three important fields: Conversation or oral expression; reading, both oral and silent; and written expression.

In the brief allotment of time for this paper it will be possible at best to discuss the testing program only in a most cursory manner.

Silent reading—The tests in silent reading, which were made and used previous to March, 1928, were more or less valuable in that they revealed certain teaching results, but they were not entirely satisfactory in content and sequence difficulty. The silent reading test, the results of which are shown here, apparently has met our requirements. It consists of twenty paragraphs sequenced according to word and content difficulty. The first five paragraphs contain vocabulary used in the beginning classes. The others were selected from various types of reading material such as newspapers; magazines; the city traffic ordinance; bulletins concerning postal, telegram, fire prevention, and health information; historical and geographic readers, etc.

A tabulation of the distribution of scores was made for each class and school taking the test. The following tabulation is a summary of these classes and includes both evening school and home classes.

SILENT READING TEST

Evening School	Distribution of Scores																				Total Number	Median		
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20			
Beginning B. . . .	4	4	5	7	9	9	14	9	4	5	1	1	3	6	2	1	7	2	1	..	1	95	6.7	
Beginning A. . . .	..	1	..	4	..	2	2	6	6	2	2	6	3	6	6	8	8	11	9	2	..	84	14.3	
Intermediate B..	..	..	1	2	2	4	2	3	6	7	8	8	8	9	7	8	9	7	9	6	3	109	13.4	
Intermediate A..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	2	1	5	3	3	10	13	9	18	22	22	17	3	130	16.9	
Total.	4	5	6	13	11	16	19	18	18	15	16	18	17	31	28	26	42	42	41	25	7	418		
HOME CLASSES																								
Beginning B. . . .	1	2	1	2	7	10	5	5	9	3	2	1	2	..	..	1	2	..	2	..	..	55	6.9	
Beginning A. . . .	..	..	..	..	3	9	7	4	2	2	4	1	4	1	..	2	2	..	..	..	..	41	7.3	
Intermediate B..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	1	2	2	1	4	4	3	2	2	..	..	24	14.8	
Intermediate A..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	2	..	2	1	1	2	5	3	..	17	17.5	
Total.	..	2	1	2	10	19	12	10	13	5	8	4	10	2	6	8	8	4	9	3	..	137		

The distribution of scores on the tabulation sheet clearly shows that many changes should be made in the classification of students. The causes for the maladjustments in most cases have already been discovered and corrective measures will be used in the fall.

English—The English test is divided into three parts. For the beginning classes Part I is a simple dictation exercise; Part II, correct usage (rewriting sentences in correct order, writing plural forms, and supplying correct verb forms and pronouns in sentences stated); Part III, composition (the writing of several sentences on one of a number of subjects listed). For the intermediate classes Part I, spelling (20 words taken from Ayre's 1000-word list); Part II, correct usage (writing as dictated two sentences and the heading, salutation, and complimentary closing of a friendly letter for punctuation and capitalization; using in sentences certain words listed; selection of complete statements; choice of the correct words in given sentences); Part III, composition (the writing of a short paragraph on one of the subjects listed).

In scoring the English test a total score for the whole test is made for each student. Scores are also made for each part of the test so that student difficulty may be easily located.

In the spring of 1926 a composition test was given from which a scale was made for rating the written work in the various grades. This scale is still used. It has proved to be most helpful and has been one factor in raising our standards.

Arithmetic—During the school year 1925-26, H. P. Cooper, assistant to the superintendent, who was doing research work in the evening schools at that time, made an investigation concerning arithmetic instruction for the foreign-born students in the elementary English classes. Excerpts from his report are as follows:

The purpose of the investigation—The purpose of this investigation was (1) to determine to what extent the foreign-born students in the elementary evening schools possessed the knowledge and skill in those arithmetical terms and processes necessary to intelligent living in the United States; (2) to secure valid information upon which basis both the course of study and method of instruction in arithmetic could be improved.

The nature of the investigation—A group of six tests was given to various classes in the evening school. The results of the different tests were tabulated according to the nationality of the students taking the tests. It was believed that this knowledge would help determine the type of emphasis needed in the mathematics instruction of the various schools, as there is usually in each school a predominating nationality group. A second tabulation of some of the test results was made according to classes. This gave a comparison of arithmetic knowledge between students in lower and higher classes. The investigation did not include enough cases to make possible a tabulation according to nationality within the same class.

Content of the Tests—Test I was a test of the knowledge of the common measurement terms with which both men and women come in contact in their every day living and in connection with which their arithmetic knowledge is chiefly used. The test was given orally by the writer in order to require of the student no reading knowledge. The directions were made clear to the student, his work being merely to write answers in figures.

Test II was a test of the ability to add, subtract, multiply, and divide thirty examples of abstract numbers. The examples contained all the important specific abilities in the four operations and took for granted that the students knew the combinations. No time limit was given as it was decided that by investing the test with an atmosphere of speed, we would defeat our purpose of discovering exactly the student's ability to handle the fundamental operations.

Test III was a test of the student's ability to use three forms common in American business. These three forms were the check, deposit slip, and monthly statement. The students were directed how to fill in these blank forms.

Test IV was a test of ability to place the decimal point correctly. This was given through abstract problems which would make it a test only of the ability to place the decimal point. All the answers to the examples were given; the student was directed to place the point in the proper place in the answer. The test proved very confusing and as a result the conclusions are unreliable.

Test V was a test of the ability to manipulate fractions in abstract examples. All the different types of fractions were included in the test.

Test VI contained four problems, one each in percentage, taxes, discount, and commission.

Based upon the results of the arithmetic tests important changes were made in the curriculum and in methods of instruction.

General conclusions—The objectives stated at the beginning of this paper have not yet been fully realized. We have accomplished a few things. A change was made in classification: Only beginning and intermediate classes now comprise the elementary English schools; the advanced groups were transferred to one center and organized into departmentalized high-school preparatory classes. The classification within each school is much improved. Students are not only classified by grade, but they are grouped in each class as follows: "A" group—those who develop rapidly; "B" group—those who develop at an average rate; "C" group—those who develop slowly. There is greater flexibility in transferring

students. The tests have given the teacher valuable data concerning individual needs. The information thus gained has resulted in better methods of teaching. The students, too, have benefited through the consciousness of their own difficulties.

METHODS AND OUTSTANDING DEVICES USED IN DETROIT ADULT EDUCATION CLASSWORK

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Someone has a sense of humor to suggest that one may give a resume of even the highlights of procedure in any one line of education in the brief time allotted to speakers in such a gathering as this. Being possessed of professional spirit and desirous of supporting our leaders in this special field, the only thing that can be done is to attempt the impossible, which I am now doing.

First, there is no time for introducing the topic, neither may one approach it with the dignity that such a topic deserves. The one thing left to do is to plunge. Therefore we plunge.

In the schools of Detroit devices and general methods are interwoven into one unit. This I will endeavor to touch upon later.

Generally speaking, devices class themselves into what might be called motivating or stimulating devices and instructional or teaching devices. I shall dismiss at once all such that may be classed as advertising—announcements, newspapers, handbills, circulating letters—all such belong to administration and have no place in actual teaching.

Our first and greatest motivating device to keep our students with is definiteness of place. When we instituted a course of study that dovetailed into our general system of education a few years ago, many questioned the wisdom of such a move. Our noted friend from England whom you all know was quite aghast and wasted considerable time in giving reasons why it wasn't feasible. Discussing all that, I can only say that after eight years of experimentation we consider it one of our greatest aids to permanency. The average student, including the adult illiterate, completes this course of study in four twelve-week terms.

This year 800 completed the examinations successfully that will admit them to high-school or to vocational schools. The efficiency of this definiteness is partly manifested by the fact that regardless of the decreasing immigration, Detroit's elementary evening schools have grown steadily in enrolment and also in percentage of attendance. There has been no year of retrogression in either of these during the nine years I have been in Detroit. You will note that I am not discussing citizenship classes. I speak of students achieving the so-called regular standards required for admittance to our high schools in which they may prepare for college or university as their ambition or interest dictates.

Our methods for beginning classes, foreign-born and illiterate alike, consist of practically all that is best in technic. We have drawn upon all fields.

We use dramatics, comparisons, pictures, and objects for comprehension when needed and for stimulation to oral expression when needed.

For mastery of the printed page we use phonics in the seventeen places where they are definite and fixed.

We use four principles governing vowel sounds.

We use the word methods for teaching exceptions.

We do not use phonetic families.

We do not use oral spelling.

We have drill lessons.

When the first twelve drills are mastered students can achieve a fifth grade ability in oral reading. This requires from three to four weeks. When the drills are completed the student is master of the mechanics of the language.

Once oral reading ability is acquired by a student our major device changes and we aim to develop oral and independent fluency. For this one most valued device is silent reading. We do not use this in beginning classes. Immediately the student has mastered the mechanics of oral reading, that activity is reduced to a minimum and reading becomes a tool subject for thought-getting. It is thus that we control our required content in the study of the social sciences as well as mathematics. Spelling is never taught as such. It is the result of power over mechanics as taught in the first six weeks. Reading over that period is purely a test of achievement in oral mastery of the printed page. The value in this control is that it later conserves both the time of student and teacher for comprehension and application.

We have in Detroit schools white and colored men and women. Our classes for women now include twenty-one classes for foreign mothers and four classes for illiterate women. Our next year's work as outlined includes testing and revising four sets of cards known as "Units of Achievements." These cards belong to the students and have been in use for five years. Each has listed fourteen or more units of mastery. The student proceeds at his own normal rate, hence no student can blame his lack of achievement upon any cause save his own application once the material has been presented.

I have utterly failed to touch upon one of our most wonderful "finds." It is sufficient to say that by changing the sequence by which new material is presented we can increase or decrease its effectiveness from ten to fifty-three percent.

THE PLACE OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION IN A COORDINATED PROGRAM OF ADULT EDUCATION¹

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What is university extension?—Speaking generally, university extension is a phase or section of the much larger movement for adult education which was so noteworthy a product of the social forces released during the first two decades of the twentieth century. Adult education is defined by Frederick Keppel as "the process of learning, on the initiative of the individual, seriously and consecutively undertaken as a supplement to some primary occupation."² We have here, then, an organized program whose goal is the enlistment of all mature people in a campaign of education continuing throughout the duration of life. Study, learning, the development of intellectual capacity, the enrichment of the mental and spiritual resources, the growth of the latent powers of personality, should not cease with the passing of school or college days. These should be a regular part of the normal activities of life, to continue as long as life itself.

The general program of adult education is carried on by multifarious agencies. To name only a few of them, we have the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, the numerous commercial correspondence schools, the various types of people's institutes, the library extension organizations, reading clubs, women's clubs, the chautauqua system, popular lecture courses, and university extension. These all have the same aim, to make education an unending adventure of the human spirit—coterminous with life itself. The goal is not only the immediate one of selfimprovement but also the ultimate one of the progressive amelioration of human society.¹

Mr. Keppel, in the article already referred to, is authority for the statement that, "today there are at least five times as many adults, men and women, pursuing some form of educational study as are registered as candidates for degrees in all the colleges and universities in the country." He estimates their numbers as follows:

In the 350 commercial correspondence schools of the United States about a million and a half new students register every year.

In public evening schools, parttime and continuation schools, more than 1,000,000.

¹ Most of the material contained in this paper is taken from a chapter contributed by the author to a volume on *Higher Education in America*, edited by Dean R. A. Kent of Northwestern University, and to be published by Ginn & Company in the autumn of 1928.

² *Yale Review*, April, 1926.

¹ For a full discussion of the aims and ideals of adult education, see Edward C. Lindeman: *The Meaning of Adult Education*. (New Republic, Inc., 1926.)

In university extension classes and correspondence courses, 150,000 students.

In Y. M. C. A. courses, 100,000, in courses given by other non-academic organizations, 100,000; in workers' education classes, 30,000.

These figures take no account of agricultural institutes, art and natural history museums, chautauquas and lyceums, public library reading courses, and instruction through the film, the radio, the magazines and newspapers.

What part does university extension play in this general program? It begins with that large group between the ages of 18 and 20 who have severed their connection with formal schooling, and it includes those of any subsequent age who, lacking school connections, are nevertheless and for a variety of reasons moved by the passion of learning. University extension may be defined as the organized and systematic effort to make the resources of college and university faculties, libraries, laboratories, buildings, equipment, and other facilities available for educational service to those individuals and groups in the general population who, for a variety of reasons, are unable to matriculate as regular students but must pursue higher education "as a supplement to some primary occupation." It deals primarily with employed people, who must compress their educational activities within the limits of their spare or leisure time. It meets them, however, with a college or university program keyed to the intellectual pitch of higher education. Herein chiefly is it to be differentiated from most of the other agencies of adult education. It offers a program of university material to people capable of profiting by such material, but at times and places suited to those whose working hours are absorbed in the stern business of making a living.

University extension itself has two main divisions, which differ from each other in materials, in programs, and in objectives. These two branches of the general movement are usually distinguished as Agricultural Extension and General University Extension. Of agricultural extension it may suffice at this point to state that its purpose is to diffuse among the people, through cooperation between the United States Department of Agriculture and the land-grant colleges, useful information on the subjects relating to agriculture and home economics and to encourage the practical application of this information. This is accomplished through demonstrations, exhibits, the operation of model farms, farmers' institutes, the services of county farm agents, the organization of clubs of farm boys and girls, and the circulation of informative printed matter couched in plain and untechnical language. The work is supported by federal money matched dollar for dollar by state money. This form of extension is found only in land-grant colleges or in state universities which include land-grant colleges.¹

¹ For further information on the origin and operation of agricultural extension, see the annual reports and other bulletins of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. See, also, R. R. Price: *The Financial Support of State Universities*, Chapter VIII. (Harvard University Press, 1924.)

General university extension, on the other hand, deals with the diffusion of all branches of knowledge and learning dealt with in the college and university curriculum, with the sole exception of subjects embraced under the heads of agriculture and home economics. Its purview therefore is more strictly the academic and professional branches of the university program and the facilities and expert service pertaining thereto. Because of these reasons of difference of objectives and difference of methods, the administration of the two types of extension service is usually entrusted to two different departments within the university organization.

Formal versus informal education—As a sidelight on the causes which brought university extension into operation it may be observed that there now exist simultaneously in society two processes or systems of education, one conventional and regular and the other informal and irregular. Under the former a child enters the kindergarten and then progresses by regular and more or less equal steps through the primary and elementary grades, the high school, the college, and the university or the professional school. This is the system that society has provided for those favored ones who are regular and who fit into the uniform program. But society has not been equally thoughtful for those who, through economic pressure, family responsibilities, ill health, and other causes, have not been able to maintain themselves in the lock-step described above. For the most part these have had to shift for themselves. And it is a matter of social significance to recall in the light of history that many of those who have thus been forced out of the formal educational system have been found later to be among the intellectually gifted. In other words, the adverse selection has been based not on mental capacity but on the vagaries of the social and economic order.

Hence, in order to offset these inequalities of opportunity, there has arisen parallel with the conventional system of education a loosely organized, uncoordinated regime of educational offerings, aimed to supply the deficiencies of those who must perforce pursue their studies at irregular intervals and at unconventional times. It is a guerrilla band compared with the serried ranks of the regular educational forces. Such individuals formerly picked up crumbs from the educational table through private reading, attendance on lectures, or other means dependent upon personal initiative. A generation ago students of law and medicine "read" these subjects in the office of a practitioner and under his guidance and supervision. Now organizations such as were listed in an earlier paragraph have been formed for the express purpose of rendering systematic educational service to those outside the regular ranks. The chief aim has been to offer formal and organized instruction in the evening hours and at places readily accessible to the prospective students. Moreover, ability to profit by the offerings has been emphasized above conformity to regu-

¹ See J. B. Johnston: *Higher Education at the Dinner Table*. (Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, Vol. XXVII, No. 38, July 26, 1924.)

lations or adherence to prescribed methods of approach. Not the least important of the organizations formed for this purpose is that embraced under the general title of university extension.¹

The modern university is not only a teaching institution but it is also a storehouse of miscellaneous information, authentic and uptodate, and a center of research and investigation. In other words, the university conserves knowledge, increases knowledge, and diffuses knowledge. But much of the stored-up knowledge and its periodic increments, although of great interest and importance to society at large, is not in form to be readily assimilated by the busy people who can make practical use of it. Therefore it must, in many cases, be culled from scientific journals and the publications of learned societies, translated from technical language and abstract phraseology into the vernacular, and circulated widely among the people in attractive and readable form. This office of intermediary between scholars and the public is also a function of university extension.²

University extension began, not as a spontaneous movement on the initiative of the universities and sponsored by them, but as a response to public demand. University men were concerned, but the pressure came upon the institutions from outside. The class system developed from the original lecture series supplemented by syllabi, questions, and examinations. As adjuncts came bulletins, study clubs, exchanges, and traveling libraries.³

The objectives of university extension—As a part of the general movement in the interest of adult education, university extension has, speaking broadly, the same objectives as higher education itself. University extension consists of higher education brought to a group more mature on the average than the corresponding matriculated students in residence at a university, and at somewhat irregular or unconventional times and places. These general objectives may be inferred from the two following statements, the first dealing with adult education as a whole and the second confined to that distinctive portion known as university extension:

Orthodox education may be a preparation for life but adult education is an agitating instrumentality for changing life. Adult education will become an agency of progress if its short-time goal of selfimprovement can be made compatible with a long-time, experimental but resolute policy of changing the social order.¹

Adult education through university extension seeks to provide adults of any age, who have not pursued all or part of a university curriculum or who, having had a part, desire to continue such a curriculum into more advanced subjects, opportunity for intellectual improvement at such time and place as approximate the adults' convenience, such opportunity being dependent on the university's type of instructor and his organization of the subject, the latter differing but little, if at all, from that required of intramural students.⁴

¹ For a survey of the development of university extension, see L. E. Reber: *University Extension in the United States*. (Bulletin of U. S. Bureau of Education, 1914, No. 19); and A. L. Hall-Quest: *The University Afield*. (The Macmillan Co., 1926.)

² For a fuller discussion of this topic see James Harvey Robinson: *The Humanizing of Knowledge*. (George H. Doran Co., N. Y., 1923.)

³ Edward C. Lindeman: *op. cit.*

⁴ A. L. Hall-Quest: *op. cit.*

In general the objectives are both vocational and cultural. The goal is to stimulate the student's selfmotivating powers, to the end that he shall rise to his potential level, develop his latent capacities, and round out the full resources of his personality. This is economy of human resources, to train a man to play the part he is best fitted to play and to fill the niche in the social fabric that he can best fill. It means the final elimination of the faulty social engineering inherent in the practice of fitting the square peg in the round hole.

The more specific aims and purposes of university extension, especially as related to its teaching functions, may be summarized as follows:

a. *University service for nonmatriculants*—A university, and more particularly a state university, has an obligation to disseminate learning and to carry the cultural heritage of the race to the whole of its constituency. This means, among other things, making university instruction available to nonmatriculated students. It implies also making higher education a vital force in the lives of those who are unable to participate in the regular university campus program. In furtherance of this aim university extension makes possible the use by outsiders of materials, facilities, or equipment not usually available except for resident students, if such use can be shown to be educationally profitable. It also brings about contacts between faculty, individuals or groups and outside representatives of science, art, industry, professions, to the reciprocal profit of both parties. Not infrequently it brings the material equipment and facilities of the university and the expert knowledge and technical skill of its staff to bear directly upon the specific problems of the commonwealth. The direct contact between university teachers and officers and living, working humanity, outside the academic walls, tends to make more real and vital the connection between school and society.

b. *University opportunity for employed people*—People engaged in making a living are usually, by the very engrossing nature of that pursuit, debarred from participation in the regular or conventional offerings of higher education—and that without regard to their aptitudes, capacities, or tastes. Because of economic pressure they may not abandon their jobs for the pursuit of education, and the regular university program operates during the working day when their energies are already engaged. To such as these, often avid for the intellectual life or for vocational training, the extension program of evening classes and correspondence courses comes as a boon. Training, information, and guidance in vocational subjects on the higher levels is given to those engaged in trades, industries, commerce, and professions. This enables individuals with the requisite native capacity to combine making a living with obtaining an education, often to the reciprocal advantage of both pursuits. And the so-called cultural subjects are by no means excluded from the advantages of this combination.

c. *Provision for irregular students*—The colleges and universities in general set forth certain academic prerequisites for entrance to their privileges, *e. g.*, graduation from a high school. But there is need of some provision for satisfying the intellectual aspirations of those mature persons who are deficient in previous educational preparation. They have the brains, and in addition seriousness of purpose developed by maturity and experience. Again there are persons of adequate mental ability who wish to study under competent guidance subjects in which they are particularly interested without being forced to embrace an entire curriculum. These people obtain under the system of university extension the privilege of taking, if they choose, one course or subject at a time. The opportunity for study and instruction is made flexible, to the end that the work may be done at such times, such rates, and under such conditions as may be

necessary or most convenient for the given student. Such a system also to the impecunious college student who must drop out from time to time to recoup his financial resources. During his absence on gainful occupation he may, through evening classes or correspondence instruction, keep up some of his academic courses.

d. *Stimulation for continuing education*—The central gospel of university extension is conveyed in the doctrine that education, and particularly higher education, should be a continuing process functioning throughout life. Hence, the individual, whatever his age or social status, should always be engaged in some form of organized study. To furnish adequate and generous opportunity for this constant individual development is the high duty and privilege of the university. Thereby will come to many whose formal schooling is over, richness of life and enlargement of the intellectual and spiritual resources. This task of the university carries with it the duty of disseminating as widely as possible the accepted and verified results of the investigations of scholars and discoveries, and of inculcating among nonacademic people habits of thinking based on facts and verifiable data. As a means to this end, there must be made available to the general public in popular and non-technical language and with suitable interpretation the latest authoritative findings of scientists, economists, sociologists, psychologists, philosophers, and critics of contemporary life. This should eventually result among people generally in a more intelligent and discriminating attitude toward the tenets, findings, principles, or standards of present-day science, art, literature, history, and philosophy. Nor should the fact be overlooked that by this function of university extension social values are conserved through the facilities afforded individuals to specialize in some single phase of intellectual life or in one of its cultural aspects, *e. g.*, drama, literature, philosophy, science, whether for diversion, as an avocation, or merely for mental relaxation and enjoyment.

e. *Extension of university leadership*—It goes without saying that university extension is vested *ex officio* with a mission to furnish authoritative leadership in helping to set the pace and to determine the trends and content of popular, extramural, adult education. But its province and function extend more widely than that. It has also the high privilege and opportunity of discovering, fostering, and stimulating among non-university people latent capacities, powers, skills, or aptitudes, through the development of which these individuals may rise to their optimum levels.

Entrance requirements for extension work—It is clear that university extension appeals to two classes of people: those who, in an irregular way and at a slow pace, are accumulating credits and satisfying requirements looking toward the attainment of one of the university degrees; and those who are satisfied to seek merely the content value of the instruction, whether for vocational or cultural ends. To the former group the regular college entrance requirements are applicable and valid. The second class, however, deserve and receive more liberal treatment in this respect. It is customary to require of these students only a certain maturity, a definite purpose, ambition, and the mental ability to do the work. The latter is demonstrated by doing it. Only those individuals who are actuated by strong motivation and who are conscious of the possession of adequate intellectual powers will undergo for any length of time the selfimposed but arduous discipline involved in earning a living while at the same time pursuing university studies. An inexorable natural selection weeds out the incompetent, the slothful, and the faint-hearted.

University extension as an organized system has come to function usually in three ways: through formal instruction, informal instruction, service enterprises.

I. Formal Instruction

University extension classes—Extension classes are organized and offered to extramural students for the purpose of bringing to them at convenient hours and places the equivalent of the courses found in the several university curricula. These classes appeal to business men and women, teachers, clubwomen, housewives, mechanics and artisans, college graduates desiring to continue their studies, college students endeavoring to make up deficiencies, and all others who are interested in vocational efficiency or cultural development. The extension class system, for obvious reasons, is most successful in universities located in large population centers.

Correspondence instruction—Formally organized teaching by correspondence or instruction by mail was first exploited by commercial institutions on a large scale. During the past 30 years one such privately-owned school has enrolled nearly 3,000,000 students. During one year it sent out more than one million lesson assignments. Later this form of teaching was incorporated in the extension programs of the universities. In spite of much initial skepticism about the value of correspondence courses, this form of educational activity has grown steadily in public favor, and when administered with proper regard for standards of instruction has commended itself to well-informed educators through the country. Especially is this true in the middle west and the far west. It is one notable means for democratizing higher education.

Short courses—In the effort to adapt the educational program of the universities to the varying needs of the population through the medium of university extension, it has been found that there is a demand on the part of special groups for courses given in shorter and more circumscribed units than the normal semester courses. The demand is for highly intensive treatment of a narrowly limited field. This is accomplished by bringing the group together for a period varying from two days to two weeks, during which time the whole day and occasionally the evening is devoted to lectures, demonstrations, clinical work, and laboratory experiments covering the desired subject. Highly qualified persons, expert in their several lines, are employed as the lecturers. The content value of the material is emphasized and credits are in no wise involved. These brief, intensive drives upon a special field of knowledge are called short courses or institutes, and they are coming to occupy a larger and larger place in the program of extension activities. Their chief characteristics are brevity, intensity, and concentration upon a narrowly limited field of subjectmatter.

The purpose of these short courses may be briefly summarized as the effort to bring and keep knowledge uptodate. The advancement of science,

both pure and applied, is very rapid. New discoveries and inventions are being announced from day to day, new technics are being developed, new theories promulgated, new methods, devices, and forms of organization put in practice, new sources of information made available, new systems of economy and efficiency devised. A professional man who has been out of school ten years begins to fall behind the times unless he uses every means for keeping uptodate. Through the short course the practical man keeps in touch with the theorist.

II. Informal Instruction

Space and time forbid a detailed discussion of the manner in which university extension operates through informal instruction. Suffice it to say that the work is done through (1) extension lectures; (2) the university lyceum; (3) the university radio; and (4) the promulgation and supervision of selected reading lists and study club program outlines.

III. Service Enterprises

In addition to the formal and informal instructional or teaching functions of university extension, we find also a group of activities which may be called informational or service functions. Here again space and time forbid more than a mere enumeration of these activities.

We may say in general that these service functions are performed through: (1) the municipal reference bureau; (2) the bureau of visual instruction; (3) the drama service; (4) the community welfare service; (5) the package library service; (6) promotion of state-wide contests among schools; and (7) miscellaneous activities, such as the publication and dissemination of bulletins and monographs on subjects of public interest, promotion of ready contact between the public and university facilities of expert information and service, and cooperation with other organizations for the promotion of adult education.

The movement for adult education is aimed at all sorts and conditions of people, and it must take them as it finds them. In our heterogeneous population there are folks with mediocre minds and folks with fine minds, men and women with good intellectual foundations and backgrounds and others lacking these advantages, people with an environment of culture and refinement and people existing in intimate contact with the raw and the crude, individuals striving for vocation advancement and those seeking enrichment of life. The program designed to satisfy these different tastes must be rich, varied, and flexible. Obviously this cannot be accomplished by one form of organization or by one mode of approach. There must be versatility in content, in method, in agencies, and in educational levels.

In closing I must briefly sound one warning. There is clearly discernible a tendency to overdo the strictly vocational element in adult education. We are concerned with the loaves and fishes, to the exclusion

of weightier matters of human life and destiny. "Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers." It is a truism to observe that every man has two things to do in life: To make a living, and to live a life. We are at present so engrossed in the former that we tend to neglect the latter; and this same trend shows clearly in the current movement for adult education. What we need, without excluding vocational training, is to guide our students also to choose those subjects that lead them out into a larger and more abundant life. In this way we shall contribute to that ideal of the purpose of the adult education movement so eloquently set forth by Alfred Zimmern:

To dispel the melancholy belief that grown men and women have nothing left to learn, and to diffuse throughout all countries, and in every section of society, the sense of wonder and curiosity and the gift of mutual sympathy and companionship which add so much to the meaning of life.

THE PLACE OF THE LIBRARY IN A COORDINATED PROGRAM OF ADULT EDUCATION

M. S. DUDGEON, LIBRARIAN, MILWAUKEE PUBLIC LIBRARY, MILWAUKEE,
WISCONSIN

"The date of this meeting is suggestive that democracy is deeply concerned with adult education. As Newton D. Baker says, "Unless we want to be governed by the uneducated, we must educate our governors." Dr. Alexander Meiklejohn also voices the incontrovertible principle that reading is necessarily an important part in the education of the voter when he says, "I do not believe that any society can be a democracy in any considerable measure at all except as it develops reading."

A library program on adult education—The American library profession has taken a position which I can officially announce to you: The libraries of the entire country have adopted a definite policy and program of cooperation with other adult education agencies.

1. The first step in this program is to build up at every library a well-equipped bureau of information on adult education that will enable the library to become the adviser of every adult in the community who wishes to know when and how and under what circumstances he can take instruction from one of the various adult education agencies.

2. The second step in the library program is to furnish the best possible service to the other adult education agencies—by depositing books in the quarters where instruction is given, by reserving books for use of the adult education students, and otherwise—in short, to make the public library the school library and the college library of every other adult education agency in the community. When there is no local library or when the local library is inadequate, state libraries and state library commissions are pledged to place their resources at the disposal of the adult students throughout each state.

3. "The third step in the library program is to provide a "Reader's Advisor." The function of this advisor is to meet in a confidential interview every serious-minded reader and to write out a special course suited to his individual needs and to supply him promptly with each book as he needs it, reminding the delinquent reader that his next book is ready. In short, the reader's advisor is to diagnose the potential reader mentally and then to write a purely personal prescription for his mental needs—filling this prescription by seeing that the books are delivered promptly to him.

This library program is not merely a theoretical program—it is being followed in its entirety in some libraries, and parts of it are in actual operation in nearly every library of any size.

No duplication—The libraries, however, do not plan to duplicate the service of or to supplant in any way other adult education agencies. They have not the remotest thought of changing libraries into schoolhouses or of transforming librarians into formal teachers. Their duty lies solely with the printed page. It is their ambition that every adult education student consider and use the public library or the state library as his school library.

THE PLACE OF PUBLIC SCHOOL EXTENSION IN A PROGRAM OF ADULT EDUCATION

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I assume that I have the right to change the topic which has been assigned for my discussion. I do not like the term "Public School Extension" and would prefer to call it "Public School Improvement."

As a public school administrator and the head of a large city school system I am looking forward to the time when adult education will be an important part of the public school system. The aim of public school education in the United States has been constantly changing during the last hundred years but until the present our objectives have been stated invariably in terms of the improvement of children and the educational opportunities for youth below the age of eighteen. The scope of free public education has been slowly but steadily increasing during this period. Permissive elementary schools back in the colonial days were followed by compulsory elementary schools designed to give to all the children of all the people an education in the three R's. After a long and bitter fight secondary schools were added and in comparatively recent years vocational schools offering instruction in the useful trades. This development has resulted in a steady rise in the age at which children are allowed to leave school. There has been a corresponding increase in the grade attainments required. In Bridgeport at the present time no child may leave school until he has completed the work of the seventh grade regardless of his age.

Compulsory evening school instruction is a part of the school attendance law in some states for those who are legally employed.

Although public evening schools are not a new development and in most of our larger cities some attention is given to the Americanization of the foreign group, there has been a general acceptance of the idea that when an individual accepted employment and became a wage-earner the responsibility of the community ceased so far as formal education was concerned.

In most cities there has been an insistent demand during the past few years to reduce school expenses or at least to curb the mounting costs. This constantly increasing expense has been brought about by many factors—more beautiful school buildings, elaborate systems of ventilation, safety regulations and fireproofing, special rooms made necessary by our expanding elementary school curriculum. The modern school should have a gymnasium, an auditorium, science rooms, shops, a more elaborate equipment of books and supplies, special equipment for the special subjects—art materials, victrolas, pianos, and radios. This increase in educational opportunities has tended to keep children in school for a longer time. It has been necessary to increase the salary of teachers and to provide more and better supervision. All these elements have combined to cause a large increase in school expenditures. It is inevitable that the demand for economy should come and when it does come the savings are usually brought about by cutting the expense of evening schools, vacation schools or other extensions of the traditional school system. In many cities tuition fees have been established for evening school in the attempt to make schools for adults selfsustaining.

There is a wide variation between cities in the percent of the total population enroled in evening schools but in most communities the enrolment changes very little from year to year. This enrolment depends not only upon the size of the city and the number of children retained in day school, but also upon the amount of interest which school officials are willing to take in the evening school.

Those cities which have succeeded in enrolling large numbers in the evening schools have usually done so on account of the methods which they use in informing the public about evening school opportunities. A continuous campaign of publicity is necessary if there is to be growth in the demand for more educational opportunities. In most cities the evening school term lasts from October until April and is preceded by a campaign of advertising. Advertisements are placed in the newspapers and placards are distributed in the store windows telling the story of the opportunities offered in the evening school. In most cities it is possible to get the co-operation of the foreign language papers so that everybody may know of this educational offering. Children in the grade schools are used to take home leaflets informing parents or older brothers and sisters what the schools offer them.

The handicaps which evening schools are laboring under at the present time are many. The teaching corps is usually made up of day school teachers who are teaching in the evening because they wish to supplement their income since they find it difficult to live upon the salary which they receive for their day school work. They are tired and have neither the energy nor the time to carefully prepare their lessons for the evening. In spite of these handicaps it is probably true that in most cities the day school teaching corps is the best source from which to recruit the evening school staff.

Teaching methods are inefficient because very little effort has been made to adapt day school methods to the widely different teaching conditions which exist in evening schools. Some progress has been made by the authors of textbooks and by progressive supervisors in the large cities in building a technic for evening school and adult instruction. In some states groups of teachers are being trained as specialists in adult education work and in a few cities teachers are appointed who perform no work in day school but spend part of their time in recruiting classes or in teaching home classes for foreign women. This movement is a very hopeful sign for the future of adult education.

It is very difficult for night school pupils to find time for home study, which makes it necessary to use the limited time in evening school for study as well as recitation. The pupil has done a day's work already, is usually tired and not physically capable of a great amount of study outside of the regular evening school period. The physical and mental well being of every individual demands some time for recreation each week.

There is no time in the evening school for proper pupil guidance. The large number in attendance, the shortness of the class period and the abbreviated school term all militate against this important part of the program. This need may be the means of justifying the appointment of more teachers who shall spend their whole time in adult education, teaching in the evening schools and helping in the guidance problems of adults who attend those schools.

On account of the inability of public school systems to furnish adequate programs of educational opportunity for evening schools there is a tendency for other organizations, the Y. M. C. A., engineering societies, and other organizations to establish schools either along vocational or cultural lines. The work which is being done in many of these schools is excellent and they are reaching many individuals. The difficulty is a lack of uniformity in the standards by which the work may be evaluated and the tendency to give pupils instruction not in what they most need but in what the organization desires them to have or in subjects which are more easily taught on account of a better supply of teachers or a more limited equipment.

It is time to state the purpose of education in America in such a way as to include everybody who is able and willing to avail himself of the

opportunity for education. Today we are asking that free educational opportunity be continuous from the kindergarten through the university and that it be universal. Education is not something that happens to a person while he is young—it is a continuous process.

It is a good symptom for America that our grownup men and women are beginning to look at themselves critically and express their willingness to be educated. Of course this objective for American education is idealistic but it is nearer consummation than many of us realize. The open forum, the noon-day luncheon club, the various national associations, fraternities, museums, libraries and labor unions are already offering a rich educational opportunity for those who will seek it.

The great problem before us today is the problem of articulation, of welding all of these forces and institutions into a great working educational unit. The National Education Association is facing this problem. It is peculiarly fitting that our great educational association bend its energies toward the solution of this problem since the resources at the disposal of any one school system are inadequate for the complete solution of so large a problem. It extends beyond the local community and must be solved by the work of many school systems cooperating, and the national committees made up of administrators and specialists from many different fields.

The Commission on the Articulation of the Units of American Education is studying this problem. One of the subcommittees of that Commission deals with adult education. We have the cooperation and active assistance of the Research Division of the National Education Association. From the standpoint of adult education we are hoping that the next year-book of the Department of Superintendence will have as a result of the work of our Commission a restatement of the philosophy and purposes of adult education and its relation to the institutions which have been set up for the education of children.

But what of the future of the public school system in relation to this very important phase of our work? We must proceed along the following lines: The efficiency of our evening schools must be increased. There must be an improvement qualitatively as well as quantitatively. The decreasing hours of labor and the higher wages which most of our people are enjoying gives us the opportunity and at the same time increases the need for these improvements. This will be brought about by more money for adult education which will only come with more support from the people who are being benefited.

The question is sometimes asked, "When shall we stop spending public money for new features in education?" and the answer is this—"We should spend public money for any phase of education or social welfare or government when the work can be done better and more economically under public auspices."

There must be a closer cooperation of all the agencies in the community which are either actually or potentially educational institutions. The public library, the art museum, the parent-teacher associations, the noon-day luncheon clubs, the civic improvement associations—all of these organizations have a contribution to make to this great problem. We hope that the time will come when a civic improvement association will be willing to widen its horizon so that it is not only interested in an addition to the local schoolhouse or a newly paved street, but also in the individual improvement of its members through the discussion of vital questions under the guidance of a teacher.

The obstacles which exist at the present time in the use of the school plant and equipment in the evening and during vacation periods, should be removed. This is very largely a financial problem and it dependent upon an increase in popular interest and popular support for adult education.

We should take measures to close the gap between the education of adolescence and the education of adults. There should be no time when the young adult is not faced with opportunities for improving himself and records should be adequate to tell us where he is, what he is doing, and what are his plans for the future.

The function of the public school system is to make educational opportunity universal and to build a new technic and method which shall be free from the shackles of tradition.

THE NEED AND PLACE OF AN OFFICIAL ORGAN

W. C. SMITH, CHAIRMAN EDITORIAL BOARD, INTERSTATE BULLETIN,
ALBANY, N. Y.

During and immediately following the World War approximately six thousand teachers in the field of citizenship training in the evening schools alone, to say nothing of the number engaged in allied subjects, were without voice, except locally, as their programs could be put in the daily press, already crowded with organized propaganda.

There was no central medium by which either the workers themselves could express their aims, or the public could get first hand information of the work which was being done.

Misinformation, misunderstanding, misinterpretation of the aims and objectives of adult education in its elementary phases and larger implications were prevalent. Magazines and weeklies, eager to hit upon the unusual, radical views gave free access in their columns to criticisms of programs looking to adjustment and assimilation.

Gradually it became evident that teachers and the movement for closer correlation of evening school activities with other forces in the adult education program needed an organ. A small group sponsored the formation of the *Interstate Bulletin* early in 1926, and it began in a small way to bring together some developments in the field. Not confining itself to technical matters, but seeking to point out outstanding experiments it has

made steady progress both in the field of helpful contributions in classroom practice and also in the larger social aspects in the related fields of adult education.

It seeks now to bring to the attention of workers in the separate fields such as evening schools, day classes, libraries, Parent-Teachers' Associations, and the work of the other groups in whatever field they are working. That there is great need of this is apparent to many, when there is an effort to find out what is being done, and one is confronted with the dearth of articles or material.

In addition to the need of such an organ as the *Adult Education—Interstate Bulletin* the official organ of the Department of Adult Education of the N. E. A., in the spread of general information, the following outstanding needs among the workers themselves will at once commend themselves:

To raise standards of teaching.

To maintain a professional status.

To secure the recognition in the general field to which the special field is entitled.

To point the way to better things.

To have a worthy part in the strength and direction of one of the great educational movements of the day.

To be able to use the power inherent in cooperation, in constructive work.

To become articulate.

To know what is going on among others in your own field.

To have a sense of belonging—with all that it implies.

To help the thing "go on."

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Minneapolis Meeting

First session—In the Citizens Aid Building, Minneapolis, Minnesota, the first session of the 1928 meeting of the Adult Education Department of the National Education Association was called to order at 2 o'clock on Monday afternoon, July 2, 1928, by President A. W. Castle. The song, "America the Beautiful," was sung by all after which President Castle, in his opening remarks, commented upon the need of carrying out suggested recommendations that have come and that would come from the committees of this Department.

After several announcements the program for the afternoon was followed.

At a point about midway in the scheduled program a group of nine boys, called the "Bryant High School Troubadours," came in and sang a group of songs.

The chairman appointed the following committees:

A. On nominations—L. R. Alderman, Washington, D. C., Chairman; Nina B. Beglinger, Detroit, Mich.; Marguerite Burnett, Williamsport, Del.; Robert T. Hill, New York City; Maud Aiton, Washington, D. C.; Theodore Utne, St. Paul, Minn.

B. On resolutions—W. C. Smith, Albany, N. Y., Chairman; E. F. Fowler, Washington, D. C.; S. R. Elson, Omaha, Nebr.; L. L. Dickerson, Chicago, Ill.; Albert Fertsch, Gary, Ind.; Kathryn Ray, Los Angeles, Calif.

On motion it was decided to postpone the scheduled business meeting to a later time.

The President declared the meeting adjourned. About 100 were present.

Second session—The second session was a dinner meeting beginning at 6 o'clock on the afternoon of July 2, 1928, in the Citizens Aid Building. About 125 sat down to dinner, although for the program following the dinner approximately 300 were present. Miss Katherine Kohler, director of extension and summer schools in the Minneapolis public schools, was chairman of the local committee and under her direction the local committee had prepared not only an excellent menu but delightful entertainment throughout the dinner. Superintendent C. R. Reed of Bridgeport, Connecticut, functioned as toastmaster during the series of speeches that followed the meal. The first of the many who made apt remarks was the honored guest of the evening, Miss Cornelia Adair, President of the N. E. A., who gave us an informal but delightful explanation of goodwill and interest from the N. E. A.

Following the speeches, a dramatic sketch was furnished by amateurs secured by Miss Kohler portraying typical episodes in the progress of an immigrant from the point of preparing to leave his own country to the full assumption of citizenship in the United States.

Third session—Following the dinner program, President Castle called the meeting to order at the tables and the program as printed was followed, after which the President declared the meeting adjourned.

Fourth session—The fourth session was called to order by President Castle in the Citizens Aid Building at 2 o'clock Tuesday afternoon, July 3, 1928, with approximately seventy-five in attendance. More came in as the program developed.

Resuming the program as printed for the third session, a brief period of time was given to discussion of Miss Aiton's paper of the previous evening after which the program as printed for the fourth session was taken up.

United States Commissioner of Education, John J. Tigert, brought an interesting message as his part of the program but spoke extemporaneously.

Practically all papers were delivered from manuscript and may, therefore, be read and studied in the volume of *Proceedings of the N. E. A.*, and in the issue of the *Interstate Bulletin* devoted to that object.

In the business session that followed, a letter from Mr. Robert C. Deming, former president of this Department, was read by the Secretary and, on motion, ordered to be filed.

A report of progress for the committee on coordination was given by its chairman, Robert T. Hill, and it was moved and carried that the report be accepted and the committee continued. The personnel of this committee is as follows:

ROBERT T. HILL, New York City,
Chairman

L. R. ALDERMAN, Washington, D. C.

A. W. CASTLE, Harrisburg, Pa.

ROBERT C. DEMING, Hartford, Conn.,

WILLIE LAWSON, Arkansas.

C. S. MARSH, Buffalo, N. Y.

ETHEL RICHARDSON ALLEN, Los Angeles, Calif.

For the committee on literacy tests a report of progress was made, and on motion it was ordered that the report be accepted and the committee continued. The personnel of his committee is as follows:

ROBERT C. DEMING, Hartford, Conn.,
Chairman

WIL LOU GRAY, Columbia, S. C.

W. C. SMITH, Albany, N. Y.

FRANCIS G. BLAIR, Springfield, Ill.

A. W. CASTLE, Harrisburg, Pa.

CHARLES HERLIHY, Boston, Mass.

L. R. ALDERMAN, Washington, D. C.

A. E. REJALL, New York City

For the committee on naturalization procedure, the program report was given and on motion the report was accepted and the committee continued. The personnel of this committee is as follows:

MARGUERITE BURNETT, Wilmington,
Del.
CHARLES RAYMOND MOLLEY

J. J. MAHONEY, Boston, Mass.
CHARLES FINCH, Rochester, Minn.
HOWARD BRADSTREET, Hartford, Conn.

On motion it was ordered that reports not present at the time of the meeting be published in the bulletin.

Before the formal report of the committee on resolutions the chairman requested the Secretary to read the following resolution which had been handed to him:

WHEREAS, all national educational movements acquire their momentum and development from the unselfish devotion and sacrifice of a few individuals, and

WHEREAS, such devotion to an ideal is too often deeply felt but unexpressed, now therefore

Be It Resolved, that on this day, July 3, 1928, the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association extend to William Chandler Smith, Chief of the Bureau of Immigrant Education of the New York State Department of Education, father of the Department of Adult Education and founder of its *Interstate Bulletin*, this tribute of appreciation in grateful recognition of his long and steadfast devotion to the cause of Adult Education which has made this Department and its official organization possible.

This resolution was adopted by standing vote and on motion the Secretary was requested to send copies to W. C. Smith, and to Frank P. Graves, Commissioner of Education for the State of New York, and to others concerned.

The committee on resolutions offered a report which provoked some discussion; it was ordered on motion that the report be referred back to the committee with power, in order that the consensus of opinion as brought out by the discussion might be incorporated in the final draft of the resolutions. After finally revised by the committee, the resolutions follow:

I. WHEREAS, the recent widespread interest in Adult Education has enlisted the active support of many individuals and agencies interested in the extension and improvement of educational facilities for adults, and

II. WHEREAS, this interest has resulted in important and effective service by heretofore largely unrelated agencies, and

III. WHEREAS, this interest may be made to function most effectively in professional service through better coordinated and articulated programs for the extension and improvement of educational opportunities entailing the mutual support and interest of such individuals and groups, and

IV. WHEREAS, this improvement and articulation can best be secured by an agency for the study and solution of problems (and the articulation of programs) of adult education. Now, therefore, be it

Resolved, that the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association shall function as an agency for the coordination of means and the study and solution of problems in the field of adult education.

V. WHEREAS, the attention of the public has long been focused upon the need for a reduction of illiteracy; experience has disclosed the difficulties of this task and the necessity of specially trained teachers; that classes for adults are the only means through which an opportunity for formal schooling can be made available for a large proportion of our adult population who need elementary and secondary education, therefore be it further

Resolved, that we reaffirm our belief in a carefully planned and sustained program and pledge our united interest and accumulated knowledge, obtained

through experience and extensive research in the field of foreign and native-born illiteracy, to achieve our objective—a literate citizenry.

VI. WHEREAS, those responsible must know who the illiterates are and where they live, therefore be it further

Resolved, that the Department of Adult Education of the National Education Association respectfully request and urge the apportionment of funds to the Bureau of Education in cooperation with the Bureau of the Census, in order to tabulate and forward promptly, as soon as available from the Census of 1930 to the state departments of education for distribution to public school officials, the names and addresses of such illiterates.

VII. *Resolved*, that we express our confidence in the soundness of the provisions of the revised by-laws whereby the scope of interest of the Department is extended to include the full range of training of adults and wherein membership privileges are opened to those in elementary, secondary and higher institutions, as well as to those working for and with adults in libraries, museums, community organizations and other similar nonprofit agencies offering instruction or training to adults.

VIII. *Resolved further*, that we reiterate our hope that wherever and whenever possible, the several agencies working for adults in a community, come quickly to a common understanding of each other's aims and functions in order that a cohesive and comprehensive program of training for adults may be made available.

IX. *Resolved*, that the Department is under deep obligation to the local committee of arrangements under the able leadership of Miss Katharine M. Kohler for the manner of planning and handling our meeting, its appointments well conceived and adequately carried out—for the conduct of the annual dinner and its colorful program—the groups who served as members of the demonstration—the Bryant Junior Troubadours for their fine spirit in melody—the Schiller orchestra for their evening musical program, and be it further

Resolved, that we commend the public spirit of the trustees of the Citizens Aid Building and its manager, Mr. Reichmuth, for their splendid cooperation in the housing arrangements and many other courtesies.

It was moved and carried that copies of these resolutions be sent to persons concerned and to their superiors.

The committee on nominations reports its recommendation that the incumbents of the offices of President, Vicepresident, and Secretary be continued as such for another year. The report of the committee was adopted by vote and the Secretary was instructed to cast a ballot for A. W. Castle as President, Ethel Richardson Allen as Vicepresident, and C. S. Marsh as Secretary. The President declared these officers elected.

It was moved and carried that the meeting adjourn until 10 o'clock Wednesday morning, July 4, in view of the fact that the proposed provisions of the bylaws had not yet been considered.

Business session—President Castle called the business meeting to order at 10 o'clock Wednesday morning, July 4, in the lobby of the Hotel Curtis. We began at once a consideration of the bylaws, article by article. The group worked all morning, adjourning for a brief time at noon, and continued its deliberations until nearly 6 o'clock in the evening. Many suggestions were made. Many revisions were adopted by vote.

The bylaws as finally revised and adopted will be printed in the 1929 *Proceedings*.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, Paul A. Carlson, Head of Accounting Department, State Teachers College, Whitewater, Wis.; *Vicepresident*, Frances M. Butts, Director of Placement, Business High School, Washington, D. C.; *Secretary*, A. B. Opfer, Head of Commercial Department, West High School, Minneapolis, Minn. This Department meets once each year in July. 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	1927:335-352
1899:998-1031	1907:877-905	1914:649-663	1921:369-377	

THE CHANGING REQUIREMENTS OF EDUCATION FOR BUSINESS

JOHN J. TIGERT, UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

COMING to you not as an expert in your field, but with a general interest in commercial education and other phases of the educational program, I want to raise some questions with you. I do not propose solutions for these questions. From my general observations, however, I believe some of these questions have not been satisfactorily and permanently answered. The rapidity with which changes are taking place in the field of office and store positions requires great flexibility in the adjustment of the commercial curriculum.

It is my observation that commercial teachers have been concerned chiefly in the past few years with preparation of specific groups of pupils for gainful employment immediately upon their leaving school. This is a worthy objective, and I appreciate the fact that it is only one of your objectives. You have made much progress in the development of your courses accordingly. Pupils, parents and business men seem more satisfied each year with your achievements. In this accomplishment you are to be commended and congratulated. However, I am confident you are not making changes in your curriculum as rapidly as changes are taking place in the occupational world into which you are sending your graduates and drop outs. In addition to this larger question of vocational adjustment which I shall discuss today, I want to call your attention to the growing complexity of our modern economic and business life. I shall pause merely to ask you what is commercial education contributing to the noncommercial groups which as consumers of the products and services in business, need to know and appreciate values, business products and business services. What can the leaders of commercial education do, perhaps in cooperation with the leaders of the social sciences, in response to those marginal responsibilities between the social sciences and commercial education as regards preparation of all secondary pupils for greater efficiency in their everyday economic and business lives?

Looking at the problem of vocational adjustment over a period of years, I can see that a number of changes have taken place and it is very probable that many additional changes are being made. As a general observation, some of the steps in the evolutionary process of business occupations began earlier and have been more rapid in the larger companies than in the smaller ones. They have frequently represented experimental efforts toward obtaining greater efficiency in office and store positions. As closer analyses of the personnel problems have been made, considerable effort has been expended toward effecting desirable changes. Are you studying the changes? Are you making adjustments in your courses which will be necessary for the adjustment of your graduates to their opportunities and requirements in business?

One of the changes to which I refer is the breaking up of the former office and store positions into a large number of more highly specialized jobs. It is one means of obtaining greater production in the offices. Each worker performs a smaller number of duties and is performing each task more frequently, thus developing greater skill and turning out more work.

Example—The position of bookkeeper of only a few years ago had been broken into a number of related and subsidiary jobs such as junior clerk, ledger clerk, and head bookkeeper. In addition to this division of labor, the business firms frequently call in auditors, public accountants, certified public accountants and efficiency engineers to examine, criticize, and reorganize the work of the bookkeeping department.

With the development of the larger stores, there has been a comparable specialization in sales work. There is the specialization, not only in selling particular kinds of merchandise, but in the various steps of merchandising; such as are indicated by the positions of the buyer, window trimmer, advertiser, salesman, floor-walker, etc.

There is a tendency toward standardization of the office and store positions.

Example—The trend toward standardized payroll titles and the grading of employees, for instance, into first, second, and third-class stenographers, as is done in some of the larger companies and in the Civil Service, are phases of the standardization of such positions. This standardization has its advantages for both employer and employee. Objective measures of the achievement of the worker for grading and classification purposes settle many personnel problems for the employer. The employee on the other hand knows definitely what standards he must meet for each of the higher levels of occupations.

There is a tendency toward requiring specialized preparation for each of the new office and store positions. The requirements for both entrance and retention are more definite.

Example—It is a matter of common information that business men are asking for workers who are specially prepared to perform the duties of particular positions as they become vacant. The help-wanted ads are classified according to particular kinds of help wanted. The calls from business men to employment bureaus are requesting people who have specific kinds of training. The efficiency of the various departments in business enterprises demands high degree of skill of the workers. Various business tests are utilized particularly in the civil service and larger companies and by employment agencies to measure objectively quality and quantity of skills and information. The pressure of work is such that the offices and stores cannot offer all the training necessary for filling the variety of positions in these establishments. The old apprenticeship system, for instance, where bookkeepers in the office would teach bookkeeping to other members of the office force, has passed.

There is a trend toward substituting workers with technical training for those without such training. This is a problem of economy—to a certain extent a survival of the fittest and has become most noticeable in the office and store occupations within the present generation.

Example—Comparatively few of the older generations had the opportunity to obtain in school high degrees of skill and specialized information necessary for the specialized positions in business. Many of them, however, have been able

to learn on the job, in evening schools, and home reading. The sociologist and the professional social workers are endeavoring to meet the problems of those who fail to make satisfactory adjustments to changing conditions. Inasmuch as the schools today are turning out younger and skilled workers who frequently can do the job better, the skilled worker is gradually replacing the unskilled. The workers are in competition with one another for business positions and they consume these business positions in the order of greatest satisfaction to themselves. On the other hand, the business man by necessity must employ workers according to the economic laws of consumption whereby he obtains the maximum service for salaries.

There is less opportunity for the worker on a particular office job to study the duties and requirements for higher positions.

Example—Each worker spends the entire day at specialized tasks and does not have an opportunity to learn a sufficient amount of information and to acquire those skills necessary for him to qualify for other jobs. Furthermore, those in the higher positions are too busy to explain the duties they perform. A clerk, for instance, in a purchasing department who is handling purchase orders, cannot study the values of materials purchased to the extent that he could qualify for the position of purchasing agent. The journal clerk in the bookkeeping department making entries into the journal cannot, as the result of such daily tasks, qualify for the position of certified public accountant.

In the breaking up of the office and store positions into a larger number of positions, perhaps the most significant factor has been the creation of occupational levels.

Example—Each of the new positions that have been created to replace the former bookkeeper, the former general sales person, etc., have distinct levels. The lower levels may be comparable to the position of messenger boy or the clerk who sorts office papers according to alphabet, number, or color. The intermediate levels frequently require considerable skill and technical knowledge, such as the positions of the stenographer, bookkeeper, and specialty sales person. The higher levels may approach the work of the executive and require independent judgment, supervision of the work of others, and professional bodies of knowledge and skill.

Among other changes a significant one pertains to the upgrading of certain business occupations. The upper levels of these occupations are rapidly becoming business professions.

Example—The upper levels in the various specialized fields require high degree of skills and very broad and technical training. The people who are going into these positions are to a very great extent college graduates and many have six and seven years of college training which combines courses in business with courses in engineering, agriculture, law, and other fields. The colleges have found: That the necessary preparation consists of a body of facts and principles that can be taught; that business is applying for the social good the findings of science; that business is using the scientific method; and that the various business groups have developed professional codes of ethics. A study of the college catalogs reveals the increasing conviction of the leaders in education for business that success in the business world demands that the leaders of business enterprises be in a position to supervise and direct professional workers, for instance, in both accounting and engineering, or other combinations of workers.

Legislation is tending also to create professions of the business occupations on the higher levels. For instance, public accountants are examined and certified by

state boards in every state. Nineteen states license real-estate brokers and real-estate salesmen. Large numbers of the universities have received the cooperation of business men's organizations in establishing definite curriculum for professional training in particular fields.

In view of the trend toward specialization in office and store positions, it behooves each of you to carefully study various phases of the movement and to adjust your curriculum accordingly. In order to preserve proper mobility in these vocations, you should distinguish between preparation for initial positions and preparation for promotional opportunities. The distinction between preparatory and extension education for business occupations has not received adequate consideration. Simply because you prepare a pupil to become a file clerk, a stenographer, or a bookkeeper, do you suppose that you have discharged your duty toward that citizen? Have you broadened your objectives to include preparation of the individual for promotional opportunities? Have you developed the necessary unit courses for preparatory and extension education in your evening schools?

The changes which have been and are taking place in the business occupations make it increasingly important that you give ample consideration, not only to the regular day school, but to the continuation schools and the evening schools. Increased competition among the workers, the changing and additional requirements for positions, the introduction of new methods and office equipment and the fact that people drop out of school at various ages necessitate the development of evening classes in order that education for business may be continuous—that those who wish to become more efficient in their given tasks, qualify for other kinds of office work, or prepare for higher tasks in a given occupation may do so.

It is a fact that the greatest use that is being made of the facilities in education for business is for the preparation of pupils and students for the initial positions—the stepping-stones of their life careers. The time is ripe when you must help the workers in business to utilize these facilities for promotional opportunities. It is an opportunity for you to add to the vocational happiness and efficiency of the workers—an opportunity to add to our national efficiency. Are you ready and willing to make education for business continuous?

CLOSER COORDINATION BETWEEN BUSINESS EDUCATION AND PLACEMENT

LLOYD L. JONES, ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER, BOARD OF EDUCATION,
CLEVELAND, OHIO

This paper attempts to discuss plans and ideas for closer cooperation between business education as operative in the public schools and the placing of commercially trained public school students in business offices.

Intelligent placement cannot be separated from vocational guidance. Intelligent vocational guidance must be based upon facts; and the fact foundation for guidance and placement is the data on which an adequate

commercial curriculum must be constructed. In other words, if placement of public school drop-outs and graduates is to function, then the person responsible for placement must know about the needs of the immediate business community and see to it that boys and girls are guided and trained for those needs.

It has become quite popular for the public secondary school to boast of having a placement department. But how does it function? Does the person responsible for placement really go out into the business community, get acquainted with the business men and employers, and bring back to his school the facts which will help build an adequate and functioning curriculum? Can the person responsible for placement make occupational studies and talk the language of business?

Ignorance of community life—Ignorance about community life and occupational facts is indefensible in this public school placement business. We all know that the secondary schools know considerable about the requirements of colleges and universities. High-school principals and school counselors are deluged with college catalogs and often called upon by college representatives. This is guidance—and very excellent guidance—for potential college students, but they comprise less than 25 percent of the secondary public school enrolment.

When we consider that 38 percent of all pupils in public secondary schools are pursuing commercial courses with the idea of entering business but that less than 25 percent ever graduate from high school, then we have a serious problem of guidance and placement for the 75 percent who leave high school and enter community business life. Placement seems to have concerned itself largely with high-school graduates. Placement is much more than answering a telephone call for a good, honest, reliable boy who will have to start at the bottom and work up. In this sort of request the employer is spending five cents for a telephone call and saving the price of a want ad in a newspaper. The sending of a boy in answer to this request does not require much placement skill or ingenuity.

In research and scientific investigation, modern business is already setting the pace for the public schools. We are aware that within the past fifty years there have been startling changes in the occupations of the people of the United States. We have changed from dominant agricultural activities and have become the greatest industrial and commercial nation of the world. We have heard a lot about the school modifying its curriculum to meet changing industrial and business conditions. But does the school—your school—have any machinery set up for informing itself of industrial and commercial opportunities in the community? Is it not the function of the school to gather unbiased occupational information? And right here is the chance for a great contribution by the school placement expert who is in a strategic position to gather information, organize it for the enrichment and adjustment of the curriculum, and for the placement and follow up of drop-outs and graduates.

A NATIONAL PROGRAM FOR CLOSER COOPERATION BETWEEN COMMERCIAL TEACHERS AND BUSINESS MEN

EDGAR F. FOWLER, IN CHARGE OF EDUCATION SERVICE, CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, WASHINGTON, D. C.

The key word in the subject assigned me is "cooperation." It is not a new word to us in America. In fact it has been used so often of late years that we are inclined to become a trifle bored if it occurs in a topic for discussion. We cannot, however, get away from it or its analogous expressions, for it is the gospel of American life today. The world's work is being done by group action. The individual who refuses to work with his group is now an outsider, and his tribe is becoming about as extinct as the dodo.

Releasing and guiding into useful channels latent human energy is a problem common both to business and to education. Both the business man and the educator are aware of the importance of this problem each in his own field, and each is working hard to improve conditions. Only recently, however, has there developed a desire, indeed a willingness, for cooperative effort as between the two groups.

The history, results, and an understanding of the new technic of cooperative effort in America are important if one is to have a true view of present conditions. For our purpose a few cases must suffice.

In the business and industrial field, whereas the first groups were formed for the purpose of forcing out hated rivals, certain benefits were found to accrue through shared experiences. Fifty years ago the first trade association was formed by 100 paper manufacturers meeting at Saratoga Springs, N. Y. Now there are upwards of 2000 trade associations in the United States.

Similarly, those engaged in marketing farm products originally fought for the existing market. Competition was another name for war. Of late years cooperative efforts have resulted in a larger market with larger profit for all. Just recently orange growers, one time rivals, cooperated in advertising the wonderful dietary benefits of eating more oranges. Thereupon the public bought more oranges, which benefited their health and the orange grower's purse.

Reduction of waste through standardization of products is the result of cooperation of business with the U. S. government. The plan now known as "simplified practice" was inaugurated by the Secretary of Commerce. Representatives of many industries met with the Secretary and his staff in Washington in 1921. Since then an immense variety of similar types of articles has been reduced more than 73 percent. For example: 210 different shapes of bottles were reduced to 20; 175 kinds of automobile wheels to 4; 66 kinds of paving brick to 7; 287 kinds of tires to 32; varieties of hotel chinaware from 700 kinds to 169; and files and rasps from 1351 varieties to 496. These, of course, are only a few examples of the results of cooperation. Many more could be given. The important point is that

these groups themselves, without pressure, and really of their volition, when a proper technic for cooperation was established, eliminated this waste which had resulted from useless competition.

Business is convinced that such cooperation is essential in our interdependent, complex, social and economic life and that it should be extended to include all groups with a common interest. . . . This enlightened attitude is not confined to business management. Mr. Green, President of the American Federation of Labor, has recently said: "American labor recognizes that the interest of management and workers, while not identical, are mutually interdependent and that standards of living can be permanently raised only by increasing the productivity of industry. . . . Real progress lies not in exploitation but in cooperation to find more efficient methods. Cooperation cannot proceed from one side only."

One of the fundamental principles of the moral code of present day business is "The foundation of business is confidence, which springs from integrity, fair dealing, efficient service, and mutual benefit."

To the pessimist who sees difficulties in every opportunity, catastrophe is certain. To the optimist who sees opportunities in every difficulty, education will win. I still have sublime faith in the ability of America's genius to meet this challenge. I am betting on the optimist.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUSINESS COURSES IN UNIVERSITIES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

R. A. STEVENSON, DEAN, SCHOOL OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION,
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

There has been a definite lack of coordination between the universities and secondary schools in the organization of courses in commerce and business administration. The work offered has been so different in character that there has been little chance for cooperation. In the high schools, emphasis has been placed upon a type of vocational training for a few specialized occupations, whereas the collegiate schools of business have aimed to give a broader training in management. Furthermore, practically all of the students taking commercial courses in the secondary schools in the past have gone directly into some form of clerical work. Very few have entered the universities for further training in business. Under these circumstances there were no common problems and slight occasion for the consideration of a joint curriculum.

This situation is changing in several respects. The high schools are enlarging their programs by introducing courses in other commercial fields than the traditional subjects of stenography, typewriting, and bookkeeping. A number of the newer subjects have been taken over bodily from the collegiate schools of business. This movement represents in part a broadening of the objectives of the high-school commercial course, and is partly a recognition of the necessity for finding new occupational outlets.

There are also more students entering the universities who have had courses in the commercial subjects. It is no longer possible for the faculties in schools of business administration to ignore the work which their students have had in certain subjects. Students who have taken high school courses in accounting, for example, are prepared to go on with the more advanced work in the university without taking the elementary courses. It has been necessary for students to go over much of the same ground in the first course in accounting as had been covered in their high-school courses. This is a needless duplication and a waste of the student's time.

The high-school commercial course is bound to become more of a preparatory school as the number of students completing that course decide to enter the university. We must recognize the fact that the average student will expect to find a logical development of subjectmatter from the beginning courses in commerce in the high school to the advanced courses in the university. It is impossible any longer to explain the lack of coordination on the basis of a difference in objectives. At least that group of students which plans to go on through a university course in business deserves some consideration. It may be that the high-school commercial departments will have to set forth two separate programs, one for the students who will go to college and another for those who will seek immediate employment. This is a question that will bear considerable study.

It is not the purpose in this paper to discuss all aspects of the high-school commercial curriculum. It is concerned only with the problems pertaining to a joint program for students who plan to go through both the high-school commercial course and the collegiate school of business. In considering this question, we may ignore the immediate utilitarian objectives of the traditional commercial course. In fact, it is unnecessary to consider high school graduation as a significant terminal. It is time to organize a curriculum which proceeds logically from the elementary school to the end of the professional business course. We will be concerned in this discussion only with some general considerations in establishing such a program.

An attempt was made a few years ago by the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business to establish a coordinated program. A survey of the social studies existing in general high-school courses was conducted for the association by a special commission in 1921. The report of this commission was published under the title "Social Studies in Secondary Schools" by the University of Chicago Press in 1922. This is probably the most complete study which has been made of the problem of establishing a well balanced program in the whole field of social science. The objectives of the courses proposed in each of the stages—elementary school, junior high school, senior high school, junior college, senior college, and professional school were stated and a program which would coordinate the work of these institutions was prepared. Not much in a tangible way has as yet emerged from that study. It contains a valuable body of materials and suggestions, however, that should be helpful in establishing a closer coordination between the schools offering work in commerce.

THE DISCOVERY AND MEASUREMENT OF THE FACTORS CONSTITUTING STENOGRAPHIC DIFFICULTIES

FRED TELFORD, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

Many teachers of commercial courses in which typing and stenography are included are keenly aware that in a disappointingly large number of cases the grades they give their students do not correspond closely with the estimates of stenographic success on the job which they later obtain. Most public and private personnel administrators, moreover, realize that the methods they use in selecting stenographers with and without experience are quite faulty. Some of those given a rating of excellent when interviewed or otherwise tested are reported by their employers to do poor work, while others rated as doubtful, or at best fair, in the interview or test apparently do satisfactory work on the job.

Such a state of affairs is of course highly unsatisfactory to both the teaching and the personnel groups. It is not easy to explain. The personal equation of the stenographer and the person for whom she works undoubtedly constitutes one factor. The standards as to attendance, output, accuracy, and the like which are observed in the office are another. One serious investigator actually thought he found that the men for whom stenographers work look with a considerable degree of leniency upon the faults of a good looking girl and are inclined to be pleased with her work even when it is slovenly, while the stenographer not blessed with so much beauty has to meet higher standards. There is good reason to believe, moreover, that good looks aid a stenographer very much in obtaining a job. For some time a number of those who have tried to analyze the situation have been of the opinion too that the discrepancy between estimates of school or testing success and estimates of success on the job may be due in large part to our inability to recognize what constitutes stenographic difficulty—that is, to perceive whether a given stenographic task is actually easy, difficult, or something in between.

A somewhat informal study conducted by the bureaus of public personnel administration shows that there is ground for the last mentioned belief. A number of letters believed to range from quite easy to very difficult were prepared and given to some 35 stenographers employed in several different offices in the public service, each believed to be well managed. Service or efficiency ratings for the same stenographers were obtained. A comparison showed that there was practically no relation between the rate or accuracy of transcription and the service ratings. In addition, for some fifty stenographers employed in seven different offices, believed to be well managed, some in the commercial world and some in the public service, data were obtained as to age, years in office work, and salary; for the same stenographers estimates of stenographic success were secured from supervising officers familiar with their work. These data were analyzed statistically with surprising results. There seemed to be little

relation between the age of a given stenographer and the estimate of her stenographic success, though as far as there was any effect the younger the stenographer the higher the estimate of success was likely to be. Likewise there was no marked relationship between the salary paid and the estimate of success, though the higher the salary the more likely the estimate of success was to be unfavorable. On the other hand, there was a high correlation between age and years in office work and also between age and salary. This means that in these seven offices there was a marked tendency to give to the stenographers a high salary as they became older without much regard to their estimated success in performing stenographic tasks. It seems difficult to accept the conclusion that in well managed offices the stenographer who is able and willing to remain on the job will, without much regard to her stenographic performance or the estimate in which her work is held, be able to get her salary increased rather consistently as she becomes older. Such, however, is undoubtedly the case in these seven offices.

As has been suggested, the explanation may be that neither the teacher of stenography, the personnel administrator, nor the employer can tell whether a given stenographic task is easy, medium, or difficult. It is a common experience in personnel work, for example, for an examiner to prepare two letters which he believes to be of exactly the same difficulty and to find, when they are both given to the same group, that one in fact is rather easy while the other for some reason that is not perceived is quite difficult.

RETAIL SELLING AS OFFERED IN THE LOS ANGELES HIGH SCHOOLS

MONETTE O. TODD, DIRECTOR OF RETAIL SELLING, LOS ANGELES PUBLIC
SCHOOLS, LOS ANGELES, CALIF.

The patch work quilt fascinates one. How beautiful it is; the individuality of the pattern, the unusual colors, the romance woven into it. Each piece carries with it a story: one of difficulties, another of happiness, maybe of misunderstanding or of success. Each piece incomplete in itself, apparently unrelated to the others, but, as visioned by the maker, a necessary bit, an integral part of the finished pattern.

We, in the salesmanship division of the Los Angeles city schools, often think that one visiting the classes in the different high schools may feel much the same way about the "pieces" that form our work. We, the makers, however, see the entire plan and how each fits into its place; we see that there is a common purpose, a unity. We hope that you too will see it. Why should there be an apparent lack of unity, of common purpose?

We, like you, believe that salesmanship must assist in the preparation of students to live and work with people. We believe that we are training individuals not writing courses. Our city is growing rapidly. Therefore we constantly have new community needs to consider, new difficulties to meet,

new adjustments to make. Each high school has its individual problems; the course must be adjusted to meet these. It may be a change in the course, or even in the subjectmatter in a particular class. This can be done easily for we teach by outlines which have been made for each course by the teachers in the division and the textbooks are considered supplementary to these.

There is a definite plan toward which we are working and as it can be developed in a school it is done.

The course may be divided into three parts:

1. That which is known to us as sophomore salesmanship—a one-semester course required of all commercial students in the second year.
2. The advanced or upper grade salesmanship, which emphasized the principles of selling. We accept junior and senior students who are interested in the subject as well as those who have selected it as a vocation.
3. Merchandise—which emphasizes the economics of production and distribution applied to mercantile concerns. This is given in three high schools in the senior year. Advanced salesmanship is a prerequisite.

These subjects are arranged into definite salesmanship courses to meet the requirements of the particular high schools.

WHAT I EXPECT OF A COMMERCIAL TEACHER

JOHN W. EDGEMOND, DIRECTOR OF COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS, OAKLAND
HIGH SCHOOLS, OAKLAND, CALIF.

Preliminary to my remarks on the subject assigned to me, may I call your attention briefly to the entrance and growth of commercial subjects in the public schools and particularly, the recent developments in California?

Commercial subjects first appeared in the public high schools about 1895. From the beginning, the growth in number of pupils enrolled in these subjects has been rapid. The report of the Commission of Education for 1922 states that approximately one-third of all the pupils enrolled in the public high schools were taking commercial subjects. In some states this percentage is much higher.

This enrolment created such a demand for teachers of commercial subjects that at the close of the great war there was a very great shortage of trained commercial teachers. This shortage was primarily due to the fact that the teacher training institutions had not taken over the responsibility for the training of commercial teachers. Private business colleges offered the only opportunity for the prospective teacher to receive training in commercial subjects.

As a result, most of the teachers of commercial subjects were looked upon as below cast by the academic teachers. The commercial department has been, too often, considered by the school administrators as a dumping ground for the pupils who were unable to make satisfactory progress in the college preparatory courses. The more intelligent pupils were discouraged from taking the commercial courses, as commercial education was looked

upon as being utility and therefore less desirable than the formal or so-called cultured phases of education.

This feeling towards the commercial teachers by the administrators and academic teachers was, in many cases, somewhat justified in that the commercial teacher too frequently was not trained in methods of teaching, knew nothing of psychology of learning, had no definite objective other than the teaching of subjectmatter, was not interested in research, and made no effort to develop a testing program either for diagnostic purposes or for the improvement of instruction. Neither was any effort made to determine whether or not the training offered was such as to prepare the graduates for the commercial positions open to them in the local community.

THE USE OF MEASUREMENTS IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN SHORTHAND

ETHEL A. ROLLINSON, INSTRUCTOR, SECRETARIAL DEPARTMENT COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

The type of stenographic work considered satisfactory or allowable in business a few years ago is absolutely unsatisfactory and not allowable today. Much greater efficiency is required and will be required in the future in terms of accuracy, speed, and thoroughness. Society always determines our education: the society of business determines our stenographic education. And to satisfy the increased demands of this society, there must be an equal and continuous improvement in our instruction. To bring about this improvement, we must retrospect a bit every little while. We must ask ourselves, "Does our training prepare a product that will fit into the business experiences of today and accommodate itself to new conditions?" Before I get myself in any deeper, let me say that in general I believe we, as stenographic teachers, can safely answer in the affirmative. We are as efficient as the man who applied for a job in a power plant. When asked what he could do, he said, "Almost anything needed, boss." Being a bit of a humorist, the boss replied, "Well, you seem all right. Can you wheel out a barrow of smoke?" "Sure," was the ready answer. "Fill up the barrow." My contention, however, is that of the old adage, "Everything can always be done better than it is being done." No matter how capable we are or how well we are doing our particular job, there is always room for improvement—the more efficient and the more successful, the more alert we will be to see the possibilities for improvement.

The use of measurements will improve instruction. It will improve the mental attitude, if our minds are static and our instruction mechanical, measurements will help reduce this static and mechanism. It will improve the teacher group activity, get teachers to thinking and working together to bring about a cooperative production. It will improve the objectives, make them more clearly defined and achieved. It will improve the course of study; aims, functions, and attainments of each unit of stenographic knowledge instruction, skill acquirement, and ideals of thoroughness and

accuracy development will be definitely set up and measured step by step for each ability group. It will improve the subjectmatter. Material will be selected to fit the needs of the community and the pupil (his economic, social, health, religious, and interest activities; and his individual capacity). It will improve the methodology, the efficiency of various methods will be weighed by pupil achievement in terms of workable knowledge of shorthand, sufficiently large variety of vocabulary, commercially usable speed of taking dictation, and marketable ideals of accuracy and thoroughness of workmanship.

The use of measurements will help us to scientifically experiment, analyze, weigh, reorganize and thus improve our objectives, course of study, subjectmatter, and methodology; and when these will have been improved, we will have improved our instruction.

THE NEW COURSE OF STUDY IN TYPEWRITING

MINNIE A. VAVRA, CLEVELAND HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

Improvement in the instruction of commercial education depends to a large degree upon the course of study. In fact, it is as valuable to the teacher as a road map is to the automobilist. It points out the best possible paths of learning in reaching a desired goal. It gives distances and milestones that the traveler along the path of learning may know how far he has gone and how much farther away lies the goal. It calls attention to points of identification along the way to minimize the danger of straying and to prevent time-consuming rambling. In fact, the new course of study in typewriting is comparable to an up-to-date road map.

In the olden days the tourist had to trust to luck. Or he may have depended for guidance upon a chance passerby, or an individual who had found one way. In a similar fashion the typewriting teacher gradually evolved a plan on the basis of her own rather limited teaching experience. Or she adopted the favorite plan of some typewriting textbook author and followed it implicitly. Not that such a procedure was fatal. On the contrary in many cases it was notably successful. With the recent improvements in typewriting texts, the publishers have done much to improve instruction and we are grateful to them. However, there is far more involved in the teaching of typewriting than can be found within the covers of a textbook.

Teaching of typewriting is one part in the education of the pupil. The new course of study in typewriting is one part of the new curriculum. A conception of this new curriculum is found in an article in the *Journal of the National Education Association* called "The New Curriculum." "For the first time in educational history a curriculum is being built broad enough to meet the needs of all the children of all the people and varied enough to serve the interests of the individual child. The narrative of its development is a fascinating story. It takes us into the science of education now struggling in its crude beginnings, even as medicine struggled a century

ago. It opens the doors of research bureaus at work on the problems of education, even as engineers study the problem of buildings. It takes us into teacher colleges where psychologists are studying the learning processes. Most important of all, the story of the new curriculum helps us to vision education as a many sided process which concerns the entire life of the child on the one hand and the whole life of society on the other."

As part of this new influence the course of study in typewriting had to be in harmony with it. Therefore, the form in which it was written is uniform with that of every other subject in the educational program. That means that the new course of study in typewriting presents specific objectives, suggested activities, suggested procedures, and desirable outcomes. For the first time typewriting was accorded its rightful place, as a subject on a par with the others, as one contributing in its way as much to the all-around development of the pupil as any academic subject. For the first time typewriting ceased to be a mere mechanical process, and was deemed worthy of full credit, equivalent to that of any other subject in the high-school curriculum.

THE END-PRODUCT IN SHORTHAND TEACHING

CHARLES G. REIGNER, GENERAL MANAGER, THE H. M. ROWE COMPANY,
BALTIMORE, MD.

The ultimate test of a process in industry is the product. By the same token, the test of the shorthand teaching process is the transcript—the be-all and end-all of shorthand instruction.

We have available today a considerable body of evidence which has a direct bearing on the teaching of skill subjects. Experimental psychology has shown us the factors which accelerate or retard the formation of the special habits we want to develop in shorthand teaching. A good beginning has also been made in the development of standard tests. Worthwhile work is being done in that most difficult field—the construction of prognostic tests for the determination of special aptitude for shorthand.

The educational values of shorthand—and the subject has such values—can be realized only as the student becomes vocationally efficient. The transcript is the only valid test of vocational efficiency. Transcribing should be begun early on specially constructed material—and the amount of transcribing should be increased progressively throughout the course.

Pupils learn a good deal subconsciously. Material assigned for repetition practice as well as that dictated for transcript work ought, therefore, to be representative of the forceful, vigorous, business writing of today. The dictation of material that contains stereotyped and hackneyed phrases is an anachronism in present-day shorthand teaching. Some material used very recently in state and regional contests is open to criticism on this score.

The shorthand teacher is primarily a teacher of language. Sometimes we write language on the typewriter, sometimes in longhand, and sometimes in shorthand; but all the time it is words, phrases, sentences, para-

graphs—language—that we are writing. The mechanical aspects of correct sentence structure can be most effectively taught when pupils realize their need of exact knowledge. That realization comes in the production of the transcript.

The writer has recently made a detailed study of the transcripts produced by beginning stenographers in offices. One hundred eighty transcripts written during the first week of actual employment were studied. The most common error was the incorrect use of *a* and *the*; the next, the "comma fault"—failure to recognize the end of a sentence; and the omission of the apostrophe or its incorrect use was the third error in order of frequency. "Pure" transcribing errors—the misreading of shorthand—were of relatively infrequent occurrence.

The departmentalized organization of the high school curriculum has its drawbacks as well as its advantages. It is apparent that formal English teaching instruction in shorthand ought to reinforce the formal instruction in English. We can go even further and weave into our shorthand teaching definite and systematic training in those phases of English that are directly applicable to the transcribing of shorthand. When we do that, we shall contribute directly toward raising the level of transcribing efficiency.

THE PREPARATION OF COMMERCIAL TEACHERS

J. MURRAY HILL, VICEPRESIDENT, BOWLING GREEN BUSINESS UNIVERSITY,
BOWLING GREEN, KY.

This is an intellectual era. Mass education has become a passion. It is the dominant note of American life. "The world at school" is not an idle phrase. Our universities and colleges, both private and public, are no longer troubled with the old problem of getting money, but rather more with the problem of how to properly utilize the stream of gold flowing into their coffers from a people swept by a wave of educational zeal. The star of the school is in the ascendancy. America is *infested* with high-school graduates. Up to a few years ago we heard that education had to be sold to the people. Today it is probably oversold, and we school people must admit that we are all feverishly trying to make delivery. "Nothing succeeds like success," is a good phrase, but "nothing *fails* like success" is a proven axiom. History, modern and ancient, reveals that tottering thrones, fallen governments, broken business enterprises, and individual failures traced the beginning of their reverses not to periods of adversity but to the hour when success seemed easy, secure, and permanent. So our American school system has been sold to an indulgent and generous public. The fact that we school people are not certain of our delivered product, is not a bad omen. Commercial education in the public school has hewed its course through that primeval forest of traditional prejudice. Our progress has been a slow and measured one. We have arrived. The conquest is about complete. But to take a field is one thing—to hold it is another. And so I come to the subject of my discussion—"What is the Objective

of Commercial Education in the Secondary Schools?" Finally, it is not assumed that the question raised here, "What is the Objective of Commercial Education in the Secondary Schools," is an original or a new one, but as indicated in this discussion and as is wellknown in this body, there are at present as many conflicting answers as were advanced by the "Seven Blind Men of Hindustan." Old Plato's philosophy of education was, "First find what you are best fitted to do and prepare to that end." The purely academic mind counters with Spencer's theory that "Education is a preparation for complete living."

If the high-school commercial department can be first, a prevocational, rather than an almost entirely vocational department, we may claim that we are developing in harmony with both of these apparently conflicting theories of education. Dr. Welsh of New York, in his recent book on secondary education, said, "One hundred percent materialists are no more desirable than one hundred percent idealists."

I am submitting this discussion in the hope that this distinguished body of students of commercial education may find in the question, "What are the Educational Objectives of Secondary Commercial Education?" a challenge to set in motion machinery sufficient to find the much overdue answer. Identified with this program are men who have made marked contributions to the cause of commercial education through research activities. We are not always in sympathy with their conclusions, sometimes because their findings run counter to our superficial or conventional way of thinking, as well as our selfish or local interests. Commercial education must adjust itself before it can advance. It must be discovered before it can be developed. We do not need further external recognition as much as we need internal analysis. This we can have only through well-directed study and research. In recent years our more thoughtful leaders have become introspective—a healthy condition for commercial education that may well be encouraged and fostered—to the end that our further development may be based upon a clarity of purpose, an accepted objective, and a practical idealism.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, Tuesday, 12:15 p. m., July 3, 1928

The thirty-fourth annual meeting of the Department of Business Education opened Tuesday, July 3, 1928, at 12:15 o'clock at the annual luncheon conference with the Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association in the Sun Room of the Curtis Hotel. Music was furnished by students of Marshall Junior-Senior High School under the direction of Miss Mabel Vincent. Perry S. Williams, Executive Secretary of the Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association, presided.

The following program was presented:

KEYNOTE: *Business Education for Citizenship and Placement.*

ADDRESS: John J. Tigert, U. S. Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

CLOSER COORDINATION BETWEEN BUSINESS EDUCATION AND PLACEMENT: Lloyd L. Jones, Asst. Commissioner, Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

A NATIONAL PROGRAM FOR CLOSER COOPERATION BETWEEN COMMERCIAL TEACHERS AND BUSINESS MEN: Edgar F. Fowler, in Charge of Education Service, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, Washington, D. C.

Mr. Williams said in part, "I think this a great idea that you have put into effect, meeting annually for at least one session with the local Chamber of Commerce. It gives us a chance to get a little of each other's viewpoint." Dr. Tigert discussed the growing problems of vocational adjustment caused by the changing requirements for business and stated that the commercial high-school group has become the largest of all except the college preparatory. He expressed "the need of some one who can outline the methods and the objectives of a general understanding of commercial education, not only for those who are going into commerce, but for all people." Mr. Jones deplored the general lack of standards in vocational guidance and placement. Mr Fowler stressed the fact that co-operation is a word that we cannot get away from. "It is a key word in American life." The meeting adjourned at 1:50 p. m.

Second Session, Tuesday, 2 p. m., July 3, 1928

The second session of the department was held in the East Room of the Curtis Hotel on Tuesday afternoon, July 3, 1928. Lawrence N. Pease, president of the Department of Business Education, presided.

The following program was presented:

KEYNOTE: *Improvement in the Organization of Commercial Education.*

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN BUSINESS COURSES IN UNIVERSITIES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

R. A. Stevenson, Dean, School of Business Administration, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

A TEST PROGRAM IN COMMERCIAL EDUCATION: Paul A. Carlson, Head of Accounting Department, State Teachers' College, Whitewater, Wis.

THE DISCOVERY AND MEASUREMENT OF THE FACTORS CONSTITUTING STENOGRAPHIC DIFFICULTIES: Fred Telford, Director, Bureau of Public Personnel Administration, Washington, D. C.

RETAIL SELLING AS OFFERED IN THE LOS ANGELES HIGH SCHOOLS: Monette Q. Todd, Director of Retail Selling, Los Angeles Public Schools, Los Angeles, Calif.

WHAT I EXPECT OF A COMMERCIAL TEACHER: John W. Edgemond, Director of Commercial Subjects, Oakland High Schools, Oakland, Calif.

The discussion was lead by Dean R. A. Stevenson of the University of Minnesota. Dr. Stevenson discussed the tendency to broaden objectives in the high-school commercial course, and stated that, "During the ten years ending in 1924 the attendance in business courses in the universities increased from 12,000 to 80,000 or 566 percent." . . . "It is time for the organization of a commercial course in the high school leading to the professional business course in the universities similar to the science course which prepares students for entrance to the engineering schools." . . . "Courses which merely drill the student in routine methods cannot be considered an integral part of a training program for management any more than the typical manual training courses constitute a basis for engineering education." The meeting adjourned at 5 p. m.

Third Session, Thursday, 2 p. m., July 5, 1928

The third session of the Department of Business Education was held in the Auditorium of the Donaldson Department Store on Thursday afternoon, July 5, 1928. A. B. Opfer, West High School, Minneapolis, Minn., presided. The following program was presented:

KEYNOTE: *Improvement in the Instruction of Commercial Education.*

THE USE OF MEASUREMENTS IN THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION IN SHORTHAND:

Ethel A. Rollinson, Instructor, Secretarial Department, Columbia University, New York City.

- THE NEW COURSE OF STUDY IN TYPEWRITING: Minnie A. Vavra, Cleveland High School, St. Louis, Mo.
- THE END PRODUCT IN SHORTHAND TEACHING: Charles G. Reigner, Harlem Square, Baltimore, Md.
- THE PREPARATION OF COMMERCIAL TEACHERS: J. Murray Hill, Vicepresident, Bowling Green Business University, Bowling Green, Ky.
- DISCUSSION led by P. L. Greenwood, Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis, Minn.

At the close of the third session Lawrence N. Pease, president of the department, called the meeting to order for the reports of committees and election of officers. The following officers were elected:

- President*—PAUL A. CARLSON, Head of Accounting Department, State Teachers' College, Whitewater, Wisconsin.
- Vicepresident*—DR. FRANCES MOON BUTTS, Director of Placement, Business High School, Washington, D. C. and Chairman, Committee on Commercial Education, World Federation of Education Associations, Social Adjustment Section.
- Secretary*—A. B. OFFER, West High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

Resolutions were unanimously passed directing the secretary, to send letters of sympathy to John Robert Gregg and Paul S. Lomax in their recent bereavements, and thanking the following named persons, organizations, and associations for the many courtesies and splendid cooperation extended to the 1928 Department of Business Education of the National Education Association:

Mr. A. B. Opfer and the members of his Local Committee.

Minneapolis Civic and Commerce Association.

House of Friendship.

Manager and Staff of the Curtis Hotel.

The Leader and members of the Marshall Junior High School Orchestra.

The Donaldson Department Store.

Officers of the Department of Business Education.

The speakers and leaders of the discussions.

The Woodstock Typewriter Company.

The Eastern Commercial Teachers' Association.

The John C. Winston Publishing Company for printing and mailing free of charge over 13,000 copies of the program.

And all other agencies that contributed to the marked success of the 1928 meetings of the Department of Business Education of the National Education Association.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, Mrs. Edith B. Joynes, 410 W. 14th St., Norfolk, Va.; *Vicepresident*, R. Ross Smith, 5719 So. Francisco Ave., Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary*, Charles E. Scott, Grant High School, Portland, Ore.; *Executive Committee*: Middle Section, Eula F. Hunter, 1324 E. Morphy St., Fort Worth, Texas (Term expires 1929); Western Section, Miriam D. Eisner, 3098 California St., San Francisco, Calif. (Term expires 1930); Eastern Section, Sara H. Fahey, 191 Lincoln Place, Brooklyn, N. Y. (Term expires 1931). This Department meets at the time of the annual meeting of the Association. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1914:909-916	1917:615-622	1920:343-355	1923:569-620	1926:391-423
1915:1161-1177	1918:381-389	1921:399-406	1924:460-499	1927:352-390
1916:637-652	1919:375-392	1922:683-691	1925:365-402	

ARE THERE GREAT TEACHERS TODAY?

M. G. CLARK, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SIOUX CITY, IOWA

MARK HOPKINS and his log is still the American classic in educational oratory. He and it stand for the ideal school. A simple, unadorned, apparatusless schoolhouse, with a James A. Garfield for its product, is still quoted by those who believe, even though life and the problems of life have become complex, involved and modernized, that education should remain as simple as in the days of Garfield's boyhood.

One can secure an audience anywhere if he will but attack modern public schools, public school methods, public school extravagances, public school fads and even the public school teachers. One can secure the applause and adulation of crowds of admiring taxpayers if he will but advocate a return to the good old days when the R's reigned triumphant in the little red schoolhouse.

Our critics quote the education of our fathers as being sufficient to colonize, pioneer, explore and develop the resources of today. It gave to us, they say, sturdy men and women, hardy of body, keen of mind and brave of soul. All that has been wrested from the virgin soil of America; all that has been built upon that soil, all those forces which have organized our present social, political, and economic structures, have come to us as the product of the education of the simple three R days.

In the place of logs we now have luxurious school palaces; in the place of planks we now have modern, easy, beautiful chairs and desks. We have special departments, special equipments, for the study of every phase of human activity. In the place of homespun clothing and rude social associations, and work that was toil, we have play and dancing and mock cooking and silk apparel. Is it possible, out of this soft-handed, comfortable and easy educational environment, to produce men and women capable of meeting the strenuous problems of the new generation? Does not the very environment of our present system preclude the breeding of that ruggedness of character, that sturdy desire for mastery and that determination to conquer difficulties that gave vitality and stamina to society of yesterday? Are logs more educational and more conducive to the building of sterling habits and sturdy character than are our modern school plants? This question is asked in sincerity. It is vital to America.

So much for the evolution of the log. What about Mark Hopkins?

Our quoted classic implies that James A. Garfield was the handiwork of a great teacher. Some of us may believe that James A. Garfield would have become James A. Garfield, even without Mark Hopkins and a log. Nevertheless, if we are honest, an hour of quiet introspection, beginning with our own earliest remembrances will reveal that many of the ideals governing our daily actions, have come from our associations with personalities that have impressed themselves upon us and disciplined us; for as in the days of the Great Teacher, we of today are the disciples of our accepted masters. Such introspections should be valuable to us as teachers.

Catalog your ten characteristics and for a half day of introspection, open your mind to its own processes of growth, trace back one by one each of your virtues to its earliest functioning. When and where did an ideal have birth in your consciousness or at least, when and where did it first receive its enthusiasm for a personal functioning in your life economy?

The speaker discussed this matter of introspection in a recent article in *The Normal Instructor* and from that article he freely quotes.

At a recent evening gathering, a group of men, over their after-dinner cigars, fell to discussing their early school experiences. One by one they became introspective. One told of little Della Carver, a beautiful eighteen-year-old school teacher whom he still vividly remembered and to whom he gave much credit for the pride and care he exercised in his personal appearance. Another told of the principal of an Eastern Academy whose sterling character and red-blooded manhood had instilled in him ideals of straightness of thinking and of squareness of acting. Another spoke of an early high-school teacher whose personality, poise and ability to think upon his feet and to express his thought clearly and with conviction to others, had given him a desire for a like mastery of thought and speech expression—an ability that had become, in later life, one of his great assets. All agreed that the great work of these teachers had been their discipling of ideals. They acknowledged that their ideals of manhood, of right living and right thinking had been born in their desire to follow great examples.

Much discussion arose whether the teachers of today are influencing boys and girls as did their teachers of fifty years ago. Has modern education destroyed teaching personality? Are the teachers of today teachers of subjectmatter, test-givers, rather than leaders of young people? Is it the business of the teacher of today to make the wheels of the machine go round smoothly, to see that the program of the day is executed as planned, that semester examinations are given and grades properly dealt out in accordance with a pre-arranged scientific curve of passing and failing grades? Has teaching become a mere grind of daily routine, or is there still a place in the modern school for the teacher who centers his effort, consciously, upon leading boys and girls to become men and women of character and service, as Mark Hopkins is thought to have done in his teaching of Garfield? Are the minds and the hearts of American teachers actuated by a conscious conviction that their greatest work is to be found in the leadership, the discipling of young people? Do graphs and grades and medians and reports constitute the result of teaching, or is it still to be found in ideals of life that will permeate the hearts of the student-body and give to them future poise and control and life direction?

The modern teacher talks glibly of the I. Q. of John, of Mary and of Tom, and arranges and re-arranges her class in accordance with what she considers their mental abilities. Have we become so analytical of mental ability and so proficient in our mental classifications that we are coldly scientific in the application of our teaching and fail to remember

that the warmth of a hand grasp, the encouragement of a kind word, the inspiration that can come from the fire of a teacher's eye, may be worth more to a child and be remembered far longer than will any of the academic and scientific efforts of the classroom?

The implication of some of those who discussed this question seemed to be that Mark Hopkins and his log had become an institution and that no longer were children idealizing life activities through their contact with great teaching personalities.

I am not through with my analysis of this problem, but that no teacher may become discouraged and leave the room before I have finished my address, I cannot refrain from quoting from a letter and poem recently written by a high-school senior to a daily newspaper as a tribute to a school and a teacher that had disciplined her:

I am a senior in the high school, I did my grade work in the Irving School, where I received my first inspiration to become a writer in the language work I did under one of the teachers there.

I hope some day to achieve success in literary work and will be very happy if you consider the inclosed worthy of publication.

The Irving School

Somewhat back from the corner of Eleventh and Jennings Street,
Where the noise of the car daily mingles with the patter of many feet,
An old brick building is standing, weather-worn, bleak and bare,
A monument grim and ugly to the hands that put it there.

In a room in the southwest corner of this building we love so well,
Where the winter winds whistled harshly and the summer's hot rays fell,
One of our best beloved teachers labored for years, half a score,
To guide our feet, often wayward, o'er the rugged paths of lore.

Lessons in truth and valor from knights of long ago,
From history's fairy pages ever will brighter grow,
And the river of Gold that could only be found by kindness to others shown
In memory still we cherish with the best that we have known.

Higher the goal we strive for and deeper the truths we learn,
But, I fancy, on memory's altar, a fire forever will burn,
To the days we spent there preparing life's greater problems to face,
And to strive with honest endeavor to finish well in the race.

Somewhere back from the corner of Eleventh and Jennings Street,
Where the noise of the car daily mingles with the patter of many feet,
And old brick building is standing, weather-worn bleak and bare,
A monument, loved and lasting, to the teachers who labor there.

An editor in a wellknown midwest farm paper recently said: "In our school system, there is no place for a great teacher. The routine, the red tape, helps the poor teacher, it cramps the great one." Using this editorial as a text, the editor of a labor paper makes the following comments:

It was about 1890, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that we began the process of gradually eliminating the great teacher and substituting for him costly equipment and the machinery of system with rank on rank of supervisors, inspec-

tors and statisticians. * * * When we lose the great teacher, who never has existed and never can without freedom—freedom of personal initiative, freedom from the army of meddling inspectors, statisticians, and superintendents—we have lost the one power that can build a civilization. * * * In the little red school-house, we were just a big family. * * * Each went just as fast as his mental power and purpose or help at home would permit. * * * And out of that school went boys and girls with a vision and a purpose. * * * No hardboiled system can make men and women. That requires the touch of the great teacher.

These quotations from supposedly thoughtful editors should challenge the thought of every classroom teacher. They should likewise challenge the thought of the boards of education of America and of every school official. We need to stop and take a mental measurement of ourselves. The speaker does not believe that the log, of itself, has any potential value. He believes that the modern schools and their equipment of today are but a part of today's social and economic life. He believes that a return from the present buildings and equipment to the simple one-room school would mean a turning back of the social, economic, and educational pendulum to its swing of the day that produced the little red school. It is not in the buildings and the equipment that we find the danger, but it is to be found in the fact that possibly through the use of these buildings and equipment we may have become so intoxicated with the glamour of our machinery, that we have forgotten that it is the personalities and not the machinery that constitute the important part of the work of education. Are we substituting machinery for the human touch? Are we allowing the machinery and the system to use us instead of making them subservient to us and our work? Have we organized lock-step situations, so systematized and so hard and fast that it holds within its grasp both teachers and pupils, crushing the individuality of each and leaving for neither that richer life that comes from the conscious inspiration of being in daily contact with the great truths and soul feeding ideals? Let us evaluate our work and take an inventory of our daily processes. Can it be true that personality and leadership and character and righteousness and honor and loyalty and studentship and mastery, and the consciousness of victory, no longer constitute the foundation of the real educational process? Are we as classroom teachers evaluating ourselves by the success of the tests we give to our children and the efficiency with which we handle the machinery of our office, rather than by the boys and girls we have set on the right track in their search for the real meanings of life?

Classroom teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, the whole group of school workers and school officials, need to consider for a moment whether they have substituted system, machinery, course of study and supervision, mental tests and diagnostic tests, for the more vital and worthwhile factors of life-building. Let us during our introspective hour answer the following questions honestly:

Does the fact that a teacher is not situated in a little red school house, without globes, maps, and course of study, handicap his personality?

Does the fact that the teacher is placed in a modern building, wellheated, well-lighted, well ventilated, with the most upodate educational helps, with all needed school materials and with the course of study calculated to save time and make more efficient his efforts and the efforts of his pupils, so magnify the material phase of education and emphasize the tools of education that there is no opportunity for the teacher to disciple his pupils through his own personality.

Is it necessary to greatness on the part of the teacher that he work without a course of study and without supervision?

Does greatness, as was implied in the quoted editorials, depend upon the teacher's freedom to lead the children where he will, as in olden days, over and over the same reading lessons and the same arithmetic problems and through the same spelling lists they were supposed to have mastered the preceding year?

Does the fact that the course of study provides for continuous progress from grade to grade, and defines the minimum work of a grade, so limit the freedom of the teacher that initiative and individuality are destroyed? They are intended to give to that teacher an opportunity to develop with far greater intelligence the range of a reasonable year's work. Do they fail in this? If so, why?

The course of study provides fresh material each year; does this freshness, the fact that the material is new, inhibit the freedom and the initiative and the greatness of the teacher? Ought it not rather to give the teachers a better opportunity to enrich and magnify and spiritualize their work?

Does the fact that a teacher has but one grade of work, instead of eight, and but eight or ten preparations per day instead of forty, make for smallness or mediocrity? Ought it not rather to inspire him to bring a truer vision to his pupils?

Does the fact that a supervisor or supervisors, whose business it is to know all the work from the kindergarten through the eight grades of the elementary school, visits occasionally to see that each department of the school is functioning; that the children are building upon that which has preceded; that they are making a proper preparation for that which is to come in following grade; that mistakes, which the teacher who does not see the whole scheme of education might make, are avoided; does such supervision inhibit the teacher's personal manifestation of individuality and initiative? Do such visits and such supervision destroy the teacher's opportunity to inspire character-development or inhibit this teaching of the ideals of life?

In other words, is it possible that a Garfieldian log in all its simplicity is necessary to education in order that the great teacher may function?

No more important questions can arise in education than this question which summarizes the problem, have we magnified the materials and submerged the teacher? Have we maximized great buildings, splendid equipment and scientific courses of study and minimized the personal touch? Have we become masters in name, but are we barren of disciples?

The speaker has emphasized the preceding questions, not because he believes the answer to be in the affirmative, but because he believes there is a real danger which we need to see and to avoid lest the answer may be sometime in the affirmative. The influence of the whirlpool is felt far beyond one's ability to see the current it creates. The canoe of many an unsuspecting voyager has been drawn within the maelstrom because he was not conscious of the whirlpool's far-reaching influence. Let us avoid such an educational crisis.

We public school teachers believe that the American public school is the one institution that may keep America away from ultimate disaster.

To the public schools have been intrusted the millions of America's future citizens and to the American public school will be checked up the final responsibility of America's safety or America's disaster. The ideals of the America of tomorrow must exist in the minds and hearts of the American teachers of today and these ideals must in some way be transmitted to the minds and hearts of the young people who sit in the classrooms of our American schools. If America is to remain great, it will be because America has had great teachers; if America is to become small, to disintegrate, to fail of its mission, it will be because America's teachers have not been great enough—big enough for their jobs.

The speaker takes the attitude, from his twenty-five years of association with public school teachers, that they possess all the attributes of greatness that the teachers of any age have ever possessed. He takes the attitude, therefore, that the great teacher cannot be submerged or enslaved by his environment. His greatness keeps him free. The great teacher is the master of his environment. The modern school system elevates him to a position of far greater influence than he could possibly have had under the conditions of pioneer days. The teacher of today adjusts himself to his environment and in that environment he finds opportunity to put to work his leadership, his ideals, and his spiritual vision through his contacts with the children assigned to his tuition.

It is quite possible that it takes a greater teacher to master the environment of this complex age than it took to officiate from the end of the historic educational log. There are teachers of today who, in this complex age, are handicapped by the meagerness of the log of Mark Hopkins. If such teachers possess the elements of greatness, they will be great because of their masterly handling of those meager materials. They will rise superior to their environment through their personal leadership, mental capability and spiritual influence. But if, on the other hand, teachers find themselves so fortunate as to be surrounded with the materials and methods and courses of study of the modern schools, they will again prove their greatness by making these materials subordinate to their own masterly handling, their own technic, their own purposes, always keeping the ideals of true living, rather than the materials of education, before the eyes of their pupils. Thus, the teacher's personality, his ideals, his character and his righteousness, will find a far greater vantage point than could Mark Hopkins have found from the end of the Garfieldian log. In other words, a Mark Hopkins in the modern school must be a far greater Mark Hopkins than he was in his associations with Garfield.

Garfields sit in the seats of the public schools of today. They are found in every modern school—they are not necessarily indigenous to logs. The teacher's opportunity for leadership is far greater today than it was fifty years ago. It is found in his better preparation; it is found in his better organized courses of study; it is found in his better helps and better supervision and it is also found in his better school environment, in the better homes and higher ideals of his pupils; it is found in the

absence from the roughneckism of the days of the Hoosier Schoolmaster.

Thousands of school teachers today are responding to these teaching conditions. They regard them as challenges to put forth in their work the best that is in them. The poor teacher, the mediocre teacher, is kept from making serious mistakes by the very organization of the modern school. The course of study, the supervision of the school keeps him within the bounds of safety, but it is likewise true that the poor teacher and the mediocre teacher is more quickly revealed and succumbs to the law of the survival of the fittest more quickly today than he did fifty years ago. Such teachers plead lack of initiative, lack of freedom, as a handicap. In reality, such teachers are handicapped because of their own inadequate ability to handle and make subservient the teaching technic and the principles of their subject. Quite often such teachers fail because of their lack of vision.

True, the great teacher of today does not stand out so prominently as did the great teacher of fifty years ago, but this is because of the better teaching and better equipment of the great mass of teachers. The number who stand head and shoulders above the group is comparatively few because the standard of the whole group has been raised.

There are, of course, time-servers and salary-drawers, subject teachers and mere classroom teachers and teachers who teach while they wait, and many, unfortunately, who are still waiting. There always have been such teachers and always will be. There are teachers who draw a heart-rending sigh of relief when the clock points to four and who, if possible, dismiss their pupils five minutes before time and lock the door as the clock is striking.

But there is, likewise, that other splendid group, far more numerous than ever before in the history of the American schools, who teach because they are called to teach and who find the greatest joy in life to be the service and vision they give to the children of their community. They are present day Mark Hopkins. They are great teachers.

Much is being said today concerning character education. There are those who assume it can be made an academic study. They would assign ten or fifteen or twenty minutes daily to the conscious teaching and study and analysis of the science of character. All this may be of value in the hands of a great teacher. The speaker believes that character, like the measles, is catching. Character is caught from character and if real men and women are to be sent out from the graduating halls of our high schools and colleges, it will be because they have been in contact with great men and great women in their school life. Ideals of life are born through contacts with living ideals.

The subjectmatter of the course of study has arisen from the practical needs of mankind. It helps in life problems and therefore is more than a mere category of facts. It must be filled, therefore, not only with cold facts but more important with ideals that come from the hearts of great men and great women. If mathematics, history, and literature are taught

as life problem subjects, they will be so spiritualized by the life of the teacher that they will function in the pupils' idealizations of live activities. The great teacher is, of course, a teacher of his subject, one who believes in his subject and makes his subject contribute something to the problems of life, but over and above everything else, he is great because he surrounds his school with an atmosphere of right thinking, right living, and right acting. This atmosphere can never be taught; like a perfume, it emanates from the heart of a great personality and silently it creeps into the hearts of his disciples.

The speaker takes the liberty to rewrite for his use a few verses from an unknown writer. It is entitled:

The Day's Work

Is any pupil happier because you passed this way?
Does any child remember that you spoke to him today?
This day is almost over and its toiling time is through;
Does anyone remember now a kindly word from you?
Did you give a cheerful greeting to the boy who came along,
Or a churlish sort of "howdy" and then vanish in the throng?
Were you selfish, pure and simple, as you rushed along the way,
Or is some girl mighty grateful for a deed you did today?
Can you say tonight, in parting with the day that's slipping fast,
That you really helped a pupil of the many that you passed?
Is a single heart rejoicing over what you did or said?
Does a child whose hopes were fading now with courage look ahead?

Ask any high-school graduate today, if somewhere from the kindergarten through the high school there has been a personality among his teachers that he reveres, and instantly he will name some one or two or three who stand out as disciplining influences in the charting of his life.

Yes, there are still great teachers, masters whose disciples will in turn become masters of a new generation—and so the chain holds and America is safe.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

JEAN L. SOULES, SPOKANE, WASHINGTON

The Department of Classroom Teachers has stated in its Constitution two aims: (1) To improve teaching. (2) To encourage the organization of teachers and to promote cooperation among them.

The second is, in fact, a means to the first, since it is through cooperative effort that teachers are able to bring about conditions in which they can do their best work. Pupil welfare and teacher welfare are not opposed to each other. They advance together.

Brilliant figures in the foreground of the education field attract attention to the importance of education. This, in itself, adds to the value of the achievements of such leaders. But thousands of citizens do not know of these accomplishments and must depend upon their acquaintance with teachers in their local school systems for knowledge of the service which education renders to the nation.

When the great majority of teachers are cultured persons of superior quality, rendering service of a professional type, the school will be able to meet the needs of society to a greater extent than is now possible, and will occupy a higher place than at present in public esteem. Therefore, the Department offers its cooperation to those educational agencies which work toward high standards for all who enter the profession, and it seeks to encourage superior persons to choose teaching as a career.

An attempt has been made in the Third Yearbook of the Department to suggest to young people of talent that classroom teaching offers opportunity for the use of their special gifts. Lack of space has placed limitations upon the number of special kinds of teaching that could be presented, but enough are described to indicate the scope of the teaching field.

A brief summary of what the teachers of one state have accomplished by cooperative effort is given with the hope that other organizations may find in the report helpful suggestions and encouragement.

President Albert R. Lang, of California State Teachers College, Fresno, Calif., and John C. Almack, Professor of Education, Stanford University, give their views of classroom teaching in the special articles contributed by them.

Field trip—The Spokane Board of Education granted your president three months of leave without loss of salary to make the field trip which has come to be recognized as an important feature of the Department work. An effort was made to visit those states in which little work had previously been done by officers of the Department, as well as to accept invitations from many places where teachers felt the need of closer contact with the national organization. It was with regret that numerous invitations were declined because of the amount of travel involved and because the consumption of time would have been too great.

The states visited were Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, Maryland, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, Illinois, Missouri, Oklahoma, New Mexico, Arizona, California, and Oregon—sixteen in all. The National Education Association and the Classroom Teachers Department were presented to forty-two groups of teachers, to two parent-teacher associations, and to two business and professional women's clubs. Students in seven normal schools were addressed on the general theme of Loyalty to the Teaching Profession.

Mindful that those attending the meetings had already done a full day's teaching, and that many of them would yet attend extension lectures or write papers to submit for credit before their day's work was ended, an attempt was made to avoid long meetings. For this reason, some points could not be fully explained in a general meeting. The kind of program which was found to give the best results was one by which there was an opportunity for a general presentation, and for later group conferences. To an increasing degree, administrators show interest in the work and a desire to understand the purposes of classroom teacher organizations. In

a number of cities visited, this group met during school hours with your president, and so had the opportunity to ask questions for which there was not time in the general meeting. In many cases the officers of the local association, with other specially interested individuals, formed another conference group. Frequent opportunity was given for questions and discussions, but many teachers lack experience in participating in meetings, and the liveliest discussion was found in the small and medium-sized groups. The hesitancy of teachers to express their opinions in meetings was greatest in those organizations which include all members of the school system, and in places where there was no organization. These teachers were found to be less active in the state and national associations than those who are accustomed to handling organization affairs. In some cases, there is domination of the association by superintendent and principals which is none the less real because unintentional. Teachers accustomed to looking to these individuals for leadership find it difficult to meet them on a common footing in a mutual organization.

A report of the president's field trip would not be complete without mention of her visit to N. E. A. Headquarters. The friendly interest and cooperative spirit of Secretary Crabtree were evidenced in a number of ways. He arranged a staff meeting which gave opportunity to promote acquaintance between the Department of Classroom Teachers and the heads of various headquarters divisions. Much time was spent in conference with Agnes Winn, our representative at headquarters, planning the details of the president's itinerary, the make-up of the Yearbook, arrangements for meeting places in Minneapolis and numerous matters which could be handled for us at headquarters. In every division, the spirit of courteous service prevailed.

Teachers' Problems

While the immediate problem confronting one corps of teachers at any specific time differs from that which other groups are facing, certain of these problems are seen to be general. They are:

Studying done by teachers—There are apparently three causes which operate to cause teachers to continue studying while engaged in teaching:

1. A salary schedule based on *education* and *training*. These, with *experience*, constitute a basis not dependent upon human judgment, which is fallible, and constantly in danger of being swayed by prejudice. A single salary schedule, based upon measurable attainments, is just and is in the interest of efficiency.

2. Requirements imposed by school boards, school executives, and supervisors. These are designed to improve teaching but fail, in some cases, to accomplish that purpose. The courses imposed concentrate the teacher's attention in a narrow channel and so make him a less valuable member of society than he might be if his interests were broader; and the time allowed for reaching the standards set up is so short that teachers

overwork. Both rest and recreation are necessary for the vivid personality needed for teaching.

3. Zeal on the part of teachers to make themselves more efficient. This is a quickening force which makes teaching vital and effective. The teacher's experience shows what courses offer practical help and inspiration. Courses chosen to meet a need or for the joy they give because in line with one's tastes, are cultural, without the feature of drudgery.

All three of these are attended by dangers: (a) The teacher's health may suffer or his view of life become jaundiced from lack of recreation.

(b) The amount of time required may be so great that teachers cannot be prevailed upon to perform service for the benefit of the whole teaching body, such as organization activities. This is bad for the morale of the individual and of the corps. Perfunctory membership in an organization prevents one from getting the full value of the membership, since cooperation is the soul of organization.

(c) Many hours each week spent in study make it difficult for teachers to participate in the community life or to be well informed on public affairs, and the influence of the school is correspondingly lessened.

This question of study for teachers appears to be a matter for teachers' organizations to consider with a view to finding a way to decrease the harmful features of the situation without losing the benefits.

Teacher participation—Another problem concerns the matter of teacher participation. In some cases school administrators still feel that it has little value. In other cases the privilege of such participation is given so rapidly that teachers find themselves burdened by additional work without having been given time to adjust their load so as to carry it well. Somewhere between these two extremes lies the amount of administrative work in which teachers may share without being too greatly burdened. It might be a wise plan to submit to the organization several pieces of work from which the group may choose one. Those undertaking the task should have the benefit of skilled direction and advice, and at the same time the participation should be genuine. Since teachers must do this additional work outside of school hours, not too much should be undertaken in any one year.

Other problems—Other problems which still await solution are:

1. *Tenure of position*: We should not allow the apparent failure of a particular plan of tenure to weaken our adherence to the principle of tenure. When the matter was first discussed, few, except classroom teachers, saw the need of it. In growing numbers, members of the profession are coming to favor it, and if we continue to study the question, a way will be found to have tenure with justice to all concerned.

2. *Retirement annuities*: There is need that the entire body of teachers study thoughtfully the principles which underlie a sound retirement plan. Then we must be willing to yield our individual preferences in the details

of the plan and unitedly work in our respective states to establish a sound plan of teacher retirement.

3. *Size of class:* The sort of work which teachers are called upon to do, as teaching gradually approaches the level of a profession, requires that the teacher shall have freedom to develop his own method, being allowed latitude in the matter of details of the day's work. In very large classes, there is danger that the teacher may become a mere mechanical device, and the children be treated as so much material for the machine to work upon. Freedom for teacher and child and opportunity for acquaintanceship between them is not usually found in schools where the number of pupils per teacher is large.

Meeting the problems—Teachers are meeting the problems through organization. In the local association, they become acquainted with one another and find ways to make use of the special gifts of each. Leadership, social charm, tact, vision, executive ability; all these and other qualities are found in the group and by organization machinery they are applied to specific problems.

The cooperative effort of teachers has sponsored art exhibits and lecture courses, provided libraries in schools, and hung pictures on schoolroom walls. Well organized local groups have provided funds and workers for state associations, and have contributed to the success of campaigns for beneficial school legislation.

Organization makes possible cooperation among all parts of the school system because officers and committees can officially represent their respective groups.

High Lights

Lack of space in this report makes it necessary to omit many matters of interest which have come to the attention of the Department during the year—examples of achievement among classroom teachers as the result of organization. Four have been selected from many worthy of mention, in one of which your President had a part.

1. An instance of practical, genuine teacher participation in planning a school is described elsewhere in this volume, under the title "Teacher Participation in Schoolhouse Planning." A most interesting visit was made to this school.

2. The High School Teachers' Association of Los Angeles deserves much credit for the Creative Exhibit conducted by them April 12, 13, and 14, 1928. Individual teachers demonstrated their ability in various fields of art. Music, including composing, sculpture, painting, literature and handicraft, all had a place. This is an activity which could be carried on by any fair-sized club.

3. The Classroom Teachers Association of Kansas City, Kans., made arrangements with the local moving picture theaters whereby children's matinees sponsored by the organization were conducted, the association receiving half the income from admissions. This money is being used to

defray the expenses of delegates to the Minneapolis convention. Not only did the association profit financially, but the children of Kansas City were furnished with suitable entertainment.

4. On the occasion of our annual luncheon, which took place in Boston on February 29, we had the honor of having as our guest Mrs. Evangeline Lindbergh. Her presence and her words of greeting added to the pleasure of the occasion for all present. Other guests whom we were happy to welcome were Dean Henry Lester Smith, who was our principal speaker; Cornelia Adair, president of the National Education Association; Walter R. Siders, chairman of the board of trustees; and three past presidents of the Department.

News Bulletin

The officers of the Department of Classroom Teachers realized the need of a means of communication more frequent than the Yearbook. Early in the school year a letter was written by the president, addressed to every classroom teacher. It was sent inclosed in a communication from National Education Association headquarters to principals with a request that it be given to the teachers under their supervision. This method of distribution was chosen as being the most direct. In April, the Department launched a *News Bulletin* which has been received with genuine interest. This is in the nature of an experiment. Its purpose is to stimulate interest among the classroom teachers of the country in the work of the Department and to keep them informed concerning its activities as well as to furnish information on professional problems which many teachers' organizations are investigating and studying. A recommendation concerning it occurs in the closing section of this report.

Recommendations to the Department of Classroom Teachers

1. *News Bulletin*—That three issues of the *News Bulletin* be published each year, the approximate time of publication being November 1, January 1, and May 1. Associations which have been organized not more than two years may receive the *News Bulletin* free of charge, older associations being asked to pay a subscription price covering the cost of publication, the price to be fixed by the Executive Committee for the year 1928-29.

2. *Regional Directors*—That the members of the Executive Committee chosen from the eastern, middle, and western sections be known as Regional Directors and that one additional director be chosen from each section, increasing the Executive Committee to nine. Since such action will increase the expense of travel for attendance at conventions, and since we have as yet no adequate plan of finance, it is recommended that when the first additional member is chosen, it shall be from the eastern section, the middle and western sections each to be given an additional member as soon thereafter as is practicable.

3. *Yearbook*—That the Executive Committee of 1928-29 choose a Yearbook Committee to serve three years, and to report in July, 1929, a three-year policy, stating in the report the subject of the volume for each of the three years. That they make a recommendation as to whether one editor shall be chosen to carry the three-year plan to completion.

4. *Roundtable conferences*—That all roundtable conferences held under the direction of the Department of Classroom Teachers be held at the time and place chosen by the Executive Committee.

5. *The Constitution*—That a committee be chosen to present, at the 1929 meeting, any changes in the Constitution of the Department of Classroom Teachers which may be made necessary by the adoption of these recommendations, and that the president for 1928-29 take such steps as are required to permit the matter to be voted upon in July, 1929.

*BRIEF REPORTS OF OFFICERS GIVEN AT THE BUSINESS
SESSION OF THE DEPARTMENT, THURSDAY
AFTERNOON, JULY 5, 1928*

REPORT OF THE VICEPRESIDENT

R. ROSS SMITH, CHICAGO, ILL.

I am going to skip all portions of my report having to do with conferences in the ordinary way. I wish to say that I have made arrangements with Dean Smith for a conference at the University of Indiana in October, one in Riverside, and so on down, but the job that I want to talk to you about is the job that the Board of Directors at Boston in February handed to me. First they did something and then they shoved it over upon me. I don't know why, but they did.

You heard in the report of the minutes of the Seattle meeting that provision was to be made for the rural teachers, and that's the job that these colleagues of mine shoved at me in Boston. I thought and I thought and I thought, and then I put it off, and off and off as to what I might do with that job.

It is true I began my work in a rural school, in a country school down in Southern Indiana, and it is true that I got a great deal of my education partly in the same country school in which I taught. Finally this was the conclusion that I came to: I will find out what the rural schools in the ten central states of the Middle West are doing, and therefore I sent out letters to each county superintendent in those central states and got in touch so far as possible with the teachers in the elementary schools in that way. In other words I built my contacts. The thing I wanted to do was to get something to bring to you, to give you some notion, you from Ohio to take back as to what Iowa was doing, you from Kentucky to take back as to what Minnesota was doing, and that's my report.

I have found from previous experience that people will read such reports if they are gotten up in newspaper style, and that is what I did. I wrote

the report in the form of a little newspaper. I decided to call it "The District School," and then on the last minute I very foolishly changed it to "The Classroom Teacher." That is the story of the little paper.

In that little paper I tell you what Mr. Burg in Ohio is doing for his country schools in which he has a band—a band in every country school. That's the story that comes from Ohio. The story that comes from Iowa is that every year history is made vital, made absolutely dramatic and vivid by the use of pageants. I should like you to get those little papers as you go out.

That is history. I want you to go forward with me for a moment to the future.

At noon today I ate lunch with three young ladies. Two of those young ladies are country school teachers—one, Miss Aschenbrenner, the newly elected president of the Rural Conference of the Department of Classroom Teachers—the other, Miss Peterson, the newly elected secretary of the conference. I do not know that their positions are really official—but, at least, official or not, these girls will help me to organize the country teachers for this Rural Conference—the job that the Board of Directors of the Department gave me at Boston.

We have two sponsors for these young country school teachers—people with wider contacts. But I am not going to tell you of these sponsors—merely of the president and secretary. What we really do with this Rural Conference I'll tell you next year at Atlanta. Now it's a dream. But what these two young country teachers hope to do is to form a little nucleus of country teachers like themselves—teachers with similar problems—to exchange ideas—and to have a good report of their work for the Rural Conference at Atlanta.

The other thing is this, we are going to try to show the city schools how the rural one-room school may be put more nearly on a par with the big city schools.

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY

CHARLES E. SCOTT, PORTLAND, ORE.

I am a high-school teacher but I have a good deal of sympathy for the elementary teachers and am pretty well interested because it happens that my wife is a teacher in the primary grades, so I have a little experience along that line.

It was with a good deal of fear and doubt that I took this job last year in Seattle, and I felt especially that way when I went to our dinner in Seattle at the Olympic Hotel and looked around over 600 or 700 teachers who were there, mostly women. I think my education has progressed somewhat and I am learning what the department stands for and the work there is to do.

There have been two things that I have tried to stress in the conferences I have held this year and wherever I have had the opportunity to do so. The first is that the high-school teachers had a place in the Department

of Classroom Teachers. I think our round table discussion on Tuesday afternoon showed that there is interest. We had a large meeting, and the people who were there were eager for discussion.

The second thing I have tried to stress is this. I have tried to tell the men that they belong in the Department of Classroom Teachers. We need more men in our classrooms and we want those that we do have, to identify themselves with the department.

The school board of Portland was very kind to me. They granted me a month's leave of absence without loss of pay for the trip to the superintendents' meeting in Boston, and most of the conferences that I held were held on the way to Boston. The details of that you will find in my report on page 95 of the Yearbook.

There are one or two corrections and additions, however, that I wish to make. I had intended to go to Salem after the Boston convention. However, I found that Miss Soules was going to be able to come through Oregon, and so I asked her to hold that conference in Salem, because I knew the effect of an address by the president of the organization would be much greater than that of a mere man.

Then on my way home from Boston I stopped at La Grande to hold a conference, and incidentally that was the easiest conference I had to hold. The things that I learned at Boston, the experience I had there just fitted right in with what I wanted to do in that conference. Just this last month I received word from the teachers in La Grande that they had organized a local unit of the department. We have a state department of classroom teachers in Oregon, but so far as I know, that is the only state unit of the department. They also have sent a representative to this convention. I think I will not bother you with any more report.

I do want to say this about the Yearbook. I have looked around and if I have estimated the people here, they are just about enough Yearbooks for the people here, which will be distributed as you go out.

REPORT OF THE EASTERN EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEMBER

MRS. EDITH B. JOYNES, NORFOLK, VA.

I am a high-school teacher but I have taught in the elementary grades, and I have also been principal of a small elementary school, a teaching principal so to speak, but at the present time I am a high-school teacher, and I am like the new eastern representative, a commercial teacher.

I felt that I must remind Mr. Smith that he had forgotten me because I was afraid you would think I haven't been doing any work. This year I have held conferences in New Jersey, in Florida, in North Carolina, in Delaware, Maryland, Connecticut, and my own home state; so I have been quite busy.

In these meetings questions of this kind have come up: "Do you find that the teachers are organized?" I do find that the teachers are organized

in their local associations. I find that the teachers are very well organized in their state teachers' association, but this I have found, they do not know anything about the classroom teachers' department of the National Education Association in many cases.

The two states that I have had a chance to come in contact with in the eastern section that seemed to take more interest in the National Education Association than any other two were Connecticut and Virginia. The other states have not taken an unusual interest in our department of the National Education Association.

I want to say that on my trip to Boston just as soon as I held conferences with these local associations and told them what the National Education Association was trying to do, they became interested, and in two or three instances they have affiliated with the National Education Association and I feel that hereafter they are going to be interested in what the classroom department is doing.

The one thing that it seemed to me I should call to your attention this afternoon was this: I feel that the superintendents' conference is of just as much interest to the classroom teacher as it is to the principal and the superintendent, and on my trip to Boston, the very first thing that I did was to ask them as I held the various conferences, "Are you sending a classroom teacher delegate to Boston?" The superintendent looked at me in several instances and said, "Is that customary?"

I said, "Well, you know we are changing the old order of things nowadays and I feel that the classroom teacher must certainly want to know what you want her to teach, and to have some idea of the problem direct."

I remember one particular experience with a very nice superintendent up in Connecticut. He said, "Do you think those classroom teachers will attend the meetings?"

I said, "I personally will be responsible. I am absolutely sure that if you will arrange for them to go, they will attend the meetings. I am going to put this proposition to the local association. If the local association will pay the expenses of two delegates, I will suggest to the superintendent that he ask the school board to pay the expenses of two delegates."

Finally after much discussion in several different places the local association sent one or two delegates and the school board did the same, and I will assure you that those classroom teachers attended every meeting. I have heard from them since, and I feel that it was a piece of work which was worth while.

This is what I want you to do. Don't go home and keep this bit of information to yourself. Tell your own school boards what they are doing in other places, and when next winter comes and we all go to Cleveland, I hope that in every one of your local associations you will at least make the effort to get the school board to send one classroom teacher to the winter meeting.

Perhaps they won't pay their expenses. All well and good. I am sure every local association could arrange to pay the expenses providing the

school board will pay the substitutes' fee, and I feel sure that they will do it. At least I ask you to make that one of your projects.

Then there is just one other thing I would like to mention. In two or three states in the past two years they have been giving credit for the renewal of certificates in case the classroom teachers attended the National Education Association meeting and took a trip as outlined by the state director instead of going to summer school. They at least recognized that travel is a form of education. They also recognized that it is raising the professional status of the classroom teacher by having this opportunity to attend the National Education Association meeting.

I wish you would think that over. I believe that if we as classroom teachers work on a few of these problems in our local associations, the superintendents and principals can no longer say that we are **not professional**. They will say that we are professionally minded, and it depends upon you.

Just one other thing, because I am your new president I hope that next year you will not forget that I want your ideas, that I want your help, that this is a very large organization. I don't think there is any one president who can do the job alone, and if it is poorly done, I am going to put the blame on you.

REPORT OF THE MIDDLE SECTION EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEMBER

EULA F. HUNTER, FORT WORTH, TEXAS

I believe it was the request of the president and others that we tell you a little bit about the work which we do in the classroom in order that you might know more about the members of the executive committee.

When I was elected to this position on the executive committee, I was working in an elementary school, which later was made into a junior high school. I am a teacher of mathematics. My avocation, I suppose, is that of extracurriculum activities. This last year I took up work in the senior high school, and am now a teacher of mathematics in the senior high school at Fort Worth, Texas.

The work of conducting regional conferences for the Department of Classroom Teachers of the National Education Association impresses us all the more of the trite but true saying that history repeats itself. Wherever we go into sections of the country, we find teachers interested in very much the same professional problems. Many of those are peculiar, of course, to one locality, and yet there are questions in which people of all localities are interested. As history is repeating itself, we find that in addition to that, many new volumes, new chapters of history, are constantly being added. The work of conducting regional conferences among the classroom teachers is indeed interesting. We have the opportunity of seeing the teacher at her work and of knowing in what problems she is most interested, and that, I think, is one of the big problems of the executive committee members.

The other, and perhaps the greatest service that we get, is through finding out from these local groups of teachers just what they would like to have

the department do, and just how this executive committee can best serve each organization through this national committee.

I have conducted regional conferences, as many as it was possible to conduct, through the central section of the United States during the past year. These conferences so far as possible, have been held in connection with state meetings, in order to save teachers the expense of travel, and in order to make it possible for them to attend. As with some of you, it isn't always easy for a classroom teacher to leave her work to attend any sort of a conference. Those of us who are on the executive committee find that same trouble.

You might be interested in knowing that our school boards are very generous in granting us leave of absence without loss of pay to do the work of this department. They have given me at home during the last three years since I have been on this board from two to three weeks of absence each year without loss of pay. Most of the conferences, though, have been held on week-ends, because that is the best time to make it possible for teachers in the field to attend the meetings.

The special duty that was assigned me as a member of the executive committee and of which I would like to speak briefly, is that of the study of the relation of extracurriculum activities to teacher load. Those of you who have had some experience in the field of research know that a question of that kind cannot be answered quickly. If it is answered accurately, it will require much research. That has only been begun. You will find a plan of the work in the Yearbook.

I would like to tell you just a little bit about how it is progressing. I would like to acknowledge our appreciation for the help we have received from Dallas, Norfolk, Portland, Fort Worth, Fort Smith, and a few other organizations which are now working and which have taken the trouble to fill out the questionnaire and help us in this work.

As I said, you may not hear from me quickly for no sooner had we gone into it than we found it necessary to form a definition of an extracurriculum activity and also of a teacher load. I know these terms are being very much discussed and we may call it extracurricula or extracurriculum and you may say teaching load and teacher load. After all there is not very much difference, I think, but just now we are centering our attention on an attempt to find out just what is a teaching load. That question has never been handled through research. However, some interesting studies have been made touching upon it, and some very scientific studies have been made. We are going into it as accurately as we know how, and we hope to have something real definite to give out to you before very long.

We are interested in knowing just to what extent teachers are given time for the extra duties which they have not provided for in the curriculum.

I should like to have time to discuss at length with you the work, and to give you the report which I had really planned to give you for the after-

noon, but you are as anxious to be through as I am, and if you have some questions to ask, I should be glad to answer them as far as I know how.

REPORT OF THE WESTERN EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEMBER

MIRIAM D. EISNER, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIF.

I would like to say that I represent the elementary teachers. I would like to tell you that I am the only member of the executive board that is an elementary teacher, so I feel I have a great responsibility for next year.

I stopped in Spokane on my way to Minneapolis to see Miss Soules, and although she was suffering greatly at that time, her first and last thoughts were for the classroom department. It is growing rather late and I am sure we all want to leave here early, so instead of reading Miss Soules' report which you will find printed in full in the Yearbook, I am going to read the recommendations she has made to the Department of Classroom Teachers as published in the president's report in the Third Yearbook. (The recommendations were read.)

The San Francisco school board granted me a month's leave of absence on full salary to attend the Boston meeting and to carry on field work. I shall not take the time to report on the conferences held as these are covered in the Yearbook.

REPORT ON NEWS BULLETIN

AGNES WINN, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Before I speak of the *News Bulletin* I will say that we have copies of the Yearbook here. We have referred to it several times and you will receive one, that is, those who stay to the end of the meeting, but if you don't happen to receive one, I assure you that we are going to send one to each affiliated organization from the Washington office.

I am very sorry that I haven't a copy of the *News Bulletin* with me this afternoon, but those of you who have seen it know to what we refer. It is a little four-page folder, newspaper style, which the executive committee of the department at their Boston meeting voted to publish. The one we issued in April is only a trial. We probably will have either three or four issues this next year, according to the vote and decision of the executive committee before the members leave Minneapolis, and you will probably receive one.

The Bulletin seems to have met a great need, because we have received so many words of praise from people in the field, not only classroom teachers, but principals, superintendents, publishers, and editors. Some of the classroom teachers have written, "I received the copy of the Bulletin the other day and I read every word of it."

We do not want this to be just a one-person affair. We don't want it to be just the affair of the members of the executive committee of the department. We want to meet the needs of the people in the field, and

so we welcome any suggestions. I put a note to this effect in the first Bulletin and I received a good many suggestions, and we are making very careful note of those. We are hoping to make it helpful to all of you in organization work in your professional problems. Each time we are planning to devote one page to professional problems, perhaps group insurance, retirement, credit unions.

In the first number in the fall we are either going to feature the credit union idea or group insurance. This last time we featured travel and study for teachers, sabbatical leave, cumulative sick leave, and so forth.

Yesterday in discussing it with your executive committee we decided we wanted more news about what organizations are really doing, and so if you are president of an organization, you may receive this fall a questionnaire which will be as brief as possible, asking you about your activities, similar to the one I have sent out in previous years. If you will send that in, giving information on your organization and the work that it is doing, your organization will be featured. I would very much like to hear from all of you, because it is hard when you are back in Washington at national headquarters to always know exactly what you would like. I think perhaps there may not be any time for discussion, Mr. Chairman, but I think if anyone has any particular suggestion about the Bulletin, those who have seen it, it might be well to take five or ten minutes to let them have an opportunity to speak of it. We want to make it a very, very fine bulletin, and we want the succeeding issues to be better than the first one.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, Tuesday Afternoon, July 3, 1928

The first session of the Department of Classroom Teachers was held in the Minneapolis Auditorium on Tuesday, July 3. The meeting was called to order by the vicepresident, R. Ross Smith. Mr. Smith explained that the absence of the president, Jean Soules of Spokane, Washington, was due to personal illness. He then introduced Mrs. Edith B. Joynes, Eastern Executive Committee Member, Norfolk, Va., who presided over the session.

The following program was presented:

MUSIC—Maria Sanford Junior High School Boys' Glee Club

ADDRESS—ARE THERE GREAT TEACHERS TODAY?

M. G. Clark, Superintendent of Schools, Sioux City, Iowa

DISCUSSION GROUP A

Secondary and Higher Education

Presiding, Eula F. Hunter, Executive Committee Member of the Department, Fort Worth, Texas

Discussion Leaders, R. M. Caldwell, Teacher, Bryan Street High School, Dallas, Texas; and Charles E. Scott, Secretary of the Department, Portland, Ore.

TOPIC—WHAT IS THE GREATEST PROBLEM OF SECONDARY TEACHERS TODAY?

Miss Hunter explained the purpose of the secondary and higher education conference and then called on Mr. Caldwell, one of the discussion leaders, who spoke on general problems of interest to all high-school teachers. Mr. Scott discussed briefly the subject of extracurriculum activities.

About one hundred high-school teachers were in attendance and interest in the meeting was shown by the lively discussion which followed the two talks. It was the sense of the meeting that the roundtable conferences be continued. Miss Maybelle Wilson of Berkeley, Calif., was elected chairman of a committee to prepare a program for the meeting in Atlanta, Ga., next summer.

DISCUSSION GROUP B

Rural Education

Presiding, R. Ross Smith, Vicepresident of the Department, Chicago, Ill.

TOPIC—WHAT ARE SOME OF THE IMMEDIATE PROBLEMS OF THE RURAL TEACHERS OF TODAY?

DISCUSSION GROUP C

Elementary Education

Chairman, Olive Bennison, Elementary Teacher, Grant School, Spokane, Wash.

Secretary, Nell E. Lain, Elementary Teacher, Irving School, Kansas City, Mo.

Discussion Leader, Ella Probst, Principal, Calhoun School, Minneapolis, Minn.

TOPIC—PROBLEMS TO BE MET IN CONNECTION WITH INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION

The aim of the elementary education conference was to discuss problems peculiar to this group. As these roundtable conferences were merely an experiment this year, the question as to whether or not they should be continued was discussed. Later a motion was passed that a proposal be presented to the business meeting of the Department recommending that the chairman of each discussion group appoint a committee of three to meet with the Executive Committee of the Department to consider the advisability of continuing the roundtable conferences.

Miss Probst, the discussion leader, had provided a series of contributions relative to "Problems to be met in connection with individual instruction." No one scheme of individual instruction having proved a panacea, the problem is not a simple one and becomes more complex because the misfits do not now drop out of school due to the compulsory education laws. Thus there must be a correlation between class teaching and individual instruction.

Bernice Newell of Minneapolis presented a report of an experiment on the technic of reaching backward children. By means of standard tests the children were divided into four groups having varying reading ability and were then given training adapted to the particular group of which they were members.

Ellen C. Nystrom of Minneapolis showed how the subject of handwriting had been taught, analyzing special defects by means of diagnostic charts, suggesting corrections and developing inducements for individual improvements.

Edith McNaughton of St. Paul had made an extensive study of teaching gifted sixth-grade children selected by means of intelligence tests. The children having been taught selfcontrol, how to study, and a consciousness of objectives, were able to cover one or two more terms of work than they would have done under ordinary conditions.

Second Session, Thursday Afternoon, July 5, 1928

Business meeting—In the absence of the president, Jean L. Soules, the meeting was called to order by the vicepresident, R. Ross Smith, who presided over the session. The minutes of the Seattle meeting in July, 1927, were read and approved as corrected.

On motion the next order of business was the election of officers for the ensuing year. Mr. Smith appointed the following tellers: R. M. Caldwell, W. B. Satterthwaite, and Nell E. Lain.

Mrs. Edith B. Joynes of Norfolk, Va., was nominated for president and was unanimously elected.

The following nominations were made for vicepresident: Estelle Boggess of Denver, and R. Ross Smith of Chicago. Mr. Smith was reelected vicepresident.

Charles E. Scott of Portland, Ore., was nominated for secretary and was unanimously reelected.

Sara H. Fahey of New York City, who served as president of this department for five years during the war period, was nominated for Eastern Executive Committee Member and was unanimously elected.

The complete list of officers for 1928-29 was announced as follows:

President, Mrs. Edith B. Joynes, Norfolk, Va.

Vicepresident, R. Ross Smith, Chicago, Ill.

Secretary, Charles E. Scott, Portland, Ore.

Eastern Executive Committee Member, Sara H. Fahey, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Middle Section Executive Committee Member, Eula F. Hunter, Fort Worth, Texas.

Western Executive Committee Member, Miriam D. Eisner, San Francisco, Calif.

Miss Fahey then thanked the department for the honor they had shown her and asked for the privilege of saying a few words. She spoke of her efforts during the war days to keep alive the interest of the classroom teachers and gave several interesting reminiscences.

The next order of business was the reports of officers. As there seemed to be a desire on the part of those present to know more about each of the officers the chairman asked them to tell something about themselves in giving their reports. He added that these reports would be brief and informal because the detailed reports were printed in the Yearbook. Miss Fahey, the newly elected executive committee member was the first called upon. She spoke as follows:

"You probably wish to know something of my experience in the various fields of school work. I have taught from the first primary grade to the high school, and my interest is quite as deeply with the classroom teachers in the elementary school as with the high-school teachers because their problems are one. I see no difference when it comes to their problems in this department. For six years I was a model and critic teacher in the New Haven, Connecticut, State Normal School. In New York City, I began my teaching in the fourth, fifth, and sixth grades. Later I went to the junior high school, and for the past five years I have taught in the senior high school. These teacher interests are the same in all groups, I can assure you. The elementary teachers have no secrets from me, nor I from them. I fear that some people who have not followed the work of the department as long as I have, are confused in their ideas of the objects and aims of the department. They want to discuss methods of work instead of the immediate teacher problems.

"Before the National Education Association was reorganized on the delegate basis, there was a Department of Elementary Education and a Department of Secondary Education. In some manner or other, these departments have faded out. I do not know the history of their fading out. I do know the struggle which the classroom teachers had to have a department created in which a study could be made of the teacher's special problems. The natural tendency in a department of elementary or secondary education is to emphasize the courses of study and the material side of school work rather than the individual welfare of the teacher. It is not selfishness that makes us want our own department. It is because we know that we cannot render the service that we should render to the students unless our welfare is safeguarded. It was for that specific purpose that the Department of Classroom Teachers was organized in 1914, if I recall correctly.

"In 1915, I made an effort in California to get a New York teacher made president. However, the Denver people outwitted us by electing Miss Adkisson. Miss Ennis of New York was made vicepresident. The following year I was elected president. It was a time of stress, particularly in educational matters, and probably for this reason I was reelected year after year until I resigned in 1921. I should like to say to you that I am deeply interested in the professional

status of teachers whether the problem is that of the kindergarten, the elementary, or the high school. In New York City, I am a member of the Welfare League, an organization of elementary teachers mainly, which deals with conditions in the elementary schools, particularly with pension problems. I am also a member of the High School Teachers Association."

The officers then gave their reports.

Mr. Scott then suggested that high-school teachers present place on the registration card any questions or problems they would like to have discussed at the round table conference next year.

Miss Jahnke, Chairman of the Resolutions Committee, was then recognized and presented the following report:

RESOLUTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS

As goals for which the classroom teachers of America are constantly striving, we submit the following resolutions:

Entrance Requirements

To guard the children and the profession against the untrained teacher, we declare ourselves in favor of three years of professional training and of two years as a minimum of training beyond high school for entrance into the profession. Higher requirements for certification will raise the professional status of the classroom teacher and improve the quality of the teaching service.

Tenure

The peace of mind that comes to a teacher from secure tenure is an important factor in the efficiency of the schools. We favor an indefinite tenure following a probationary period, but in no case should it be made difficult for boards of education to dismiss the unfit or the inefficient after reasonable warning. We are indebted to the Tenure Committee of One Hundred for the service they have rendered the cause of education and hope the teachers will make a careful study of its report.

Retirement

A sound retirement fund increases teaching efficiency and is coming to be considered an integral part of a progressive school system. Some states have unsound retirement laws and others have made no provision for teacher retirement. To guard children against instructors who have become incapacitated by age, we would urge state teachers' organizations to bring to the attention of legislatures the wisdom of placing on the statute books a sound retirement fund law. We wish to express our gratitude to the Committee on Retirement Allowances for valuable material they have made available to those who are working for the enactment of actuarially sound retirement-fund laws.

Salary Schedule

It gives us pleasure to note that the single salary schedule is finding increasing favor with boards of education. We urge school boards who have not recognized the principle of equal salary for equal preparation and experience, regardless of age or grade of pupils taught, to give the single salary schedule their serious consideration.

Rating

In order that improvement in service may result from supervised ratings, we recommend that every teacher be given a duplicate copy of his rating sheet. We are opposed to the practice of rating as a basis for salary.

Teacher Participation

We reaffirm our stand on teacher participation in school administration. We urge teachers to avail themselves of every opportunity for such participation. Lest some in their zeal assume duties and responsibilities belonging to those in executive positions, let us bear in mind that participation in school administration and usurpation of executive powers are not synonymous terms. We need to understand each other's problems. Mutual understanding makes for sympathetic teamwork.

World Peace

We at all times should advocate such measures as will hasten the outlawry of war and the establishment of world peace. To this end we advocate the observance of May eighteenth as World Peace Day.

New Education Bill

The teachers in the classrooms of America are fully aware of their responsibilities and their needs in the great task of training the youth of today to be the citizens of tomorrow. They believe that education should be adapted to the needs of the individual child, and to this end they ask for scientific research and experimentation on a nationwide scale commensurate with that now rendered industry, agriculture, and labor. Facilities for adequate research, we believe, could best be provided by a Department of Education in the federal government. A thorough understanding of the functions of this department, not only on the part of the teachers themselves but by the lay public, must precede its establishment by Congress.

We therefore pledge ourselves to a vigorous effort to do all within our power to bring about the enactment of the Curtis-Reed Bill (S. 1584, H. R. 7), which provides for the creation of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet.

Appreciation of National Education Association Research Division

We wish to express our appreciation to the members of the Research Division for their hearty response to every request.

Appreciation of Courtesies to Minneapolis Teachers

To the teachers of Minneapolis, we owe a debt of gratitude for their hearty hospitality that will make our stay in Minneapolis a pleasant memory for years to come.

Each resolution was read and discussed from the floor. Several changes and amendments were offered but when put to a vote were lost.

The following additional resolutions which had just been handed in were read by the chairman, discussed from the floor and carried:

Whereas many teachers are deprived of the privilege of attending the sessions of the N. E. A., on account of conflicting time of the summer sessions of college and universities and whereas many boards of education require this summer work of their teachers be it

Resolved that we urgently request that colleges, universities and all other educational institutions that do not now meet these conditions delay the opening of their summer school sessions until after the closing of the N. E. A. or give credit for N. E. A. attendance.

Whereas, the findings of the Federal Trade Commission of the United States Government have revealed the fact that a nationwide and insidious propaganda of prodigious proportions has been and continues to be carried on by the private power companies of this country, and,

Whereas, this propaganda has attacked the entire public school and educational system of the country, undertaking to censor and revise existing textbooks, hiring college professors and prominent educators to write and deliver lectures under academic auspices without disclosing their private power company connections; establishing and subsidizing bureaus of so-called research under high sounding names in universities, paying the expenses of college professors to attend conferences conducted under private company auspices and otherwise attempting to introduce their propaganda into the public schools, and,

Whereas, the public schools and educational system of the country constitutes the very citadel of American democracy upon which its future depends, and,

Whereas, the classroom teachers are the ones who must use these censored text books and literature and are held responsible for the proper guidance and training of the youth who are to become our future citizens, therefore be it

Resolved, that we most earnestly protest against the use of the public schools and educational system of our country by any private concern or organization in behalf of selfish and class interests against the general and public welfare; And, be it further

Resolved, that we call upon the general public to give closest attention to the findings of the Federal Trade Commission that they may be informed and fully aroused to the peril involved; and particularly do we urge upon the press of the country their solemn duty to give the facts and findings of the Commission the prominence and publicity which their overshadowing importance demands.

Miss Olive Bennison of Spokane, Washington, speaking for the elementary teachers relative to the round table conferences which were held at the Tuesday afternoon session, made the following motion:

That the chairman of each of these groups appoint a committee of three from that group to meet with the executive committee of this department to consider the advisability of continuing the division of the department into conference groups. Seconded and carried.

Mrs. Anna L. Brassovanyi expressed regret over the absence of Miss Soules and moved that a message of sympathy be sent to her together with an acknowledgment of her work during the year. This matter was referred to a committee with power to act.

Miss Harden, of Chicago, then called attention to the report on the amendments to the National Education Association Bylaws which was to be presented at the meeting of the Representative Assembly the following day. A discussion from the floor followed but no action was taken by the department.

The meeting adjourned at four-fifty o'clock.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, Dorothy Stimson, Dean of Women, Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.; *First Vicepresident*, Helen M. Smith, Dean of Women, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio; *Second Vicepresident*, Florence Purington, Dean of Women, Mt. Holyoke College, South Hadley, Mass.; *Secretary*, Mary W. Sawyer, Dean of Girls, High School, Brookline, Mass.; *Treasurer*, Estella G. Hefley, Dean of Women, 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	1927:391-418

REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

DOROTHY STIMSON, DEAN, GOUCHER COLLEGE, BALTIMORE, MD.

MORE than ever the president's report this year has to be in the nature of a progress report rather than of a task accomplished. First, as to the administration of the Association's business: The readjustment of the organization under the revised constitution has been steadily developing under the faithful and intelligent guidance of our headquarters secretary. The growing usefulness and importance of her services and of a permanent office are daily more apparent to both officers and members of the organization. The period of transition from volunteer work and lower dues to paid service and slightly increased dues is being taken care of under her tactful direction with the minimum of disturbance. It is too soon for a fair comparison of our membership totals with other years, but happily the increase in our dues seems to have had but slight effect upon our growth, and our Association continues to thrive as deans more and more recognize its importance to them professionally. What this may mean for the future is hinted at in an inquiry at the headquarters office last fall: "How may one become a registered dean?" Already we are regarded as setting standards.

As you will see in the various committee reports and in the work of the sections, our members are actively engaged on diverse problems connected with our field. At least two new state and regional or local organizations have been formed during the past twelve months. Many of the older state organizations have developed the program of their annual or semi-annual meetings along the line of institutes to further the dean's professional training, while the three joint sessions planned as part of this week's program continue our national policy of cooperation with other closely related organizations.

The second consideration of this report is the far more fundamental one: What of the immediate future of the dean's position both in high school and in college?

The time is approaching, if it has not already arrived, when the necessity of defining the terms "active" and "associate" members may thrust upon us farreaching decisions in regard to our legitimate fields, the importance of which we are perhaps not yet fully cognizant. Serious as the organizing and financing of our Association activities may appear to the executive officers, still these problems are of exceedingly minor importance in comparison with that of our professional future. In this connection the program committee has arranged for two closed discussion meetings this week on the training needed for the dean's work as seen by those engaged in various phases of it and as seen by those leading training classes for the work. Its ardent hope is that out of the discussion may come material for further study and perhaps for formulation into standards both as to qualifications for the work and as to the

delimitation of the field. For has not the time come for us to recognize our own limitations? Do we not perhaps need to consider a department of dean's work in which are brought together specialists in educational, vocational, social and other related fields, to give the student the most carefully considered advice available? Should we not ourselves become specialists in some one of these fields perhaps, rather than to lay ourselves open to the charge of being a "maid of all work," as we have been called? In one or two of the large institutions such a departmentalizing of the dean's work is already in progress with the consequent elimination of the dean herself. Should we not take thought ourselves as to the future of our profession, its legitimate field of activities and the qualifications needed for work in that field and thus ourselves help to shape its future? This fundamental problem calls for the most earnest consideration of us all not merely during these institute days but in the months to come.

These two points, then, the further development of the machinery of our Association in order to free our members of drudgery and give room for important enterprises, and, secondly, the future of the profession, are the considerations uppermost in the mind of your president at this time.

The Committee on Resolutions will give the Association opportunity to express its appreciation for the hospitality shown us here in Boston this week, but no adequate thanks can be given the Committee on Local Arrangements for their months of thought and hard work to make these days profitable and pleasant for us all. To them and to our hostess institutions most hearty appreciation of their help and gracious hospitality is here also thus publicly extended by one who perhaps knows best of all what work has been entailed in all these arrangements for our comfort and well-being. To work with so responsive and responsible a group of women as this and our other committees represent is indeed a privilege and a pleasure.

WHAT IS A PROFESSIONAL COURSE FOR DEANS OF WOMEN?

SARAH M. STURTEVANT, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

An eminent authority in education has said, "The growth of professional schools is perhaps the most striking characteristic of recent university history. Their growth is adduced by increased wealth in our land, which means ability to pay for expert service, and the inability of most people to cope with the increasing complexity of modern life. This willingness of the public to employ graduates of professional schools and to pay them for expert service is the correlative factor in the development of professional education."

It is not then out of place to ask, "What is a professional course as applied to the field of the dean of women?"

In the first place, the question presupposes the assumption that the work of the dean is a profession in its own right. It is not a side line of activity appended to the profession of teaching, or of nursing, or of vocational guidance, or of being a vice-principal, or a principal, or a matron, but has those three characteristics which mark the profession as different from the vocation. It requires a sound liberal education as a basis for professional training; it has a body of professionalized subject-matter worthy to be the material of a curriculum; it is rapidly developing a code of ethics by which the members of the profession govern their relations one with another. It is only fair to say, however, that the work of dean has so recently emerged from the position of being an incidental activity of almost any school factotum, and the body of professional material is so small compared with that of law, or medicine, or theology, that some do not admit its claim to professional status. The assumption of the paper is, nevertheless, that young as it is, the work of deans has become a profession with a professionalized subject-matter. The results of Jones' study of "The Status and Function of Women Deans in Colleges and Universities" tend strongly to substantiate this assumption.

What then is a professional course?

A professional course is one designed to provide a worker with what he needs in the practice of his profession. It is not a salmagundi of courses selected from the liberal arts college, because they furnish general information necessary to the dean. Psychology, sociology, history, literature, science and religion are part of the cultural background conceded to be necessary equipment of every professional worker, without which success in professional work is doubtful. Such educational background should, however, not be confused with professional training which has its own categories and its own curricula worked out in terms of function. It is not possible, for instance, to train a surgeon by giving him an academic course in history, though it be the history of medicine, or the account of development of the science of anatomy. He must learn how to hold a scalpel, make an incision, and suture a wound.

The content of a professional course must be built on the basis of a functional analysis of the work involved. Such analyses of the work of the dean have been made in recent studies of the function of deans in colleges and teacher training institutions.¹ They indicate the following duties performed by deans, which in turn suggest some of the categories in use.

1. *Work with individuals on personal problems*—This is the most universally performed duty of deans of both colleges and teacher training institutions and takes the most time. Eighty-four percent of deans in colleges and universities spend time in the performance of this duty. Few

¹Jones, Jane L. "The Status and Function of Women Deans in Colleges and Universities." Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, New York, 1928.
Sturtevant, Sarah M., and Strang, Ruth M. "The Status and Function of Deans of Women in Teacher Training Institutions." Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, New York, 1928.

deans would doubt that improved skill in this important function might be learned.

2. *The organization and management of social activities*, including supervision of student participation in government, sororities, and other student organizations. Seventy-nine percent of deans work intimately with student government and seventy-five percent supervise extracurricular activities. There are certainly technics involved here that, were they known ahead of time, might save the waste of the trial and error method of procedure.

3. *The supervision of housing*, with all that it means of planning, equipment, organization and social values of dormitories, to say nothing of other forms of housing. Sixty percent of the deans approve plans for dormitories.

4. *The organization and direction of part time employment of students*, which involves standards of academic work, health, and social development. Forty-three percent of the deans perform this duty.

5. *Research*—One might mention other duties which are performed by many deans. Fifty-six percent handle discipline cases; many have administrative functions and influence the development of curricula and educational policies in general; most give numerous public addresses; many have to do with the selection and orientation of freshmen. These are the functions which become the basis on which a professional course for deans should be constructed.

A consideration of their functions as a basis for a professional course suggests the second question, *What particular skills does one need to perform these functions?* A satisfactory answer entails a further functional analysis. Discipline, for instance, involves skill in case study, and in the art of bringing about recovery from wrongdoing. The student interview if successful assumes skill in getting "contact" with the interviewee. Successful administration demands skill in the planning of work, and in the use of devices for accomplishing work.

A third question demanding attention is, *What information is needed in order to do the work?* Such information immediately divides itself into knowledge directly pertaining to and knowledge merely relating to, the work in question. For example, the standards of adequate housing, the comparative number of women graduates now as compared with that of twenty years ago, the application of psychology to work with the adolescent, a conception of the place of habit, impulse and intelligence in conduct are kinds of information needed to perform the dean's tasks, while the history of education, or Greek literature, might be called related knowledge. In such work as that of the dean to which the humanities contribute so much, there is, of course, no sharp division between direct and related knowledge as exists in the case of the trades, but there is without doubt specific knowledge which should be a part of the professional course and which as a part of a professional course should be treated from quite a different standpoint from that of the academic subject. The academic

subject is taught logically, developed as a whole. Professional subject-matter is treated with reference to its usefulness in a practical situation. It has been said that in liberal education the question is, "What will the subject do to the student?" The question in professional education is, "What will the student do with the subject?" This difference between the academic and professional attitude toward subject-matter is further illustrated by a question once asked by a superintendent of schools, "Can you tell me why people who have had a major interest in psychology so often cannot teach successfully?" That phenomenon is easily explained on the basis of the difference between the academic interest in the subject as such and the professional attitude which *uses* the subject material in a specific situation.

The professional course, therefore, must develop its own curriculum in terms of its own problems. The test of what is to go into a course of study is whether it is needed in practice, whether it fits one to take the successive steps in this work with confidence, skill, and intelligence. There is no such thing, consequently, as logical development of subject-matter, or of progressing from the simple to the complex. What is needed to meet a given situation may involve a dozen different fields of subject-matter which are useful as applied to the problem in hand.

This implies that the method of the professional course is different from that of the academic course. It uses the concrete problem which should be skillfully selected by the leader because it is common to the dean's work and points to principles of procedure. One might list any number of problems which might become the stuff of a professional course, the solution of which would take the student into many fields of subject-matter for her information. The method is that of problem-solving.

If one were to say that each can learn as the case requires, the answer would be "yes," but the purpose of a professional course is to short-cut the way to an end by working under a leader who knows the field as a whole and the various methods of approach. The amount of professional subject-matter and the expert knowledge of the leader depends somewhat on the age of the profession. The dean's field is new as compared with law, medicine and theology, but even so there is material that could not be exhausted in three years of graduate work.

This suggests another problem connected with a professional course. The economic return that may reasonably be expected will determine the amount of time that one will feel he can spend on preparation. In the last analysis professional education is an investment upon which one must rely for definite economic returns as well as for satisfaction in work. Jones' study showed that the median salary for deans in 263 colleges and universities reporting is \$2766.66. The median salary for deans in institutions for teacher training is slightly higher, \$3,054. In most cases these facts mean that training will be confined to one year of graduate work. What selection of material then shall be made? It is difficult

to find a way to give students what they need for successful practice and advancement in their profession in a limited time. In making such selection, the teacher must ask, "What have students had before they came by way of education and experience? What can they get for themselves elsewhere? What in technic can better be supplied by other courses in the college?" It is clear, for example, that a critical study of the Bible can better be made under a specialist in the Bible, that speech-making and writing, and research, all technics much needed by the dean, can be satisfactorily obtained in other well-organized departments of the college. And finally he must ask, "What can most advantageously be given in this course in a limited time?"

The full development of a professional course entails not only theoretical knowledge but also a practice period of internship. This is hard to arrange in a field where one has to deal with people who have to be learned, but there is no reason why such practice could not be provided in time. Opportunity to serve as assistant to a dean or as head of a hall is in effect an apprenticeship which is being more and more asked for by young women themselves.

In conclusion, then, a professional course is one which seeks to provide the knowledge, skills and technics which are necessary to the practice of the profession in question. Its purpose is to shorten the way to an end by offering the opportunity for study under competent leadership, for survey of such materials as are available, and for knowledge of the whole field as well as of specific problems. Its value as a course will depend on what the person is and knows to begin with, and what use he can make of his training.

In my opinion, the continuance of the professional status of the work of the dean depends upon the rapid development of the specific information and skills and technics which comprise professional subjectmatter. There is more and more demand for those who have learned to use expertly the tools of service in the field of personnel, in the field of housing, in administration.

As James E. Russell says, "The leadership of the olden time may have been dependent upon the accident of birth, but the leadership that is ahead is a matter of professional training."

EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION

DR. BEN WOOD, DIRECTOR, BUREAU OF COLLEGIATE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

Civilization depends upon the exploitation of the type of mind possessed by only a very few people and we should therefore make every effort to select this type as early as possible. The administrative problem of educational guidance is to get information that is accurate and significant and to communicate it in meaningful terms to those who are to use it. We need

to "learn" our students rather than "teach" them. The educational performance of school and college should be a single cumulative process.

As an illustration of how such cumulative information can be obtained and used for the best interests of the student concerned, the following case will be of interest. J. M. S. in 1927 took college entrance examinations in five subjects. He was refused admission because in English he ranked among the lowest 16 percent, because the principal, supervisor and mathematics teacher (all strangers to him) estimated his intelligence as below average, and because in a three-minute interview the college admissions officer could make nothing out of an excessively shy, selfconscious, and excitable lad.

The unused data in possession of the school when brought together in cumulative form tell a very different story; in fact they seem to indicate that the college officer who rejected this boy was actually dealing with a mind that should have been classed among the best five percent of college risks.

Studied as a whole this record gives indubitable indications of a mentality that may be close to genius. The separate items taken alone count for little; but the sweep of evidence across even six years of this boy's life is unmistakable and should place the subject among those whom an institution handles with the utmost care. It is doubtless an extreme instance, but if a case so obvious as this can be so badly bungled in our administrative procedure, it seems likely that the average child must be a frequent sufferer.

The complete report of the case, together with the cumulative chart of his record can be had in a bulletin of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, entitled "A Program for a Study of the Relations of Secondary and Higher Education."

THE VALUE OF THE DEAN TO THE SCHOOL

EDWARD RYNEARSON, PRINCIPAL OF THE FIFTH AVENUE HIGH SCHOOL,
PITTSBURG, PENNSYLVANIA

At one time there was only one teacher in a school. The increasing enrolment made necessary an increase in the teaching force, and so one was designated to be head master or head teacher—principal. The history of the growth of secondary education in the United States is familiar to every one present. Not only has there been a great increase in enrolment, but there has been likewise a change in the character of the high-school population; "varying capacities, aptitudes, social heredity, and destinies in life." Soon it became apparent that one person could not attend to the many and varied duties thrust upon the principal and he was given an assistant. The high school became not only a school preparing for college, but also one preparing the large numbers for life work. The requirements of the different vocations are so many and are so changing that a vocational counselor was necessary. He gives his entire time to assisting the high-school pupils to study, to choose, to prepare for, and make progress in an occupation.

Another significant change was taking place: Educators came to appreciate the value of the so-called extracurriculum activities as a means of socializing the high school. They began to realize the truth of Bismarck's statement made 'way back in the '70s: "Whatever you wish to appear in the life of a nation you must put into the school." Germany put militarism into her schools, and the world is reaping the harvest of desolation and devastation. If our boys and girls are to become citizens of a democracy, that form of government where the governed are the governors, the school must give opportunity to learn citizenship in the school by permitting the pupil to assume and discharge his responsibilities under guidance. You cannot teach social science without having laboratory practice any more than you can any other science. Leadership, selfcontrol, poise, service, and group responsibility cannot be developed by the lecture method any more than you can learn swimming by correspondence. Every one knows that our youth must have guidance in student or cooperative government, in athletics, in the clubs, and in the social affairs. These activities should no more be turned over to the immature, inexperienced children than should the classes in geometry, Latin, and other subjects. The activities should be selfdirected as far as the pupil is concerned, but at the same time guided by the wise teacher, both to control any individual who may be a menace to the organization and to give such aid as may be given by a master hand.

Pupils in charge of any of the finances must be taught absolute honesty, not to borrow for private use from the funds that belong to another individual or to a group of individuals. Pupils should also learn that efficiency in public affairs can be obtained not by machine politics, but only when the best administrators, irrespective of color, sex, creed, or party, are elected to places of trust and responsibility. Without supervision, those who most need the development of leadership through the activities may be crowded out by those who are long on extracurriculum activities.

Unless someone with authority maintains a firm stand in favor of these activities, they may be so hampered as to become ineffectual or even crowded out entirely. Some time may elapse yet before some of our teachers of special subjects will realize that their respective subjects do not have a monopoly of culture, power, and the *ne plus ultra* of education, and that, hour for hour, the appropriate activity rightly guided has a value equal to that of any subject taught in the high school.

You would not expect a high-school principal ever to acknowledge that there was any part of the administration which could not be well performed by him, yet in spite of this modesty, he must admit that keeping in touch with the entire high-school organization and with the classroom teaching in a high school with an enrolment of 1000 requires more time than he is able to give. The supervision of extracurriculum activities and the social affairs must also be delegated to some one who is specially fitted and who can give her entire time. Since our girls are the warp and woof of the social texture of the high school, a dean of girls is the necessary weaver in every high school.

The value of a true dean of girls cannot be estimated. If she handles the social affairs of the school and keeps everybody sweet, she will earn more than her salary. She has the time to make thorough investigation before she acts and thus makes friends and gets the hearty cooperation of pupils and teachers. It must be understood that her chief duty is neither to plan parties nor to be a matron.

The dean of girls appreciates the necessity of having social standards and does her best to make the social program of the school conform to these standards. She also realizes that she directs the social life of the school. She sets high ideals before the girls. She, in a large way, directs their manners and morals and through them, those of the school. By friendly conference and visits to the homes of many of the girls, she familiarizes herself with their heredity and environment. This knowledge often explains the conduct of the girl and forms the basis of dealing with her. Many of the disciplinary problems grow out of the stress and strain of girl life of which no man can know. So many problems peculiar to girls can be adjusted only by a sympathetic woman that the appointment of a dean of girls becomes imperative.

The dean is primarily a teacher, one who knows the objectives of education and who constantly looks to these as the port toward which she steers her bark with its precious cargo. She teaches not only the information found in the textbook, but she uses all information, whether found in the book or out of the book, as a means to the end—the development of the potentialities of each individual girl to her actualities. Although she is a teacher, her position is really that of an assistant principal in charge of girls and all extracurriculum activities.

While the dean of girls is not to be considered a matron, yet she must be in intimate touch with the health problems of girls. She should ever keep in mind the varying needs of adolescent girls and see that instruction is given them in the laws of health and the necessity for their observance.

Although high schools have vocational counselors, the dean in her conferences will often be faced with the responsibility of looking into the girl's future with her.

Someone has said: "Civilization rises no higher than its women." Since this is true, we must increase our emphasis upon the character training of our girls. In this industrial age let spirituality rather than materialism be enthroned. "Seek ye first the kingdom of God and His righteousness and all these shall be added unto you."

Let us remember, then, that every high school should have a dean of girls who is an assistant principal because the principal does not have (1) the time for the work, (2) the training, (3) nor the understanding of the problem due to the peculiarities of the group. She must be an exceptionally broad-minded, sympathetic woman, with a strong and pleasing personality. The peculiar needs of the position are administrative, disciplinary, teaching, and counseling.

The dean as well as all other teachers of the adolescent girl will hear and heed the crying need of greater purity in the lives of young men and women.

This is our challenge; shall we meet it?

THE COMPLETE EXECUTIVE

JOHNSON O'CONNOR, GENERAL ELECTRIC COMPANY, SCHENECTADY, N. Y.

Science has taken the physical characteristics of the human race formally into his hands, not only by measuring many of them, but by formulating some of the laws which govern their passage from one generation to another. Mental characteristics are not as well understood. Are there such things as mental characteristics? And, if so, can they be measured?

I want, if possible, to make mental characteristics seem a little more real to you than they have perhaps seemed in the past. I have brought some apparatus which I wish you to think of exactly as you would think of any laboratory apparatus—as you would think of the chemist's bottle, funnel, and filter paper.

Here is a board with a shallow tray at one end and a hundred drilled holes at the other. We piled three hundred small, one-inch pins into the tray at this end, and then asked a large number of people to come into our laboratory and take up the pins, three at a time, and place three in each drilled hole, as fast as possible. Among a thousand girls whom we have timed, one completed in five minutes; another took fifteen. Thus, the slowest person has taken three times as long as the fastest. This at first does not seem like a striking difference to find among a thousand people; but compare it, for a moment, with physical characteristics. When we see a man five feet tall walking with another six feet two or three, we think of it as a striking difference; and yet we never see one normal man three times taller than another. Here, in an invisible characteristic which we may call finger dexterity, we find one person three times longer than another.

Or turn to another bit of laboratory apparatus. Here are two columns of numbers. The first two numbers, at the top, 96 and 96, are the same and so we ask a man to check opposite these in the third column headed "same." The next two numbers, reading down the column, 64 and 68, are different and so we ask a man to check opposite these in the fourth column headed "different," and so on throughout the list. Among a thousand men whom we have measured in this way, one completed in forty seconds; another required three minutes. Thus, one was four or five times longer than another; and yet even this does not represent the full difference between the two men, because the one who finished in forty seconds checked the numbers correctly, while the other made five mistakes. We often hear of the slow but sure men; and yet practically all the laboratory work which we have been doing for the past five or six years shows that the slow but sure man is almost a myth. The group, as a whole, who have checked the

numbers in less than, let us say, a minute, which is unusually fast time, have made fewer mistakes than those who have taken more than a minute. Those who have checked the numbers in less than two minutes have made fewer mistakes than those who have taken more than two minutes. One can always find exceptions: men who have rushed through and made mistakes, and others who have gone slowly and painstakingly and checked the numbers correctly; but even including all of these exceptions the fast men, as a group, are accurate and the slow men make mistakes. Combining time and errors, the best number checker is twenty times better than the poorest.

Or turn to still another laboratory experiment. Two college graduates, roommates the last three years of their course, entered our laboratory and we showed them this block, told them that it was made of nine wiggly blocks (such as this); that it was cut through into three piles, with three blocks in each, and also into three layers with three blocks in each. We then shuffled the blocks and asked the men to put them together again. One of the pair finished in half a minute; the other struggled half an hour before finally getting his together. One was sixty times longer than the other. As chance plays a considerable part in the selection of the correct block, the men repeated the solution. The one who succeeded in half a minute on the first trial, equalled his performance; the other, who originally consumed half an hour, improved slightly, needing but twenty minutes and, on a third attempt, only twelve. Still he labored twenty-four times as long as his companion.

What is it that causes this difference between persons? Apparently not college training, because these two men were both graduates of a technical school of high standing. Is it, then, early training? Psychologists are constantly emphasizing the importance of the first few years of life. It is difficult to answer this question with any degree of certainty. So many factors enter into education that it is all but impossible to analyze test results. Let us return, however, to the simplest of these three experiments, taking up three pins at a time and placing them in a drilled hole, and study the effect of education on this simple problem. We asked one of the girls who was extremely slow in picking up the pins, requiring fifteen minutes, to come into our laboratory a second time. She improved, needing but twelve. We then asked her to practice every day for a month; and every day she showed an improvement over the day before. Even at the end of the month she was still gaining, and if we had continued the experiment, she would probably have improved still further. This is true of every test which we have tried. Anyone by repeating a test can learn to do it gradually better. But instead of marveling at this extraordinary improvement which is within reach of every person, let us compare two girls, one who can assemble the pins in six minutes and another who takes just twice as long, twelve minutes. Both repeated the performance and improved, the twelve-minute girl taking only eleven minutes, and the six-minute girl only five and a half. Both improved, but the slow girl still required longer

than the fast one. The two girls then continued their practice for a month. At the end both had improved decidedly; the twelve-minute girl could now do it in eight and the six-minute girl in four minutes. Still the slow girl took just twice as long as the fast one. This represents our finding with almost every test which we have tried. If two persons are given equal opportunity and equal practice, the slow person continues to be slow and the fast person fast. They hold quite accurately their relative position with respect to each other. Of course, if the slow person practices and the fast one does not, the slow one can gradually overtake the fast person. But given equal opportunity, the slow person continues slow and the fast person fast.

Realizing this, it is extremely important to place each person on that particular type of work for which his abilities best fit him. No amount of education or interest or energy can ever make a boy who starts on a type of work for which he is unfitted go quite as far as he would go if he had started on the right type of work. As a first step in trying to place each boy at the particular type of work for which he is best fitted, we have made up this set of what we call "sample jobs." We are trying gradually to make a sample of each different type of work. The pins represent any type of delicate, manual work for instance, meter assembly or instrument assembly. The number checking represents clerical work: accounting, book-keeping, typewriting, stenography or secretarial work. The "wiggley" blocks represent engineering, designing, drafting, die-making, tool-making, or any type of work requiring the ability to visualize mechanical structure in three dimensions.

Let us run through the development of one of these samples step by step. Take, for instance, the "wiggley" blocks, the engineering work sample. We made first a thing which we thought was a fair sample of engineering. We then asked a group of men that we know are successful engineers, men who have been successful engineers long enough so that we know that they are successful, regardless of whether they do our sample well or poorly, to try it. They did the sample poorly, which meant that we had made a mistake in our reasoning. We knew, to begin with, that the men were successful engineers. The fact that they did poorly showed that the thing was not a representative sample of engineering, and so we discarded it and made another. We asked successful engineers to try this, and again they did poorly, and again we discarded the sample. We made up, in this way, twenty or thirty samples, each one of which we felt was a fair sample of engineering, before we finally found one which successful engineers, as a group, do well, and unsuccessful ones poorly. This gives us a mechanical way of separating those men whom we know are successful engineers from those whom we know are not.

The next step is to try this same sample with a group of boys entering engineering, and then follow them to see what happens. Five or six years ago we tried a large number of boys on the "wiggley" blocks and graded

them A, B, C, or D, very much like school grades, and have since followed them. Of a hundred who originally graded A, seventy are now successful in some type of work requiring ability to visualize mechanical structure. Of a hundred who graded B, thirty are now successful in this type of work. Of a hundred who graded C, ten are successful. Of a hundred who graded D, only two. Thus, we cannot tell even the boy who grades D that he will never become a successful engineer. We can, however, tell him that his chance of success in this type of work is two in a hundred; whereas his chance of success in the type of work where he scores A is seventy in a hundred. We cannot tell any particular individual that he will be a success or that he will be a failure. We can, however, tell him his chance of success or his chance of failure. He can then use this as one factor in selecting his occupation.

The type of test with which you are probably most familiar is the so-called general intelligence test. What is this intelligence which all of us more or less unconsciously recognize, and yet find such difficulty in defining, for there are almost as many definitions as there are definers? Intelligence may be one of three things. It may be truly general. It may be, first, like the rays of a searchlight, illuminating any problem upon which it falls. Or, secondly, there may be certain types of work, certain tasks, in which intelligence plays little or no part, in which case we must think of intelligence, not as truly general, but as more or less specialized, as specific intelligence. Or intelligence may be used in still a third way, to mean a group of abilities, and employed in such a way that the larger the group, the more intelligent the possessor.

If intelligence is truly general, if, like the rays of a searchlight, it illumines any problem upon which it falls, we should then find a group of persons who do both the block and the number checking well. We should find another group who, because of lack of intelligence, do both poorly. When we actually measure a large number of persons we find no such group; we find these two abilities scattered among persons wholly by the laws of chance. Suppose, for instance, that we should deal two playing cards to each member of this audience. We would find that one quarter of the audience would receive two black cards, one quarter two red cards, and one half a black and a red card each; that is, the cards would fall wholly by the laws of chance. So with these two abilities: the fact that one checks numbers well tells nothing about his ability to assemble blocks. He may do the blocks either well or poorly. The fact that he does the blocks well tells nothing about his number checking ability. Again, he may do this either well or poorly.

These are, then, two separate abilities with no overlapping, with no common element between them. We have been able in this way to separate five disconnected aptitudes, five wholly isolated abilities, with no common element.

A great many interesting stories could be told to emphasize the independence of these abilities. A very brilliant man, who is superintendent

of schools in one of our larger cities, asked me if I would test four boys for him, boys decidedly mentally retarded; sixteen and seventeen years of age, who had never been able to complete fourth grade school work. The superintendent tried the tests first in order to get some idea of their difficulty. On the "wiggley" block he spent eighteen minutes in putting the pieces together. One of the boys then did the same thing in a minute and a half with ease. We asked him to do it several times, to make certain that it was not luck, and every time he did it easily in a minute and a half. The superintendent was a brilliantly intellectual man, but lacked mechanical ability almost completely. The boy, on the other hand, was almost a mechanical genius, but possessed no school ability. At the time we saw the boy he had been associated with younger children so long, and had been told so many times that he was a complete failure, that his whole personality had been warped out of shape, and it was impossible to do anything for him. I cannot help feeling, however, that if the first year he failed on school work he had been given to understand that he was outstanding mechanically, and had been trained along mechanical lines, he might have been made into a selfsupporting, contributing member of society. Now he is in a school for abnormal children, and will always continue living at the expense of the state.

This year I am specializing on executive ability, and attempting to study the executive exactly as, in the past, we have studied the mechanic, the clerk, and the engineer. That is, we are trying to see if we can find something which even the executive can do well.

When we turn to the executive we find almost the general intelligence for which we have been seeking. We find with the executive a group of men who do a large number of things well. Imagine four such disconnected tests as we have been discussing. Should sixteen unselected executives come into our laboratory, one out of the sixteen would do all four tests well, and one out of sixteen do all four poorly. Eight more of the sixteen executives would do three of the four tests well. That is, among executives we find a group of men who do a large number of things surprisingly well, and yet even their ability is not a truly general ability, but a collection of abilities any one of which may be lacking.

I remember one executive in particular whom I tested in New York a few months ago. He looked at the tests and said, "Anyone can do those. That is just common sense. I would not have anyone in my organization who could not do all of those things well." And he offered instantly to prove it by trying the tests himself. I gave him the number checking and he did it rapidly and accurately, obtaining a high A score, and pushed it aside contemptuously, saying, "Next." I gave him a test for personality, and again he obtained a high A score and once again pushed it aside with his contemptuous "Next," which began to disturb me a little. I hoped he would do something poorly.

I gave him a test for English Vocabulary, and he obtained next to the highest score of anyone who had taken it up to that time. I tried to

explain that it was an outstanding performance, but he was not particularly interested. He was a little disappointed that he was next to the highest, but, except for that, he once more pushed it aside contemptuously with his maddening, "Next."

I gave him the "wiggley" blocks. After about five minutes I heard his stenographer who was in the next office carefully get up and close the door between the two rooms. You may remember that he scored unusually high in vocabulary. After some twenty-one minutes he finally succeeded in getting the blocks together. It was inconceivable to him that there was something of this kind which he simply could not do, and he insisted on taking it right over again. He improved, improved about as much as the average man improves when he repeats the test. It was interesting that he took it much more to heart than I had any notion he would do, and wrote me some weeks later that he had never been able to understand why, in all his life, he had lost money investing in freak mechanical schemes. Now he would hire an engineer to advise him and attempt to do no more mechanical thinking.

This man could do almost everything well, and yet on this one thing he was as poor as anyone who has ever taken the test. If his ability had been truly general, it would have helped him a little in solving the block. The fact that he was so poor shows that he has a large collection of abilities, with this particular one missing.

Another interesting executive characteristic which we have attempted to measure might be called personality. Many attempts have been made to divide personality into types. A few weeks ago a book appeared which divided men into bromides and sulphides. The one is the ordinary, commonplace individual who does more or less what one expects him to do. The sulphide is more unusual, apt to do the unexpected, perhaps more original. Girls in Bryn Mawr College have two slang words which express much the same notion, for they call their friends "jiggers" and "goons." I am never quite certain which are the jiggers and which the goons, but the one, again, is the commonplace individual who does the expected, the other the extraordinary unusual person.

A German physiologist has divided men in somewhat the same way, more scientific, for he uses more scientific names and calls them "cycloids" and "schizoids." The cycloid is the round, fatter, jolly individual, who may lose his temper momentarily, but soon forgets it. The schizoid, on the other hand, is the long, lean, lanky individual, with long, thin, dangling arms and legs, who may carry a grudge for years without allowing it to come to the surface. And yet even this explanation is not really scientific, for one cannot place a man on scales, and if he weighs over one hundred and fifty say he is a cycloid, and if he weighs less a schizoid.

We wanted, if possible, to find an objective way of measuring personality, and so we decided to say to a man the word "tiger," and ask him to answer the first word which came to his mind connected with "tiger," or associated in some way with "tiger."

One man answered "milk." I have trained myself never to look surprised no matter what answer I receive, but evidently I did not live up to my training, for he said, "You look surprised." I answered that I was sorry, that I tried my best not to. He explained that every Christmas he received a case of Scotch from a friend in Washington and, as it is not legal to mark a package "Scotch," his friend always wrote on the outside "tiger's milk."

It happened that the very next person whom I tested answered "butter" to exactly the same word. He had been reading aloud to his youngsters evenings a book for children called *Black Sambo*, which describes a thing called "tiger butter."

Another man, when I said "tiger," answered "tiger." He was a lover of Blake's poem, reading "Tiger, tiger, burning bright, in the forests of the night."

Of a thousand men whom we tested, only one answered "milk," only one "butter," only one "tiger." These were three unique individuals, different from everyone else. A cartoonist could draw them, the man who receives a case of Scotch from a friend in Washington, the man who reads *Black Sambo* to his youngsters evenings, the man who is a lover of Blake.

Among the same thousand persons, two hundred and eighty answered "tiger-animal," and one hundred and eighty others "tiger-lion." The fact that so many agree in giving the same response seems to affect their whole personality. I think I probably feel this more than the average person, for whenever I say to an audience of this kind, "One man answered 'tiger-milk,'" I see surprised faces everywhere, and I cannot help wondering for a moment just what I said, whether I said exactly what I intended to say or not. In a talk of this kind one's thoughts are always a little ahead of what one is actually saying, and when I see the surprised faces I cannot help feeling that I must have said something which I did not intend to say. The man who naturally gives an unusual response must see this same surprise. Consequently he becomes quieter, a little slower to respond, and gradually draws more and more into himself, and becomes what we call the introvert type. The man, on the other hand, who responds "tiger-animal," sees the greater part of the audience nod their heads almost unconsciously. He realizes that he is receiving the approval of the multitude. He pushes himself ahead and becomes the aggressive, executive, sales or extravert type.

We have recently measured a large number of salesmen and executives with this particular test. In a group of eighty salesmen we found as many who scored subjectively or introvert as who graded objectively or extravert, and yet, when we actually analyzed their sales records, we found that the extravert group had, as a group, sold ninety-five percent more than the introvert. We have checked this in two other organizations and, although we almost always find as many subjective salesmen as objective, we find almost invariably that the objective group are the high sellers.

The test does not work as well with executives. On the whole executives are objective, but there are many exceptions. We divided our group of foremen into those who are objective and those who are subjective, and found that the subjective group as a whole, that is, the "tiger-milk" or "tiger-butter" individuals, have had twice as many complaints made against their decisions as against the "tiger-animal" kind of men. We also found that, when these complaints have been investigated, eighty percent of the decisions of the subjective foreman have been reversed, whereas seventy percent of the decisions of the objective foreman have been confirmed. The objective man, the "tiger-animal" or "tiger-lion" man apparently can stand away from the world, see it from the outside, see the other man's problems more fairly than can the subjective individual.

Many persons look upon this fixity of human ability in a pessimistic way. It seems to me that the exact opposite is nearer the truth. We call the man who plays the piano more perfectly than his contemporaries, or the one who paints more beautiful pictures, a genius. Is not the boy who assembles the "wiggley" blocks sixty times faster than another a genius in his own way? And if we can guide him to the type of work where he can use his peculiar ability, will he not become as great a genius, in his own field, as the pianist or the painter? Either one of these, had he happened upon some occupation other than music or art would, in all probability, have failed; and so with the boy who assembles the "wiggley" blocks in record time. Unless he happens upon the particular type of work where he can use this ability, he will, in all probability, fail.

What can we do to help boys and girls to develop these particular executive characteristics? Apparently very little to help them increase the number of abilities. These are fairly fixed. Certainly after the age of twelve we can do very little. We can, on the other hand, do much towards saving those who have this large collections of abilities. I have been following for the past five years six people who do unusually well in everything. They were the only five or six who had done unusually well in practically every test. I felt that they were outstanding. Yet today they are no further along than they were five years ago. Apparently they had shifted too much. One started in using his clerical ability. Then he felt he was not using his mechanical ability. Soon he felt he wasn't realizing his full complement of ability. You will find that among this whole group one thing is evident: they are restless, they are constantly wanting to shift.

I made the statement that we would hesitate to hire a person who was good in a large number of things. When we find such a person we ought to follow him very carefully, to shift him conscientiously from one thing to another with some aim in view. For instance, if we find a person who is unusually good in number checking but also good in the "wiggley" blocks we won't put him in accounting work. This would use only one of his abilities; he would be restless. We would put that particular person on cost accounting. So we try in that way to place each particular person very carefully.

With younger persons who have four or five abilities, it is almost impossible to place them instantly. Therefore, they must be shifted and yet shifted with a plan. After five years it should lead them further along than they were at the beginning.

The second executive ability that we found was that he did unusually well in his own particular field. We can do for any girl or boy simply by placing him on the work for which he is best fitted. He can then go ahead in that line, and he will not only succeed but he will instantly feel the confidence which success gives, which is sometimes more important than the success itself. This confidence is very important.

The third executive characteristic, the objective or subjective personality, we do not yet understand. We do not know whether a person can constantly change his attitude toward life. We find exactly the same standards among a group of boys of twelve as we do among adults. We do not change very much as time goes on. As a group there is no change at all. Apparently not a great many shift either. Apparently even that personal view toward life is a fairly fixed thing.

The fourth characteristic, wide general knowledge, we can give to almost anyone. We find that the learning curve continues to rise even up to as late as thirty. Even up to thirty-five men can consciously develop wide general knowledge. A great many persons look with pessimism on this fixed ability. It seems to me that we ought not to view it that way. We think of a talented musician who transports us with his exquisite melodies, as a genius; we think of a painter who paints wonderful pictures, as a genius. It seems to me that the boy who puts the "wiggley" blocks together sixty times faster than another is a genius, and if we can guide this ability in the right line of work, he should be guided so that he can become a genius in his line. In other lines he would probably be a failure. He must be guided where he can use that outstanding ability, and unless we can guide him in that kind of work we can only expect him to be a disappointment.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First Session, February 27, 2 P. M.

The 15th regular meeting of the National Association of Deans of Women was called to order by the President, Miss Stimson, on February 27, 1928, at 2 P. M., at the Copley Plaza, Boston, Mass.

The minutes of two Executive Committee meetings were read.

Mrs. Franklin, chairman of the local committee on arrangements, extended greetings to the Association.

It was *voted* to accept the recommendation of the Executive Committee that members whose membership has lapsed, may on their request be re-instated on the payment of dues for the current year and one preceding year.

The following committee reports were accepted and placed on file: That of the headquarters secretary, Gwladys Jones; those of the treasurer and auditor, presented by Miss Hefley; that of the president, Miss Stimson; that of the Press and Publications Committee, given by Miss Husband; and that of the Research Committee, given by Miss Smithies.

The report of the Membership Committee was given by Mrs. Durand. It was *voted* to accept the report, apart from the recommendations, and place it on file.

It was *voted* to refer to the Committee on Revision of Bylaws the question of defining honorary membership.

It was *voted* to elect to honorary membership Miss Eleanor L. Lord and Mrs. Anne C. E. Allinson.

It was moved and seconded that the Association appoint a committee to investigate the desirability and possibility of establishing a national registry for deans. It was *voted* to amend the motion by substituting "the chair" for "the Association." The motion as amended was tabled.

The report of the Health Committee was given by Miss Pierce. It was *voted* to accept the report, apart from the recommendations, and place it on file. It was *voted* to refer the recommendations of the Health Committee to the Executive Committee for consideration and to report to the Association at its next business meeting.

The report of the Committee on the Revision of By-Laws was given by Miss Hathorn.

It was *voted* to revise Article III, Section 5, to read as follows:

Section 5. The title of life member shall be conferred upon any active member who pays seventy-five dollars, the sum to be paid in one payment, or in three annual payments of twenty-five dollars each. She shall be exempt from the payment of further annual dues after the first payment has been made.

It was *voted* to revise Article III, Section 7, to read as follows:

Section 7. A member who, after two notices have been sent her, fails to pay her annual dues by October 1st in any year, shall forfeit her membership and other benefits of the Association.

It was *voted* to revise Article V, Section 3, to read as follows:

Section 3. Forty active members shall constitute a quorum.

It was *voted* to refer the revision of Article VIII, Section 1, to the Teacher Training Section.

Section 1. The term "deans of women in teacher training institutions" shall be substituted for the term "deans of women in normal schools and state teachers colleges."

It was *voted* to refer the revision of Article IV, Section 6, to the Executive Committee.

Section 6. The Health Committee shall consist of five members, of which the president of the Association shall be one. The chairman of this committee shall name one active member, for membership in the Women's Foundation of Health, who shall represent the Association at the meetings of the Foundation for a term of three years.

Meeting adjourned.

Business Session, March 1, 1928, 9:30 A. M.

A business session of the National Association of Deans of Women was held on Thursday, March 1, 1928, at 9:30 A. M., at the Copley Plaza.

The minutes of two Executive Committee meetings were read for information. The minutes of the general business meeting were read and approved.

Voted, on recommendation of the Teachers College and Normal School Section, to allow Article VIII, Section 1, of the Bylaws to stand as it now is.

Voted to accept the recommendation of the Executive Committee that the Committee on Relations to Other Organizations discover and report to the 1929 Convention the movements and material available from these professional organizations and, until this information is presented to the Association in conference,

we recommend that the Health Committee of the National Association of Deans of Women suspend its activities and, by so doing, this will make possible a definition and direction of further policy for the National Association of Deans of Women in the field of health.

The report of the Committee on Intellectual and Educational Policies was given by Miss Brewster. *Voted* to accept the report, apart from the recommendation, and place it on file. Each of these three recommendations was voted upon separately and adopted.

Voted to approve the recommendation of the Executive Committee to refer to the Committee on Revision of the Bylaws the recommendation that the organization be put on a purely professional basis and that a report of this revision be made at the 1929 meeting.

Voted to accept the recommendation of the Executive Committee that the matter of re-instatement of members whose membership has lapsed be referred to the Committee on Revision of Bylaws for incorporation in the Bylaws.

The report of the Committee on Relations to Other Organizations was given by Miss Robinson. *Voted* to accept the report and place it on file, referring the accompanying resolutions to the Resolutions Committee for incorporation in its report.

An informal report of the Headquarters Committee was given by Miss Rose.

The report of the Committee on Sororities was given by Miss Wells. *Voted* to accept the report with the accompanying resolution. *Voted* to continue the committee giving them power to add to their number such members as they desire to carry on the study recommended by the committee.

The report of the Nominating Committee was given by Miss Lydia Jones. It was *voted* to accept the report and instruct the Secretary to cast a unanimous ballot. The Secretary therefore declared the following officers elected:

First Vicepresident, Helen M. Smith, College for Women, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

Secretary, Mary W. Sawyer, Brookline High School, Brookline, Mass.

The report of the Budget Committee was given by Mrs. McLean. *Voted* to accept the report with the recommendation that, in order to clarify it, the registration fee for the 1929 Conference be struck out of the estimated receipts for 1929 and that \$300 be deducted from the contingent fund, making it \$211.23.

The report of the Resolutions Committee was given by Miss Stapleton. The first six resolutions were adopted.

It was *voted* to add a resolution that cordial greetings be expressed to the American Association of University Women in appreciation of their cooperation in furthering the development of our Association.

Resolutions on the death of Association members and on the death of Miss Cratty of the National Y. W. C. A. were adopted with a rising vote.

The resolution that this Association go on record as favoring for deans professional training in addition to the B. A. degree from institutions accredited by the American Association of Universities was referred, after discussion, to a special committee to be appointed by the chair and to report at the 1929 convention.

It was *voted* to accept the resolution recommending sabbatical leave for teachers amended to include "with whole or part salary."

Voted to empower the Executive Committee to approve the minutes for publication in the Yearbook.

On motion, the meeting adjourned.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, Eva G. Pinkston, Principal, Sam Houston School, Dallas, Texas; *First Vicepresident*, Helen B. Shove, Principal, Longfellow School, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Second Vicepresident*, John Sparge, Principal, Ashland School, East Orange, N. J.; *Third Vicepresident*, F. H. Duffy, Principal, Harding School, Steubenville, Ohio; *Fourth Vicepresident*, Cassie F. Roys, Principal, Walnut Hill School, Omaha, Nebr.; *Fifth Vicepresident*, A. J. Hamilton, Principal, University Elementary School, Berkeley, Calif.; *Secretary*, Herbert C. Hansen, 315 Plymouth Court, Chicago, Ill.; *Executive Committee*: Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, Principal, Buchanan School, Grand Rapids, Mich. (Term expires 1929); M. E. Peterson, Principal, Twentieth Street School, Los Angeles, Calif. (Term expires 1930); Elizabeth McCormick, Principal, Howe School, Superior, Wis. (Term expires 1931); John Merrill, Principal, Lingermann School, 567 Montclair Ave., Detroit, Mich. (Term expires 1932). This Department meets twice each year—in February and July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier volumes of *Proceedings* as follows:

1921:453
1922:851-886

1923:653-666
1924:545-564

1925:450-477
1926:457-495

1927:419-456

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

W. O. THOMPSON, PRESIDENT EMERITUS, OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY,
COLUMBUS, OHIO

THE widespread interest in religious education presents two features, first, the conviction on the part of religious people that the ideals embodied in religion should be carried forward to the next generation, and second, that the leaders in public schools have declared that there is something lacking in our education which the new emphasis on the spiritual and the religious would provide.

Three views—As has been pointed out repeatedly there are conflicting views concerning religious education. These may be briefly stated as: First, the theory that education is exclusively the function of the state. This view opens the road toward the secularization of education or looks toward such a union of the church and the state as would permit the church to be the agent of the state. The second view is that all education is the function of the church. The Roman Catholics having coincided closely with this. Their support of the parish school and their insistence upon the religious education of the children is the best evidence of the fundamental character of their belief. The third view is that education is the function of the state while reserving the religious education for the church and the home. Under this view the state does not undertake to cover the entire field of education but leaves the religious and the spiritual to the church and the home, except insofar as the religious view is caught rather than taught by contact with the more mature mind of the teacher. Obviously here is an attempt to divide the indivisible, and to separate the inseparable. Both religion and education are a part of life. While no formal adherence may be acknowledged, it will be noted that all religion is educational and all education carries with it something of the idealism of religion. At present we are trying to patch up this education by supplementary processes. We are so determined in our political science that the church and the state must be kept separate, that we are forced into a difficult situation when we undertake to teach, no matter what the subject may be. Parents cannot teach the principles of ordinary domestic life without at the same time teaching the fundamental principles underlying all government. The majority of parents, however, do not regard themselves as professors of political science. It is equally true that all instruction in religion carries with it some education. It is a teaching process no matter whether it is done in the home, in the pulpit, or by example of daily conduct. The difficulty of separating religion and education arises out of the fact that both have to do with all life processes.

The materials—The general statement may be made that the open Bible is the principal and most important textbook in religious education. All other books are commentaries, observations, helps, and are auxiliaries

to the Bible itself as the source material from which religious education gathers its enthusiasm.

This statement, however, is too general to be entirely satisfactory to many teachers. Scholars present these varying interpretations in their writings. Familiarity with these differing, if not opposing, interpretations, challenges the allegiance of the ordinary teacher who makes no pretension to original ability in the matter of interpretation. Recognizing that the content of the Bible is the subjectmatter of religious instruction we also recognize the open door to the divisions characterizing modern religious life. This is due to the presence of two elements, namely authority and freedom. Authoritative interpretation determines at once the character and content of our teaching. The right of private judgment opens the way for variety and eventually for division. This presents at once the difficulty of uniting the teaching body of the country in the matter of religious instruction. We cannot fail to recognize in all this division that the body of knowledge obtained from the Bible when once acquired will constitute the basis on which our religious education proceeds. This is but to recognize the general principle in our experience that knowledge of any subject constitutes the starting point and the background for our progress. In some such way the more complete the knowledge of the Bible the better the background. The more accurate the interpretation the more reliable will be the teaching. The clearer the view of the Scripture the more definite the teaching will be. Spiritual enthusiasm is the basis of our desire to inspire others to the same ideals and loyalties which have values for us.

Recognizing these situations the several religious denominations and some independent organizations have undertaken to supply such helps and to provide such literature as would render the task of the teacher more intelligent and somewhat easier. These same people have undertaken to set up for the teachers of the country the principles of education and the application of these principles to religion. Much credit is due to many of our leaders for their service in showing the application of sound psychological principles and methods in the processes of religious education. This work begins with the story-telling processes for the kindergarten in our Sunday schools and does not end until it has influenced the scholar in his study of Biblical criticism, or his development of the most exacting questions of theology, or his interpretation of the social values in both the Old Testament and the New Testament. These scholars have greatly assisted in the larger views of the Bible. In a score of fields they have demonstrated that the Bible is the finest kind of source material for the student of religion and for the inspiration of the teachers of religion.

Difficulties—The problems of religious education are not all inherent in the subject. Reference has already been made to some of these inherent difficulties.

In our day we are having the revival of that old warfare between religion and science which seems even more virulent than in the preceding

generation. Many have appeared to assume that this conflict is inevitable and without remedy. They have been so definite in their statements as to impress the uninformed mind as to the impossibility of a reconciliation between these opposing views. They have gone even further and intimated that where an individual attempts a reconciliation in his own mind, he demonstrates by that attempt his own incompetency. Others have felt that such an assumed conflict requires them to put an exaggerated emphasis upon one or the other, or minimize importance in one case or the other. Still others have developed a dogmatic and unreasoning attitude toward either religion or science or both. All this, of course, is a matter of sincere regret and makes no contribution to enlargement in religious matters or progress in living. The situation must be faced. We must deal with people as they are. Let me remark, therefore, that this conflict, if it be a conflict, does not constitute an argument against religious education. Such an assumed conflict, or if it be a real conflict, does not constitute an insurmountable barrier. It rather constitutes a challenge that we attempt a solution of the difficulty. It may be remarked, therefore, that Christianity being a religion of truth and freedom is continuously at war with error. It comes into the world as a proposal to correct existing conditions and to open up a way of life. No intelligent person ever assumes that the progress of Christianity is free from conflict with all sorts of error. There is, then, no sound basis for discouragement in the mere fact of conflict. The discouraging feature arises out of the personal element in the conflict. It is not so much that two philosophies are in disagreement, or that two interpretations of history are made, or that current views of the ordinary problems of life are difficult to harmonize, but that the personal differences manifest antagonisms, ill feeling, a contentious spirit, and other qualities which are destructive of both religion and education. It is a sort of travesty when men fight over varying philosophies on the assumption that they are proclaiming the gospel of Our Divine Lord. Any real inherent difficulties in religious education, therefore, lie too frequently in closed minds, dogmatic minds, prejudiced minds, or the minds unwilling to open to the light as the flower to the sunlight.

Another issue in religious education arises out of the adjustment necessary in representing the religious ideas as contained in the Scriptures to children and youth. The inquiring mind of the child needs the most careful and sympathetic guidance. Child psychology has made a long stride in the last two decades but we are not so well assured of our position as to be able to speak with confidence concerning all the methods used, the adjustments tried, and the experiments under way. Contributions on the religious training of children reveal quite distinctly the theological or religious views of the writer. This is to be expected. However, it presents a real problem in our efforts to secure unanimity in a community program. The views that people hold concerning the Bible are quite apt to influence the teaching. There is a difference of opinion among adults as to how far the teaching may suggest to the child's mind the

differing views concerning the Scriptures. Many people resent one view, and an equal number, probably, resent a different view. The difficulty is a certain dogmatism. Certain questions as to the historical character of portions of the Old Testament and questions regarding its truthfulness and its authority are presented in a very positive way.

Religious instruction, therefore, is faced with the practical issue whether the Bible may be studied in a manner similar to other books. The authoritative method has prevailed throughout the conservative circles. Quite apart from their religious views concerning the Bible these people have been disposed to feel that it was the privilege or the duty of the older generation to tell the younger generation what it should think and what it should believe. At this point the youth under modern methods of instruction are quite apt to revolt.

On the other hand the so-called liberal method of treatment proceeds without recognizing any divine or supernatural authority in the Bible. These people often become extremely dogmatic and definite in their teaching. Occasionally they affirm in a very definite way positions which scholars stoutly deny. In fact the scholars of the world will probably never be able to settle certain interesting and important issues in the Bible. In all this area it is unwise to be dishonest or untruthful. It is quite as unwise to be ignorant and dogmatic. These things are suggested because they are sources out of which many difficulties arise. The conservative is suspicious of liberal, and the liberal suspects the conservative. There is evidence of a considerable prejudice in the minds of people who study or attempt to teach the Scriptures. We are quite apt, under these circumstances, to be giving religious education a black eye.

Remedies—At the outset let me suggest that a change in our method of procedure would be of some assistance.

One does not need to reflect very long to be convinced that the dogmatic method of instruction has seriously interfered with religious teaching. It is obvious that a great many people have held the Bible in such sacred relation that they cannot understand how its authority can be discussed in the classroom without great danger. The Bible has been hedged about with certain theories concerning its authority, its inspiration and its historical character in such a way as to cause a great many people much distress of mind if they discover that anything like a scientific test is to be applied to the Scriptures. The more courageous people have conquered their fears and believe that the Bible will stand the test of careful research, and that eventually it will be on stronger ground because of that fact. It is not the purpose of this paper to advocate a particular theory of the Bible. The purpose is simply to attract attention to the question of applying the scientific method to the Scriptures without arousing a prejudice that practically prohibits a wide use of it.

Furthermore, it should be noted that the teaching of the Bible is one thing, and its doctrinal interpretation is a different thing. It would be most unfortunate if every teacher should undertake an interpreta-

tion. The truth is that the church and scholars vary in their interpretations of many Scripture readings; and further, that the church, in its several denominations, is divided upon the questions of interpretation. They are united upon the fact that the Bible is accepted as the source of religious instruction. The teaching process, therefore, in religious education, especially in the community ideas, will confine itself to subjectmatter and incidentally result in a favorable point of view as to the Bible.

All such questions as interpretation, of Christian decision, denominational preferences, and others, must be left entirely to the church as an institution, and the preacher as an agent or herald, acting only on their own right and premise. The teacher can rarely, if ever, properly be made an evangelist. Evangelists may be teachers, and ought to be, but not all teachers may be evangelists.

The fundamental question with teaching religion is, as I see it, that at the heart of things it is a great appeal for the individual to adjust himself with God. It is a matter of his life, the quality of it, and the character to be developed. It involves, also, his relations to others. These are essentially religious, spiritual, and moral issues. The teacher is primarily an intellectual teacher, although not exclusively so. Where a denominational or ecclesiastical organization permits, teachers may combine. This is the sound plea made by the Christian school as compared to the secular school. In community schools, under the provision of the vacation daily Bible school, where people attend voluntarily, the teacher has larger freedom to supplement his intellectual methods with an evangelistic appeal, or with any other appeal approved by the religious constituency. It should be well recognized, therefore, that there are certain limitations in a free public school which cannot be ignored. There are certain superior opportunities of perfect freedom in a school where the religious ideal is frankly the basis of teaching.

Certain objectives—In the closing paragraphs it may be well to suggest the objectives usually present in the minds of religious teachers. First of all, I think, we should everywhere agree that the great search of the human spirit for God needs to be made attractive and effective. Our teaching, therefore, should form the basis upon which the matured life of the individual, may find his belief in God a source of increasing satisfaction and happiness.

A second objective will be the proper conception of ourselves. Children desire to know who they are. Older people have the same desire although it becomes a much larger issue. Religious instruction is, with most people, based on the theory that the Bible presents a picture of people in their most vital and important relations. It is important that our children shall understand what it is to be a child of God and that their mature years may bring to them the significance of the brotherhood of man.

From another point of view it becomes important that life shall be properly seen and interpreted as our intelligence develops and our age increases.

The important issue is that these changes may be in the direction of the spiritual idealism set up in the Scriptures.

Summing up what we have in mind it may be said that all religious instruction will find its great inspiration in the development and maintenance of the God-like character in man. It encompasses the moral excellence usually believed to be found in their complete harmony with the life of the One who has been amply described as the chief among the thousands, the One altogether lovely.

CHARACTER TRAINING IN THE HOME

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I want you to know the Parent-Teacher Council of Minneapolis appreciates the honor and the courtesy extended when you invited a mother to speak to you. It makes us feel very happy, for it makes us feel that we are more and more becoming allied in the big job of developing the right kind of citizens, which is the common ground upon which school and home meet. But what can I tell you, a group of educators, about character as it is developed in the home? "For our children speak so loud; you cannot hear what I say."

Never before have parents shown such a keen interest in their children's development, never before have they striven so hard to comprehend the newer methods in education.

We comprehend that among the new phases of endeavor that have engaged you educators is character education. As I understand it, it does not contemplate that children shall study character as they study arithmetic or geography, but rather that incidentally and by indirection the teacher shall guide the child toward the higher moral values.

The school is a powerful agency for good, but it should not be forced into taking more than its share of this character-building responsibility, for after all specifically and primarily, schools are maintained for the purpose of academic and vocational education and should be supplementary to the home, whose purpose is to serve as a brooding place for citizenship. But at the present time I feel this responsibility is being shifted more and more to the public schools. This is perhaps natural, as the schools are highly organized while homes are not and while character training is an integral part of the right kind of teaching, still it is time parents grasped and took to themselves the vital truth that we should not send our children to a school as raw material is sent to a factory.

Life's mightiest forces are the intangibles, so how are parents to go about this job of training children that they may become acceptable members of society? When we study classifications of the qualities that go to make up character it is rather disheartening. And when reflection brings to mind that we can give only what we have, it is appalling. Our con-

solation must be that there is no perfect parent, and, our effort, some reasonable approach toward good character in ourselves, because in our children the finished product will bear the imperfections of the mold in which it grew.

The dominant home influence is not the kind of instruction that the child directly gets from its father and mother, but the indirect instruction it gets from its father's and mother's own life attitudes. Children do not learn from copy-book maxims. They learn from example. They do not learn nearly so much from what their parents tell them as from the way they see their parents behave.

In the upbringing of children there is nothing we need more than some method, surer than the passing sensation of the moment, for determining what is the real significance of any given act. How easy it is for us to imagine our own comfort and our children's morality as one and the same thing. For, as a rule, if the adults in any home enjoy comfortable peace, the conclusion is the children in that home must be good.

Most children have to learn to survive as best they can the wildly varying extremes of an ethical temperature that is determined, not by things as they are, but by things as they happen to affect their elders. They must learn to emulate the patient philosophy of the little boy who upon being asked what wicked thing he had done that his mother should scold him so, explained briefly: "Oh, Mother's got an awful headache today." Under such a system what ideas of right and wrong will the children themselves learn? Will they not have the conception that a good action is something done when one's mother is feeling well and good natured, a bad one, anything done when she has a headache.

Children afford us a virgin field in which to work. Because, coming into the world as raw material, they have in them the very elements that make it easy for us to plant and cultivate; that is, the native tendencies of the child. Those tendencies are the channels through which the child draws to himself the impressions that mold him. His sympathy develops love; his parental love inclines him to obedience; his tendency to imitate leads him to copy what we do, be it good or bad; his desire for approval makes him do the things we commend him for; his curiosity is a vast cavity that we may fill with material of our own choosing; and through his sense of justice he may be taught to be just to others by our being just to him.

But the child has other tendencies and instincts that do not lend themselves to our work—the instinct of selfpreservation, selfishness, anger, and others—that must be suppressed or diverted.

In fact, directing and in some measure controlling the instincts and tendencies of the child is about the sum of our endeavor in character building.

I am rather a believer in the theory of heredity in matters of mental and moral quality. I believe that every human being has within him certain ineradicable virtues and vices, some near the surface and others so

deeply buried that they rarely if ever show themselves. But I do not follow the advocate of the theory of heredity who says the human quality cannot be modified by environment. He preaches a cold and heartless doctrine. If it be a true doctrine, then the ills of humanity can only be alleviated by selective parentage, and the age-long endeavors of churches and schools and men and women to teach children love of God and love of their fellowmen are so much waste effort.

But undoubtedly in the beginning the child is what he is, and undoubtedly he retains in some degree all of his inherent characteristics. As I see the problem, it is to bring out and develop the virtues so that they will overshadow and smother the vices, just as a strong and healthy plant will protect itself against the weeds. Whether an inherent vicious tendency is rooted out is not so important. Our purpose is well served if he prevent the expression of it; for whatever may be the inherent tendencies or qualities, vice is vice only when it is expressed in word or thought or deed.

We teach best the things we live and we cannot hide our lives from our children. It is astonishing, and sometimes embarrassing, to learn how open their eyes, and ears have been, how keen their observation, and how completely our thoughts are absorbed and how accurately reflected. Little children are mirrors of our own lives, with the difference that the reflection does not disappear with us.

Honesty cannot be taught by a dishonest teacher. I speak now of honesty in its fullest sense, and not merely as indicating that a man does not steal or deliberately lie. The little subterfuges and deceptions, the evasions and equivocations that we are so likely to resort to when we want to avoid embarrassment or effort or what not, does not escape the keen young eyes that are always upon us. We may get by once, we may get by several times, but when the realization comes that father or mother is no longer the paragon of honesty but has feet of clay, what may at first be disappointment is invariably succeeded by imitation, for filial love and respect still hold up the parent as the model to which the child should conform. Insincerity is a dangerous thing. To pretend before guests that the feast that is spread on the board in their honor is only an example of the daily fare, or to pretend the behavior of the children is far below normal, breeds insincerity and deception in the hearts of little ones.

Love and reverence is not taught by being harsh and unkind in the home, or by being disrespectful and intolerant toward others. Nor is it taught by sermonizing. The children get it when they see it lived. If they have kindness and courtesy, they do not need to be taught politeness. Without them politeness is mere artificiality, which sometimes develops cunning.

Most good teaching is done by permitting the child to draw his own conclusions from what he sees and hears and by letting him dig things out for himself. All we need to do is to provide the opportunity, and that can be done by doing things or suggesting things instead of telling

about them directly, and by putting in his way the books we want him to read and the objects we want him to study. The end to be sought is not commanding the child what he must do, but permitting him to learn what he ought to do.

Now I might go on and tell you that the greatest trouble in the home today is the selfishness of parents. They do not like their children enough to be friends with them. They shirk the anxiety and responsibility of loving. Men want to play golf with other Olympians on Saturday afternoons instead of taking Harry or George out fishing. Women want to read the last best seller to themselves instead of reading Peter Rabbit to the toddler.

But this is no brief on the inadequacy of the home. You know what its shortcomings are as well as I do; but I do want you to know there is being made the same concentrated effort on the part of thoughtful parents to teach children to live that you are making in the schools.

Now I realize I haven't brought anything new to you, but what is there new to bring? The finest rules for right living that have ever been evolved date back to the time of Moses.

What we parents need to do is to teach our children "The Ten Commandments," have them understand them, practice them, and get enjoyment out of such practice, and when we are able to do this we shall hear no more of the inadequacy of the home, for we shall have produced a generation of children developed as they might be.

CHARACTER TRAINING IN THE PRESCHOOL CHILD

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Whether it is intentional or not, the young child before he enters school has received training which is so fundamental that it may exert an enormous influence on all his later life. At first thought it may seem that some neglected children are receiving no training at all. This is the point of view of the old lady who congratulated her friend on having a "son with no habits." As a matter of fact, the child who is neglected by his parents is receiving very definite training from the rest of his environment. Through first hand experience, he is learning how to dominate his playmates, how to escape punishment, and so on.

The training of practically all children of preschool age is in the hands of the parents with some incidental help or hindrance from the playmates in the neighborhood. Recently, however, a number of nursery schools have sprung up in which a large share of the training of the child is taken over by teachers. In a number of ways it is much easier for the teacher than for the mother to direct a child in the acquisition of good habits. For one thing, the teacher has the child only six or seven hours a day. A mother who has been up most of the night with one sick child

is in no physical or mental state to steer another child through the difficulties of the following day. The second thing which makes the task an easier one for the teacher is that, although she may be very fond of each child, she does not take each little slip in behavior emotionally, as a "disgrace to the family" or a "reflection on her own handling of the child." She takes the child less personally.

This afternoon I am going to confine myself to a discussion of character training in the nursery school and shall tell you simply what we try to do in the way of character training in the nursery school of the Institute of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota. In this school we have 36 boys and girls from all classes of society, from minister's sons and deacon's daughters to the children of factory hands. The oldest four or five children will be entering kindergarten this fall, the youngest is barely two years old.

Starting with the notion that it is much easier to be good if you are well than if you are sick, we try first of all to keep the children in the best possible physical condition. This means that before the child comes to school at all, we ask the parents to have him vaccinated against small-pox, and given the diphtheria toxin-anti-toxin. It means several complete physical examinations during the year. It means a daily inspection of throat and chest by the nurse and the sending home of any child who gives any indication that morning of a cold or of a contagious disease. This is done partly for the sake of the individual child who would not be happy in an environment planned for well children, but it is done primarily in the hope of preventing the spread of any infection among the other children. When we have, then, an apparently healthy group in the school for the day, we try to give them a proper amount of exercise, of rest, and of well-selected and well-cooked food.

With the ideal of a perfect physique as a basis, we go on to help the child to acquire desirable habits, to lose any undesirable habits he may have already acquired, and to develop fundamentally sound attitudes toward himself, toward his playmates and toward his environment in general. Character is a psychic attitude, it is the quality and nature of an individual's approach to the environment in which he moves. How, then, shall we treat the child in order to give him a desirable attitude toward his environment?

We cannot react satisfactorily toward our environment unless we have a sane attitude toward ourselves. One of the most important things for the nursery school teacher to do is to teach the child his position in the group. This does not mean that we teach the child to become introspective or that we want him to keep constantly thinking of himself. On the contrary, we do sometimes have to work definitely toward counteracting the home atmosphere where the entire household, the entire world of the child, seems to revolve about him as a center. Out of our 36 children, about one third are either only children or have no sibling within five

years of their age. The children in this group, therefore, have received the entire attention of the adults of the family for the greater part of each day. When such a child comes to us, we have to teach him that in school he is not "lord of all he surveys" but only one of a group. He has to learn that each member of the group has the same privileges that he has himself, no more, no less. The over-aggressive child has to learn to restrain himself, to refrain from grabbing toys from younger and smaller children, and so on. Some other children, on the other hand, are encouraged to become more aggressive.

Not only do we try to teach each child to take his own place in the group, but we try to teach him to help himself, to rely on himself. With this end in view the children are encouraged to care for themselves as much as possible. To be sure, an adult can wash a three-year-old child's hands much more quickly and much cleaner than the child can himself. To be sure, the child is apt to become so thrilled in playing with the water and the soap that he forgets everything else. To be sure, he will probably spill the water a little on the floor or on his suit, but, after all, what of it? He is learning that the habit of clean hands is not all drudgery. He is learning the qualities of water and of soap. He will also learn a little later that damp cuffs are uncomfortable and that he should have been a little less splashy. Just because we adults think handwashing is an uninteresting duty to be gone through for the sake of a desirable result is no reason why we should take the joys connecting with handwashing away from the child. The child is not particularly interested in the resulting clean hands. It is only through years of experiencing clean hands that we come to prefer them to dirty hands. So why take away the joy of the process before the satisfaction in the result is achieved?

Next after the acquiring of a healthy body and a sound attitude toward himself and his duties and abilities, comes the importance of learning a wholesome respect for the rights of others. The children learn quickly that the play materials at the nursery school are the property of the school and not of any individual child. In contrast to these are the playthings which a child may happen to bring with him from home. A vast distinction is drawn between the two. If a child brings a toy to school some day, he is at liberty to use that toy as he wishes. He may put it away in his locker to be produced only at the conversation hour. He may play with it alone by himself or he may allow a few chosen friends to play with it for a time limit which he sets himself. The other children soon learn that the only way they can get a chance to play with Mary's doll which she brought from home is by being very polite to Mary and asking very nicely to be allowed to hold the doll, and by being very careful of the doll when it is lent. When Mary wants the doll back, then without question it is hers. Very different is the attitude toward school property. This last year we acquired a quite lovely new doll. The doll was laid on the doll-bed before the children arrived at school.

Two or three little girls came in from the playground, spied the doll, stood around her in an admiring ring, handled her very carefully and examined her costume. Then they laid her down again almost reverently and turned to the nearest teacher to ask "Whom does the doll belong to?" When they were told that the doll belonged to the school, there was a whoop of joy and the children raced back to the corner in their anxiety to be the first one to play with the doll. In order to emphasize this question of ownership, the school provides of some types of equipment less than enough to go around. Thus there are only a few swings, only one slide, only eight kiddie-kars, and so on. The children are thereby forced to take turns, and taking turns is, it seems to me, one of the simplest and most fundamental points in learning a respect for the rights of others. It is an attitude which the children readily adopt.

Not only must the child learn proper attitudes toward his playmates but he must also learn correct attitudes toward the adults with whom he comes in contact. We try to bring out in the child a true courtesy. A visitor commented one day "I have never seen grown-ups so polite to children." The children are not required to fulfill the formalities of "please" and "thank you" accompanying each request. Too often have we heard children say "You've got to give it to me, because I said 'please.'" But the teachers are very careful themselves to approach a child politely when a request is made and to show appreciation when the child does what he is asked or does some task particularly well. We stress a pleasant voice and an agreeable expression more than the parrot-like repetition of phrases.

Children who are surrounded with courtesy will absorb some of that atmosphere and then give it out again. It may not work the first time, but it will after repeated efforts.

Another rule which governs the teachers' conduct is to make as few demands as possible and to stick to those few. This concept the children learn sometimes after many trials. They learn the vital fact that some things have to be done whether the individual wants to or not. They learn that when something has to be done, the teacher is deaf to refusals, she is deaf to teasing, she is ready to answer questions but she cannot be detoured from her purpose, she is above all deaf to such social devices as temper-tantrums. This sounds pretty harsh, perhaps, but remember that the teacher makes perfectly clear to the child what has to be done and what may be done if the child likes. Remember also that the request is made so pleasantly that most of the children are only too glad to do as the teacher asks. And remember that the child is let alone for long intervals and that requests are infrequent.

Still another teacher's rule is that of making suggestions positive and not negative. We have no desire to have a nursery school child think his name is "Don't." We try to keep the children busy at worthwhile occupations. We try to substitute a desirable occupation for an un-

desirable one. A child who is found trying to make the mud turtle stand on his head is taught a more reasonable treatment for turtles. Thus the child learns good habits and attitudes through the frequent repetition of the desirable act. Through emphasis on the right his attention becomes fixed on the right and in time he forgets to think of the wrong because his habits are set in the other direction. His experience has provided him with so many delightful occupations with pleasant outcomes that it is not worthwhile to try some uncertain piece of naughtiness with the chance of that greatest of punishments—disapproval and perhaps criticism by his elders and, worse yet, his comrades.

There is still another fundamental attitude which we try to instill in the preschool child. We try to give him a feeling of responsibility for his toys and other play equipment. In the first place we try to give him a broader sympathy and understanding by having a few animals at the school. All winter we have a canary and a bowl of gold-fish. In the summer we have rabbits. The children are much interested in watching the animals and in their feeding and cleaning. They are learning some natural history and they are learning something more important, a kindly attitude toward animals.

We believe also that the child should respect his toys. For that reason our equipment is not the flimsy tinny type that even a careful adult cannot keep whole outside of cotton-wool. Our equipment is the most durable we can find, but even so we expect the children to treat it with respect. They learn, for example, that toys must be brought in at night. They learn that each toy has a place where it belongs when not in use. They learn that if they spill sand on the floor they are expected to sweep it up. They learn that if milk is spilled at the table it must be wiped up. They learn to keep the toys in reasonable order. They learn that broken things cannot be immediately replaced. If a doll's head is broken, the accident is not at once rewarded by a new doll. No, indeed. The old doll is carefully mended and remains as a reminder of their carelessness or, if too badly broken, the doll is put away and there is for a considerable time no substitute in the "vacant chair."

I have said nothing about something which some of you probably think of as the chief point in character training and that is the elimination of bad habits. I have omitted this consideration deliberately because I want to give you the spirit of the school and the spirit in which I think all young children should be treated. Let us emphasize the good. Let us make the good, the interesting, the fascinating thing to do. Let us form good habits in the child before the poorer habits have a chance to take root. And when and if bad habits crop up let us keep them from becoming firmly established by the immediate and persistent substitution of desirable habits.

*A PROGRAM FOR THE DESIRABLE USE OF LEISURE TIME
AS A CARDINAL OBJECTIVE OF THE PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS*

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The topic for today was selected by the chairman from a list submitted to him. In seeking for someone familiar with providing materials and occupations for leisure time, he quite naturally assumed that no one should be better qualified than a representative of Coney Island, a summer resort, that entertains more than forty million visitors a year, a community that in a single day in mid-season takes care of 800,000 merry-makers, more than the entire population of one of our largest cities—Coney Island, a land of laughs and thrills, where democracy rubs elbows and forgets its cares for a day, Coney Island known far and wide as the playground of America.

A discussion of what the public schools can do and should do in training the children of America for the best uses of their leisure is very timely. Today working hours are shorter; leisure hours are longer; spending money is more abundant; opportunities for uplifting or debasing uses of time more numerous; homes ties less binding, companionships more varied, life more complicated, the influences of the street, the newspaper, the theater, the advertiser, the fashions and follies of the day more subtle and potent than ever before.

On our leisure occupations depend to a large measure individual and public health whether we shall choose ideals and practices that make for vigor, manliness, recreation, and relaxation from the nerve strain of modern life or companionships and vile practices that undermine and disintegrate.

On our leisure interests depend in large measure the integrity and happiness of the home—whether we shall use the fruits of our toils to strengthen and enrich the family associations or whether home shall be merely a place in which to eat and sleep and quarrel. On our leisure practices depends often our value as desirable citizens in our community, whether our pleasures and attitudes shall be such as make for cooperation, fellowship, and goodwill, or those that defy traditions, authority, law, and the rights of others. On our leisure interests depends to a large degree our character and our reputation. On our leisure avocations and hobbies often depend our vocational aptitudes and efficiency.

So much of our life and character is affected and determined by what we do in our spare time that it should not be left to chance. The training for leisure activities should not be in the hands of casual agencies, but it should be inspired and to some extent controlled by the influence of the greatest educative agency in America, the public schools which daily touch the lives of millions of children.

Ten years ago the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association promulgated a new defini-

tion and a new philosophy of education for democracy which aimed to reconcile the needs of the individual with those of society. The new program represented a fundamental revision of traditional school procedure. It implied an organization of the curriculum, not on the traditional vertical alignment of subjectmatter but on the horizontal basis of typical and essential activities and experiences of the kind in which every normal individual is expected to engage throughout the greater part of his life. In the past 90 percent of the time and energy of teaching and learning went into the job of mastering subjectmatter. This effort could not be justified either in terms of success in examinations or in terms of usability in the world. On the other hand when children are trained and disposed to do completely*the things they must do any way, mere subjectmatter and skills in tool subjects are subordinated to a place commensurate with their usefulness in the world, and pupil participation in worthwhile activities takes the place of dull indoctrination in adult wisdom. The new conception takes cognizance of both the sociological and the psychological implications of individual differences in children. All men are created equal, but it is what they are equal to that concerns the modern educator.

In order to carry out their recommendations the Commission set up seven major goals—seven cardinal objectives—habitual health, worthy home membership, vocational insight and guidance, efficient citizenship, ethical character, command of the fundamental tools of knowledge and social intercommunication, and training in the desirable use of leisure time. These goals are both immediate and ultimate. They apply to every school child now. They apply to every adult. They are not confined to pupils of the secondary schools. They are not mythical goals in a far distant future. They are not isolated and independent, but overlapping and interdependent, and must be discussed with reference to each other.

Ten years have passed since the report of the commission; readjustment has been slow. Of the 500 or more curriculum revisions during that period few have really departed from traditional practise, but the idea of education for democracy has moved forward. Today we are participating in a gigantic educational convention whose keynote is teaching citizenship in the schools. Today the Department of Elementary School Principals is convened to work out the essential problems of character training. Today you are assembled in this hall to consider a program of training for the desirable use of leisure time as one of the objectives coordinate with health and citizenship and character.

If we consider the recent wave of crime and juvenile delinquency that has swept over the country, we are brought face to face with a grave phase of the leisure problem. What brings so many mere boys into our courts and prisons? What makes our young men prefer the street corner, the gang, the racetrack, the poolroom, the night club?

You may blame it on bad environment, on the breakdown of the family, on the lack of religious training, on the maladjustment of the Americanized

adolescent children of the unAmericanized immigrant parent, but you cannot ignore the absence of any organized program of training for leisure time anywhere in our elementary schools. If our young people have chosen badly, perhaps they know no other way to amuse themselves. If we tell them to keep away from the moving pictures what substitutes do we provide or recommend? We have left the solution of this problem to the churches, to the Boy Scouts, to boys' clubs and recreation centers and not assumed any responsibility ourselves. We have been satisfied with casual results where organized and permanent controls might have been established. Search the recent literature of the boy problem and the girl problem, analyze the recent courses of study and syllabuses and see how many possibilities there are, but how little has been attempted. •

If we consider for a few moments the industrial leisure revolution of today, we face another serious aspect of the problem. Modern machinery has become so efficient that it is gradually eliminating manpower.

Industry has made wonderful strides in production. It has much to do for the worker. Vocational education has found a place in the schools today. It must stress this leisure phase of the industrial problem in its curricula.

If again we consider the spirit of the age, the mania for speed, the craving for sensation, the subtle influence of modern journalism and modern advertising, the revel of the night club, the daring of the modern stage, the thrill of the movie, the era of jazz, of flaming youth and roaring forty, we as educators need to put our wits together to set up wholesome attitudes and counteracting influences and deal constructively with the many perplexing problems involved.

If, on the positive side, we think of the wealth of opportunities for culture and recreation and enjoyment in modern life, the park, the theater, the radio, the athletic field, the opera, the club, the phonograph, the camera, the auto, the library, the evening school, the church; if we consider all the social agencies willing to cooperate in the promotion of desirable leisure activities for modern youth, shall we not survey these and organize them into a program whose controls are within the schools? How many thousands of boys and girls never use the resources available to them in their communities! How many teachers have never given a passing thought to what might be done outside of school for the young people in their care. How many principals lack the vision to extend their influence beyond their buildings and their books.

If again we have in mind the wonderful contemporary contributions to science, invention, and modern comfort and convenience that owe their origin to the hobbies and useful avocations of American students and workers, we see a field of education possibilities rich in promise for the welfare of our country and mankind.

In justifying the right of training for leisure to be a cardinal objective of education we are forced to take into account the growing conception of education which regards the public school not as an isolated institution, but

as the social center of the community in which it is situated; which believes that the work and the conscious influence of a school must not be confined to the school day and the school premises, but must take the responsibility for directing and influencing as far as possible the attitudes, tastes, appreciations, and activities of public school children throughout their waking hours. There are principals who can never rise to this conception of a school, whose educational horizon is bounded by classrooms and blackboards and wardrobes; but to the principal who is an educational engineer, the problem of training for the desirable use of leisure time is indeed one of the cardinal objectives.

Up to this point I have spoken in general terms. I want now to say a few practical words on the program of training for the desirable use of leisure time carried on for some six years in Public School 80, Coney Island. Public School 80 is a typical American public school—a typical melting pot in a crowded polyglot tenement district at the very gateway of America. It has had probably the worst problems of overcrowding known in the public schools of this country and has many special community problems that militate strongly against the wholesome influence of the school.

A little over six years ago, under the splendid guidance of Dr. Payne and other professors of the school of education of New York University, I undertook to revise the curriculum of Public School 80 on the basis of activities, experiences, and projects rather than on subjectmatter and I grouped them around the seven cardinal objectives. As far as I can learn, Public School 80 is the only public school which is organized in this way and which has a conscious, concrete, continuous policy and program of the kind.

The procedure was practically as follows:

1. We made an intensive study of the definition and the implications of the seven major objectives.
2. We made a comprehensive survey of the home conditions, interests, and activities of the children and the resources and handicaps of the community under each of the seven objectives.
3. The teachers adopted a group of specific practical objectives under each of the seven major objectives which we undertook to realize as rapidly and thoroughly as possible.
4. We made a careful survey of all the classroom activities that had been used and others that were being planned under each of these specific objectives.
5. We made a similar survey of all the actual and possible out-of-class activities that were available under each of the objectives.
6. We made a survey and evaluation of the various methods and devices used by different teachers to accomplish our objectives.

The plan was comprehensive, but comparatively simple and progressive over several years, flexible, never fixed or arbitrary, but always open to modifications and growth. The resulting curriculum may be said to have emerged from local needs.

The following are the specific objectives which we adopted and which we can attain in the training for desirable use of leisure time:

Objectives in Use of Leisure Time

1. To set up the ideal of using leisure time to advantage and avoiding idleness and undesirable companions and occupations.
2. To give children desirable interests and hobbies to fill up most of their free time.
3. To acquaint children with interesting places to go and worthwhile things to do.
4. To set up within the schools clubs and other activities in which children will be intensely and profitably interested.
5. To discover to children some of their special abilities and talents.
6. To set up in school desirable permanent companionships by permitting children of similar aptitudes to work together on projects that bring them together outside of school hours.
7. To induce the community to set up social and recreational activities which will absorb the interests of the community and counteract the attraction of bad companionships and undesirable amusements.
8. To familiarize children through the study of biographies of famous men and women with their tastes and hobbies.
9. To familiarize children with best materials in books and special magazines along the lines of their interests.
10. To induce all upper grade pupils to join the school library and the public library.

CHARACTER TRAITS AS A BASIS FOR GOOD SCHOLARSHIP

AGNESS BOYSEN, PRINCIPAL, LYNDALE SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

The tendency throughout modern education today is a growing desire to introduce character education into our school. Educators are not satisfied with the work of many of our graduates. Some of these boys and girls go out into the world and do not succeed; in fact, some are absolute failures.

The time has come when we must ask ourselves this question: What are the necessary qualities one must possess to establish a well-ordered, successful life? What must be taught our boys and girls to make them unselfish sons and daughters, considerate husbands and wives, intelligent fathers and mothers and desirable neighbors and citizens?

Each day presents countless opportunities to establish correct thinking and not one of these opportunities must ever be neglected. Principals and teachers must be left free and unhindered that they may have time to discuss and work out these problems whenever they arise. Standards must be so clearly outlined that children will respond to tests in character as quickly and with as clear an understanding as tests in the fundamentals.

This no doubt brings to mind the problem of obtaining teachers who are capable of instilling such ideals. Only an honest teacher can teach honesty, only the teacher who has poise can teach selfcontrol, only the teacher with wisdom can teach good judgment. Shall not our future teachers be

chosen with other qualifications in addition to the university degree; at least until the universities are ready to promote and graduate on character growth.

The schools of the future will need men and women of the highest type of character. With this in view may we not begin now to request that applicants be examined and appointed according to these requirements as well as the other necessary qualifications?

You and I have met together here today to discuss the biggest problem that has yet confronted educators, the problem of developing character in our boys and girls. Yet you will agree with me that it is the most vital one that we have ever attempted to solve.

Without always realizing it during your life as a principal, character training has been the chief function.

How many hours have you spent at your desk sometimes when the winter twilight was descending patiently teaching that troublesome boy or girl the art of correct living and lovingly insisting that he must do right? And many men and women today are leading normal useful lives because of those very interviews.

How many of such after school conferences have you held with teachers insisting on the principles of courtesy, kindness, and unfailing honesty. And those teachers have gone forth from your presence resolved to abandon old beliefs and prejudices and start anew; and the next morning, the little children felt this unusual happiness in that classroom and a new tone of love in the teacher's voice and they went home rejoicing and taking with them joy in their hearts.

Still these things did not seem much to you. They were in the course of the day's work, and you have expressed good, and talked ideals as naturally as you breathed; but those were the great points in your career, far greater than all the achievement tests you have ever given, for you touched character, and when you touch character you are building for eternity.

However, you have not been altogether satisfied with the amount of time available for such conferences and you have often regretted the fact that you could not give that particular boy more time. Many times as you have seen him leaving you at graduation, you have had misgivings, and often a whispered prayer has been upon your lips for the welfare of his future. Our graduates have gone out into the world and have not always been a benefit to mankind, in fact many have been a detriment.

Educators with a vision have throughout all time desired to teach more character training but how has it been possible to give to it its rightful place when academic subjectmatter has been poured in, filling every available minute of the day.

Tradition has taught us that the business of the schools is to teach reading, writing, and arithmetic. But have these fundamentals in themselves ever produced a really great man or woman? Unfortunately we find in our penitentiaries many expert mathematicians proving that some-

thing more was needed in the mastery of this subject than mere accuracy and speed. A man may be a great student of history but if he does not try to emulate in his own life the lives of those great historical characters, if he does not see that through his own efforts, past mistakes in government need not be repeated, his knowledge of history will be of little value to the world. A man may be an earnest student of civics, but if he has not yet learned to be considerate of his neighbor's rights, if he does not see a necessity of upholding and conforming to law whether or not he agrees with it; in short if he is not a law abiding citizen at all times, his knowledge of civics will not especially benefit mankind. Information in itself has never made a great man or woman.

We are heartsick in reading of the crimes of the youth today to find that many are not only high-school graduates, but have been faithful Sunday school workers as well.

Often the first question that arises is, "But what of the home, is this not the primal duty of the home?" Most assuredly it is and we do not wish to deprive the home of one responsibility.

There are three reasons which I should like to have you consider which condition the influence of the home.

The first is the utter inadequacy of many parents in child training. They are sincere and honest, but they do not know how. Many of them acknowledge it freely and are desirous of gaining intelligent help along this line. They are as much at loss in this phase of work as you or I could be if asked to adjust the mechanism of some strange delicate machine of which we had not the slightest knowledge. No doubt with our clumsy fingers we might break or mar some part of that intricate workmanship. So with the child; many clumsy remarks and methods of handling have broken and marred a budding life which might have had the most exquisite flowering. The greatest work in the world, that of motherhood and fatherhood, requires no preparation. Then the other group of parents are those possessing no character themselves. The only ideals that ever reach the lives of such children are those implanted during their hours in the schoolroom.

The second reason for not leaving the character training entirely to the home is the fact that education goes on unceasingly whether we realize it or not.

We cannot say that character development ceases when the child bids his mother goodbye. The first boy friend he meets begins to pour into his ear statements which are making impressions either for good or bad and some influence will replace some other one during the entire day. He may remember to tell his mother about these impressions on the return home, but it is very doubtful if he will. He needs a steady, governing influence going on unceasingly to strengthen the good impressions and forcefully dispel the wrong. The most intelligent parents are always the most appreciative of this work and maintain that the moral strength of the

child seems to be increased two fold by this constant pouring in of the need of correct thinking.

The third reason is one that is many times given by parents themselves. They say that their child is governed more by group consciousness than by individuals and that the truths learned in school seem to sink more deeply than the same truths learned at home. Public opinion is indeed a wonderful teacher. It often succeeds when individual persuasion fails.

In trying to place responsibility outside of the school there are many who turn to the church and Sunday schools. We all know the struggles of these faithful workers and the vast amount of good they are constantly doing, but what percentage of our children today attend Sunday school? And what percentage of teachers are trained workers? Here again in most cases their standard for promotion in Sunday school is acquiring information rather than character development. Some day the Sunday schools will require that only those capable of teaching shall teach and that these instructors shall receive proper remuneration for this most worthwhile work.

So I think you will agree with me that there is one institution only where all children regardless of color, race, or creed may receive correct standards for daily life and that is the public school. Attendance there is compulsory. Only instructors may be acquired capable of transmitting right ideals.

In an experiment of the type which we worked out at the Lyndale school every teacher in the building must be in complete sympathy with the project before it should be attempted.

For two years at the Lyndale in our weekly conferences we discussed the main functions of education before we took any definite action.

We considered first the business world. We consulted successful business men asking why boys and girls were not making good. We received practically the same replies in every interview. These were among them—"They lack responsibility—They are not dependable—When they finish one job, they expect someone to give them another rather than finding it themselves—They do not cooperate—They cannot take criticism—They are not punctual—They object to taking orders and argue with the people who give them—They waste time." There were many more. We did not neglect to ask if any were unsuccessful because of a lack in the ability to spell or the inability to add correctly. They all smiled at this and gave somewhat the same answers—"You give us a boy or girl on the job, willing to work honest, pleasant, alert and courteous, and we'll risk the spelling and arithmetic."

After discussing these interviews in our meetings we decided that something more was needed in business than the mere acquisition of subject-matter.

We then discussed the home situation. Unfortunately in our district there are many broken up homes as there are in most districts today. We selected traits of character that tend to make a harmonious, well

ordered home. These were among them: The ability to organize and systematize a love of the beautiful, the ability to work harmoniously with others at all times and under all circumstances; a knowledge of thrift and ways of expressing it; the ability to reconcile differences; poise; a sense of humor; an understanding of one's duties and responsibilities and a constant desire to fulfill these efficiently. In fact we discovered that a home may be very happy and useful even though its workers do not know the capitals of the states of the union. On the other hand we decided that a home had little chance of succeeding if within its borders were not expressed most of the selected character traits.

At this time, the teachers had become pretty well dissatisfied with present requirements. They could discern without difficulty that education was not preparing for life. They asked if some of these desirable qualities might not be listed on the report cards. I had seen this tried out in former schools without success. Still I was glad to have them experiment. Some teachers added reliability, others, courtesy or service or leadership. The parents were mildly interested; they thought it a pleasant little device. The children enjoyed it, but there were no positive results. The teachers were dissatisfied. It is quite impossible to get satisfactory results in combining the academic subject marks and the marks in character traits. Parents, teachers, and children will continue, under such a plan, to place the importance on the academic subjects. Something drastic at this period is needed to place character traits first and subject-matter second. This can never be done so long as academic subjects are listed for grading. I then opened the question of a report card with no academic marks. The teachers with one accord asked that it be tried at once. This was in the spring of 1925. And I agreed that if they were as enthusiastic in the fall I would consult our superintendent. When school opened in September the first request was for the new report cards. Knowing how thoroughly our superintendent is in sympathy with character training, I did not hesitate to lay our project before him. I received his immediate encouragement and support. Since then we have had many visitors from different parts of the United States, and one and all congratulate me on having been able to proceed under such a progressive regime. Without the entire freedom which we were permitted to enjoy our experiment would have proved a failure.

After receiving permission to go ahead we began to outline plans. At a building conference we listed every known desirable character trait and and finally grouped them under ten headings: Reliability, obedience, industry, selfcontrol, social attitudes, judgment, punctuality, initiative, personal habits, thrift.

We then formed committees to define these character traits in terms that the children would understand. These requirements were taken off with the mimeograph and each child as far down as the second grade made a booklet for himself. Each page listed some of the ways in which these character traits may be expressed. The page on reliability begins—"I

must learn to think honestly." There are eleven other ways listed in which boys and girls may express reliability. The page on judgment contains these sentences—"I must exercise careful judgment in crossing the streets, I must wear the proper wraps without being told." There are fifteen other requirements for expressing good judgment. There is no character trait that has brought greater result than judgment.

The first sentence under industry is—"I must begin work promptly upon arriving at school."—and the first sentence under thrift is—"I must not waste time." It was suggested that the children add from time to time other desirable requirements and make a notation in their books. At the end of the year the books were collected. The following year after the suggestions had been added one of our junior highs kindly offered to print these books. This last year we have had them printed by a local printing office.

The next step in our project was to call the parents together and lay our plans before them. The Lyndale parents are a most desirable group with which to work. They own their modest homes and care for them. They are exceedingly interested in their children. I explained to them what we planned to do. There were about three hundred fifty parents present. Most of them were very enthusiastic, a few were dubious and one or two openly antagonistic. I then asked for their cooperation for one semester. I stated that at the end of that time we would send out a questionnaire asking for opinions and would abide by the decision of the majority.

I gave them as many details as possible and outlined situations which might puzzle them. One thing I emphasized was that they must not expect too much of the children. After I had named the character traits I inquired if they would receive an "A" in all of them. They of course smiled and shook their heads. I then asked if they could receive "B." I received the same response. Then I concluded that it was unfair to expect more of children than we were able to give ourselves. Children are in the school of life and nothing could be more unwise than to upbraid a child for not doing something in which he may never have had proper instruction. I suggested that they go over the little booklets carefully with the children helping them to find ways in which to express these qualities and when a child came home with a low mark to see what the difficulty was, and suggest ways of overcoming it rather than blaming or scolding him.

The children had been hearing much about the character traits so the plan for marking was not new to them. As soon as the teachers began to study these traits, it was only natural that they should begin to discuss them with the children.

For two weeks after we issued the report cards we did practically nothing but interview parents. Some parents agree to this method enthusiastically because they are thinking that it will effect only their neighbor's child. When a boy receives an "F" in Arithmetic his father regrets it, but when

he receives an "F" in Reliability, it is quite another matter. We had the pleasure of meeting many parents that we had never seen before. While the struggles were sometimes long the outcomes were generally very satisfactory. And we always parted thoroughly persuaded that we were working for the same results.

As the report cards continued to be issued reports of quite another type began to pour in. I regret to say that I shall be able to give only a few of these this afternoon because of the lack of time. The reports came from not only the parents but the corner stores, the policeman and the people in the neighborhood. Children were more reliable, more considerate, more thoughtful. Parents stated that boys and girls were asking for chores to do around the house in order to express industry. They were playing with brothers and sisters and neighbors harmoniously in order to show desirable social attitudes. They refused to spend money for candy and gum and movies, as heretofore, because they wanted to bank it, to show thrift. Those who had refused to eat the proper food were asking for vegetables because it expressed good judgment. They insisted on going to bed at eight o'clock for the same reason. These are not a few detached cases; it became quite general throughout the entire building.

Some fathers asked for extra booklets to take on the road with them, saying that they were quite as good for business as they were for school, which was the exact comment we were delighted to have, for we are preparing boys and girls for the business world.

While the teachers and myself had expected growth in scholarship, we had never anticipated a change as remarkable as that which occurred.

We started out to prove that growth in character would produce growth in scholarship and we proved it. The first year we used this method the Lyndale rose in scholarship far beyond anything it had done in past years. However we are running at the present time as a good average; sometimes above the average. We started out to prove character training would promote scholarship, but today we are only aware of one thing and that is that it teaches boys and girls standards of right living at all times. The children do keep graphs in subjectmatter because of transfers to other buildings. They are always delighted to notice how consistently does their growth in scholarship progress with growth in character traits.

The character traits never leave us. They are embodied in every assignment and every lesson.

Standards must be so clearly outlined in this work that children will respond to tests in character as readily and with as clear an understanding as tests in the fundamentals. These character tests of course are live situations arising in the course of every day.

No doubt the question comes to your mind of obtaining teachers who are capable of instilling such ideals. Only an honest teacher can teach honesty, only a teacher with poise can teach selfcontrol, only a teacher with wisdom can teach judgment. Sometimes the greatest good that

comes out of character training work is the good it does for teacher and principal. One of two teachers in the Lyndale have told me that they have changed completely since teaching the character training and it is obvious that they have. It is impossible to check children all day in self-control and continue to lose one's temper.

Our big work of the future, yours and mine, is to see that the schools are furnished with men and women of the highest type of character. Teachers' colleges, if you please, will find it necessary to discourage students continuing in the profession whose integrity or morals are questioned.

You and I can request that applicants be examined and appointed according to these requirements as well as the other qualifications which are being stressed today. Character education will be successful in proportion to the earnestness and absolute conviction of those who are teaching it. Arithmetic and spelling may be put across with a certain amount of mediocrity in the instruction, but not so with character training. The heart and soul of the teacher must be in full accord, as must also her own principles in order to raise her pupils to the high standards which they must attain.

CHARACTER TRAINING THROUGH STUDENT ORGANIZATIONS

CASSIE F. ROYS, PRINCIPAL, WALNUT HILL SCHOOL, OMAHA, NEBR.

Before we enter into the discussion of the real significance and value of character training in our elementary schools by means of student organizations, let us in our imagination take a glimpse of a school in which there is one.

As we draw near one of these schools, our attention is attracted to a boy officer, directing traffic on a busy crossing. On the curb nearby, other boys are stationed to assist the children, especially the smaller ones, as they start to cross the street. The sound of merry voices of children playing at their games greets us and, as we study the various groups on the playground, we notice that each group has its own captain. Every one is playing under the direction of these boy and girl captains. Here and there, on the school grounds, we are greeted by boy officers, who help to keep the smaller ones off the lawn, away from the shrubbery, and out of the street.

We enter the building. The door is opened by a door captain. If it happens to be inclement weather, the little ones are assisted with their wraps and rubbers by the members of the service committee. When the bell rings, we notice various pupils stationed on the stairs, in the halls, and in the toilets. Outside, before the tardy bell rings, some older and larger boys are there to assist the stragglers, for you all know that stragglers make tardies.

But why all this? Why are these boys and girls carrying on the work of directing and controlling their own school activities, when only a few years ago teachers assumed all such responsibility? There is an old axiom

which says, "We learn to do by doing." Modern educators advocate that "children learn best by doing."

The economic and social world about us have made such rapid material advancement that we, as educators, are very apt to accept these changes without thinking of their effect on society. We must study these conditions that confront us and see what changes are necessary in our schools to meet these conditions.

For years there has been much discussion concerning the best way in which to develop the character of our boys and girls in the elementary schools. Some criticism has been voiced against the formal lessons. At the present time there seems to be a more urgent need than ever for character training. No doubt, because so much of this training is being neglected in the modern home. And, if the home does not, or cannot, assume the responsibility for character development, then the school must. The true test of any educational institution is whether or not it fits the need of the child. As I have said before, "children learn best by doing."

The elementary school of today must provide a program to meet this new demand, that pupils may participate in those activities which will provide for the very fullest development of every individual into the best possible example of his own type. Every elementary school must provide the very best environment for those children who are entrusted to its care. This environment must, in itself, insure the conservation and further growth of the fine possibilities of every child. Modern educational philosophy has taught us that we must respect the personality of each and every child. Hence, this school program must be one that will give some practice of that respect.

There are certain elements of the pupil selfgovernment idea which are applicable in the elementary school program. Each year something can be done so that parents, teachers, and pupils will become accustomed to the idea of individual selfcontrol; and, also, to the idea that many responsibilities in the school and community can be assumed by the pupils.

The elementary school principal must build up a spirit for this sort of an organization in her own community. The modern school of today must provide a large number of opportunities and activities in which pupils may assume responsibility, show initiative, and act as leaders. These are the only avenues through which responsibility, initiative, and leadership can be developed. It is the obligation of the school to give useful education through doing, to create standards and habits, to awaken the spirit of fair play, good sportmanship and high ideals in social and civic life. In this way we are creating the desire for active citizenship. Just now, I am reminded of an inscription on our new Capitol building at Lincoln: "The salvation of the state is the watchfulness of the citizen".

In my own school there is a student organization which has been organized about three years. This organization consists of the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades in the three upper rooms. It is a school activity, in which the pupils are given an opportunity, not only to develop leadership, but also to learn to be good followers.

The pupils themselves have prepared a very simple constitution and by-laws; simple, because, as Dr. McMurry says, "There are few circumstances in life that can be properly treated by rule of thumb. Good judgment is called for at every turn." They state as their object the growth and improvement of their school and the development of citizenship among the pupils. There are the usual number of officers who are elected for a term of one year at the February meeting. These officers perform the usual duties of any organization, and with a representative, chosen from each class, together with the chairmen of the various committees, form what is known as the student council.

This council meets on alternate Thursdays to carry on the routine of the organization, to make suggestions for the improvement of the school, and to reprimand or help those pupils who have not yet imbibed the school spirit for good, active citizenship. These meetings are usually most interesting and I have made some wonderful discoveries concerning the personalities and abilities of many of our pupils.

There are several committees whose duties are to assume the responsibility for the care of school property and the behavior of the pupils in the halls and the toilets and on the playground and the street. Each committee is headed by a chairman who appoints his officers every two weeks. Each officer must be ok'd by every one of his teachers before he can take up his particular duty. A good officer must learn to control himself in his own classes before he can take up any larger duties. The service committee is a special committee, whose members assist the teachers in various ways according to the needs of the school.

The committee of which I am especially proud is the library committee. They have done a remarkable piece of work and have made a wonderful contribution to the school. This committee, with the help of the eighth grade, have catalogued and indexed all the books in the library, have handled all the routine of checking the books in and out, and have supervised many of the younger pupils during library hours. The chairman of this committee is the librarian of the school, as we have no teacher who acts as a librarian. However, the eighth grade teacher acts as library sponsor.

Another splendid opportunity which is offered the members of this organization is the chance to work for their school letter or monogram—"W. H." In order to earn this letter, pupils must obtain twelve hundred points or more. These are based on health, scholarship, citizenship and service school activities, and athletics. In this way some are enabled to earn their letters by excelling in scholarship, others in school activities, and still others in athletics. It is an incentive to these pupils to develop their own powers. But whatever they may be, efficiency is the goal. As Dr. McMurry says, "Efficiency on the part of the pupils is the goal, and facts are selected with the object of making pupils energetic and highminded, judicious, forceful, and selfreliant."

At the regular monthly meetings, certain routine of the school is dis-

cussed and many helpful suggestions are given for the improvement of the school. Here pupils have an opportunity to get some training in parliamentary practice and to stand on their feet and express their own opinions. The program committee usually provides a short but interesting program for each meeting.

To me, as principal of an elementary school, the value of our student organization cannot be overestimated. Here is an activity in our school curriculum which gives our boys and girls a real opportunity for character training. Education in its fullest sense goes on just as actively and as increasingly when a child enters into all of these activities, as when he studies from books.

Teachers have always worked for character growth, when time permitted, after they had emphasized the academic subjects. But education for life, consists in more than the mastery of the academic subjects. One of the criticisms on the public schools which comes from the business world is that "The school man is apt to rate his students on mental alertness, whereas, the business man is apt to rate his employees upon their ability to see things through, regardless of obstacles." Both qualities are absolutely essential to success.

This organization gives pupils a chance to see things through. It gives them an opportunity to assume responsibility, and to develop initiative. At every turn they are forced to think things through for themselves, to weigh their conclusions and to form good judgments. They are forming correct habits of living with their fellow-beings. What better situation in school can be found, wherein a boy or girl can learn to feel that group consciousness, which is so necessary to the successful man or woman, either in the business or social world? It helps to build up a school spirit, by making each child feel a keener interest in the activities of the school and in the care of school property.

It makes use of the surplus energy of many pupils, especially the older boys and girls. These older children enjoy their power, but, of course, many at this point, need careful guidance. These are impressionable years and most boys and girls respect the faith and trust placed in them.

It emphasizes and develops certain personal virtues, as, obedience, punctuality, courtesy, reliability, honesty, respect for others, and selfcontrol.

Of course teachers must study the individual pupils to find the best leaders. Good student leaders are an important factor in any school. They help to make public opinion. They can exert a powerful influence for good, not only in the school, but also in the community. This is not asking too much of any teacher, because the successful teacher should be as able to make a keen analysis of the characteristics of his or her pupils, so as to present subjectmatter in a clear and comprehensive manner.

The teachers are all heartily in favor of this kind of an organization, because they, too, feel that children in such an organization will be fair and honest. They will learn the beauty of service; they will be more loyal to the school, and more obedient to authority. Teachers believe, too, that it helps to build up a finer community spirit.

CHARACTER TRAINING BY MEANS OF PATRIOTIC PAGEANTS

L. DAISY HAMMOND, PRINCIPAL, JOHN H. PATTERSON AND LEOTA E. CLARK SCHOOLS, DAYTON, OHIO

Although my paper will cover much ground, I can do but little more than set forth the merits and advantages of the training afforded by the instructive and inspiring presentation of patriotic pageants. To us they are a means to an end—developing the characters of children. It is the framework on which our school builds its program of character education. From the original, brief, weekly service, held in the corridor of our old building, many, many years ago, to the nationally known patriotic pageant of today is a long story, but one in which I think you might be interested.

About seventeen years ago, when I was a teacher in the Patterson school, the principal, the late Leota E. Clark, an executive of rare skill, a leader with a powerful and gracious personality, wrought her dreams into deeds by arranging a patriotic service for the boys and girls of Patterson school. She firmly believed that the American public school was founded and should be maintained to produce good American citizens—to mold characters of boys and girls as well as their intellects. Like the Saint of old, who built the bridge for those who followed, she built the pageants to help her pupils reach the goal.

Just a word about the nature of these pageants. Our first service consisted of a processional, the pledge to our flag, the singing of a few hymns and patriotic songs and a recessional. From this simple, brief service of long ago has grown the pageant of today. Numerous changes are always made from year to year as history is in the making, but our principal aims have always remained the same. For instance, during the war, when nationalism was being intensified throughout the world, the martial spirit was very predominate in the service. Since then, internationalism is being emphasized, making our nation friendly to all nations. We feel it is our duty and task to create in the hearts of our children a new era of friendliness and goodwill and to help them realize that "Peace hath her victories no less renowned than war."

We have always had faith in the character building value of patriotic pageants because patriotism creates an atmosphere conducive to the appreciation of American ideals. Children are imitative and enthusiastic and participation kindles their enthusiasm to emulate those masterful personalities and ideals that are so splendidly embodied in our great historical characters. "Idealism is caught not taught," says a great writer.

We aim to impress upon our children that patriotism means more than following the drum; it means loyalty, not only to flag and country, but to home, school, and community; to serve humanity, to desire to do his best, not only for self but to help his fellowmen.

We have established the custom of having our service of forty-five minutes every two weeks on Thursday morning at eight thirty. Every pupil in grades six, seven, and eight participates. All the children in the lower grades, including kindergarten, witness the exercises, thus training them to become polite, courteous listeners.

The real value of these patriotic pageants to our school and to our community cannot be measured, for the results carry over into nearly all the activities of the school. The task taxes our energies, for a project of this kind creates plenty of opportunities for hard work. One must have a very effective organization, for arrangements must be made for every minute detail. Every teacher must be in hearty cooperation and sympathy with work—always ready and always willing to give generously of their time and energy. Through the skill and devotion of our teachers we have overcome almost insurmountable difficulties, and I'm sure they would agree with me in saying that the experience they acquired in helping to build a program of this type has been far-reaching in the development of an efficient staff.

"Acts make habits—habits make character." The school is preeminent among educational forces in building the characters of our boys and girls upon a foundation of good habits, due to the routine, continued regularly throughout the year. Thorndike tells us that "In training character the formation of useful habits is exceedingly important." Believing this to be true, it is imperative that we instill in the minds of the children the spirit of obedience. Through our repeated performances they are helped to acquire this trait with the habits of punctuality and regularity—doing a certain thing, at a certain time, in a certain place. They must think clearly and quickly, without confusion while on their feet and do their part forcefully—acquiring attitudes and skills worthwhile.

Our pageants, learned and practiced with incessant care, abound in splendid opportunities for training in cooperation, that much-needed and essential element in shaping human affairs. Our children, through experience, know all too well that individual effort is not enough, for every presentation calls for teamwork of teachers and pupils, and one person could mar the service.

The children, through participation, receive a definite training in responsibility. As members of the group they are energetic and determined in working out their part of the pageant. They are encouraged to take the initiative and frequently we are amazed and gratified at the display of originality. The opportunity to experience the results of their suggestions is always of great value to the child.

Our frequent presentations give us many chances to recognize and encourage leadership and selfreliance by inspiring confidence through praise of honest efforts. We all know how tactfully these seeds must be sown, yet we feel that the children should be given every opportunity to develop and use every talent God has given them, so that some day they may be able to make their contribution to the world.

Those of us who were fortunate in having the opportunity of hearing Cameron Beck of New York speak at our banquet in Boston last February, will recall the plea he made for us to give the children a "training in social intelligence"—meaning that combination of those attributes of personality, dress, mannerisms, tone of voice, association with others, etc. Since hearing him I have often thought Mr. Beck would be encouraged if he knew how we emphasize those very traits in every performance and aim to carry them over into other activities.

In the preparation of this paper, our president, Mr. Gist, suggested that I write to parents and to business men and women, who were former graduates of Patterson school, and get their reactions to the value of the service. This I did, and I feel as though I am under a lasting debt of gratitude to him for the suggestion, for the letters I have received, expressing the judgments of qualified experts, have inspired us beyond words and have strengthened our faith in the value of a service of this type. You cannot imagine how it thrilled us to hear these folks say that their appreciation of much that is good was traced to the source of its cultivation—the patriotic pageants. Finding the letters from the adults so interesting and inspiring, I decided to carry Mr. Gist's suggestion further and get reactions from our classes of eighth grade pupils. After reading their comments, we were convinced that we were making some progress in developing the characters of our boys and girls.

I have been asked many times for an outline of our pageants. This is impossible for two reasons; first, like the legends of old, the words have never been printed and have come down through the years by word of mouth. Secondly, the services are not static, but dynamic, meeting the needs of changing conditions. Someone has said that "Nothing is permanent but change." Perhaps this may be one of the reasons our pageants have lived and become an institution in our school. Nothing is truer than to say that the pageants of today's are not yesterday's, tomorrow's will not be the same as today's.

In the hands of our pupils today rests the future hope of the nation. These children will, all too soon, be face to face with questions of great importance and we, who have the responsibility of leadership in the public schools of America, must train these youth to meet and solve the problems of their age. Therefore, let us have faith in our institutions and determine to press forward with a definite and forward looking attitude to this work of building characters, with greater enthusiasm and with more bravery than ever before. The process will take time and courage, but we must do it earnestly and sincerely.

The whole field lies open before us ripe for the harvest and our opportunity to be makers of men and women is the greatest opportunity that can come to any principal in an elementary school. I am an optimist and I believe that every one of us here this afternoon will return to our fields of labor with a lighter heart and a clearer vision of duty.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Minneapolis Meeting

There were three breakfast meetings (July 2, 3 and 5) served to members of the Department of Elementary School Principals at the Leamington Hotel. The attendance, ranging from fifty-five to eighty, far exceeded the usual attendance at such meetings. The programs of the breakfast consisted largely of reports from the various committees. Of particular significance among these reports was The Research Committee's statement presented by Miss M. E. Milholland for Chairman E. W. Cober. This report indicated a plan for research and field work in connection with the Division of Research of the National Education Association.

The theme of two afternoon meetings was character training. On Monday afternoon, W. O. Thompson, President Emeritus, Ohio State University, spoke on character training from the religious point of view. He emphasized that religion and education were inseparable in life. Mrs. Hazel C. Daniels, Editor of the official magazine of the Parent-Teacher Association at Minneapolis, was the second speaker. It was gratifying to hear a real mother and a thoughtful woman so plain-spoken about the responsibility of parents in the problem of character education.

Josephine C. Foster, University of Minnesota, discussed the subject of Character Training from the point of view of the preschool child. She believes that the child should learn wholesome respect for rights of others and one way to teach this is not to have enough equipment in the schoolroom so that all will have to take turns.

Another able speaker on Monday's program was John J. Loftus, President-Elect of the New York City Principals' Association, who comes from the city of Coney Island, and who believes that "all men are created equal, but what they are equal to is what counts."

On Tuesday afternoon, July 3, the main business meeting was held. A change or two in the constitution was ratified and there was an election of officers. Herbert C. Hansen, as Chairman of Resolutions Committee, presented the resolutions, all of which were adopted and will appear in the October Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals.

Following the business meeting the second program was given. Mrs. Agness M. Boysen, Principal of Lyndale School, Minneapolis, gave an interesting talk with many beautiful allusions to life, every sentence teeming with sensible thoughts. In her school she has charged the report card of the children from the traditional type so that the ten points in character training may be included.

Miss Cassie Roys, Principal Walnut Hill School, Omaha, Nebraska, presented an interesting account of the use of student organizations in character development. Miss L. Daisy Hammond, Dayton, Ohio, told how character could be taught through patriotic pageants.

One of the loviest affairs of the whole week was the banquet at the Lafayette Country Club on the shores of Lake Minnetonka. From the Courtesy Cars escorted by motorcycle policemen to the last item of the program there were evidences of careful planning by the Minneapolis committee. The first part of the program consisted of several numbers by the "Rusty Hinge Quartette" composed of Minneapolis principals. The ridiculous element was supplied by the "Simp-Phoney Orchestra" playing upon an incredible variety of instruments. The speaker of the evening, Superintendent Thomas Cole of Seattle, made a brief but vigorous talk in which he said that elementary school principals had made more professional progress during the past ten years than any other group of educators.

Probably the special treat which will linger in the minds of all was the rendition of the Indian classic "By the Waters of Minnetonka," by Mr. and Mrs. Thurlow Lieurance. Meanwhile, a gorgeous sunset on the lake gave an unforgettable setting for the song.

MINUTES OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The executive committee meeting was held at the Leamington Hotel, Tuesday morning, July 3rd. Those present were: President A. S. Gist, Elizabeth McCormick, Herbert C. Hansen, W. T. Longshore, Helen B. Shove, secretary.

The question of the type of yearbook to be issued, and value of and participation in, of research work by the Department was discussed at some length. Assistance from the N. E. A. in retaining a research man, who can also do some field work to check up returns is greatly appreciated.

The motion was made by McCormick, seconded by Hansen, that: It be the policy of the executive committee to continue the variety topic yearbook, with a research yearbook on a single topic every few years, perhaps the fifth year; with research bulletins prepared frequently in conjunction with the Research Division of the N. E. A.

The suggestion was made by Hansen and approved by Longshore that: The editor of the 1930 yearbook be carefully considered and appointed at the Cleveland meeting.

The motion was made by McCormick, seconded by Hansen, that \$1000 be appropriated for treasury of the Department to continue and further research studies.

The question of salacious literature was discussed. It was considered most expedient to defer action temporarily upon that subject. The motion was made by Hansen, seconded by Longshore, that: The appropriation of \$500 made the Executive Committee in Boston, for the investigation of salacious literature be temporarily postponed.

Life Membership in the Department was discussed. The motion was made by Longshore and seconded by McCormick that: A committee with H. C. Hansen, chairman, confer with Secretary Crabtree of the N. E. A., regarding Life Membership in the Department, and to report at the Cleveland meeting. The idea of the conference being to accept Secretary Crabtree's suggestion regarding Life Membership in the N. E. A. held by principals apply to the Department of Elementary School Principals, provided an appropriation of \$2 pro rata be returned to the Department.

Referring to the plan for conference with Hsieh of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Education, on the problem of classification of functions of the two organizations, the motion was made by Hansen, seconded by McCormick, that: The committee be continued with A. S. Gist as chairman, to report at Cleveland.

The motion was made by Longshore, seconded by McCormick that: The Department of Elementary School Principals be represented on the National Committee for the Study of Education by the following:

Mrs. Jessie Fink, Grand Rapids, Mich.—1 year.

Arthur S. Gist, San Francisco, Calif.—2 years.

The motion was made by Hansen, seconded by McCormick, that: The new officers confer with Mr. Adams, of the N. E. A. staff, about increased publicity of activities of the elementary principals.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, Caroline Barbour, Superior, Wis.; *Executive Secretary*, Charlotte B. Norton, Washington, D. C. The Union publishes a monthly magazine, *Childhood Education*.

The officers of the Department for the year 1928-29 are: *President*, Mary Dabney Davis, Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Vice-president*, Winifred Bain, Kindergarten-First Grade Department, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; *Secretary*, Florence Davenport, Principal, Deane School, St. Paul, Minn.

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	1920:191-203
1885:349-368	1894:679-704	1903:377-407	1912:607-633	1921:461-471
1886:500-559	1895:510-560	1904:415-437	1913:425-447	1922:969-987
1887:331-391	1896:471-514	1905:341-373	1914:405-421	1923:705-719
1888:325-359	1897:584-614	1906:626-630	1915:629-671	1924:583-597
1889:443-482	1898:589-620	1907:455-475	1916:289-311	1925:478-504
1890:545-581	1899:530-575	1908:501-543	1917:417-431	1926:495-527
1891:529-568	1900:365-403	1909:437-457	1918:151-157	1927:457-472
1892:253-303	1901:500-540	1910:377-417	1919:171-179	

THE CHILD AS INFLUENCED BY THE HOME

MRS. BELLE FARLEY MURRAY, SAGINAW, MICH.

BEFORE we can analyze the home influence upon the child we must adopt a meaning for the word home. I believe all of us will wish a broader significance than the literal consideration that it is the house in which one lives. Home means the dwelling place of the family, true. Much more, it means that intangible something, home atmosphere, created by the personalities and activities of those within the house. Sometimes this home atmosphere may give to the family, life abundant; sometimes, but mere existence.

Live for a moment with Tommy and David who are having their early years in a crowded little house with parents who have lost completely whatever regard for each other they once may have had. The father's inability to make a living coupled with the mother's sharp temper increased by worries make violent scenes the rule. An irritable grandmother keeps house and scolds the boys while their parents are away. To this aged woman small boys are an unmitigated nuisance whom she must battle continually in her effort to keep an immaculate and orderly dwelling.

In happy contrast to these little lads are Jack and Robert who are growing up in a home giving them the opportunities which every child should have. Their mother, a former kindergarten teacher, and their father, a man who seeks to understand his boys, have created a home which was accurately described by a little neighbor boy:

"It's a place where you want to stay because you can do what boys want to do in it and because when you're there you don't want to do what you shouldn't."

This desirable condition has come about because the parents of Jack and Robert realize that while the three-year-old is being trained to take his place admirably in a grownup world, his world, which is largely his home, must be fitted to his childish needs.

When a man and a girl marry and establish a new home they determine the two major influences in the lives of their offspring. By choosing life mates they select their children's parents, their grandparents and a host of more remote ancestors who limit the hereditary traits of our future hopes. All too often this matter of prime importance receives little or no consideration.

Nature must have great faith in this human species of her creation. Not content with her generosity in allowing these parents, self appointed and often with very little supervision to determine their fitness for the task, the privilege of choosing that they will give to future generations characteristics of the past, she grants them the responsibility of selecting for their children their environment. The home of their making during precious early years of their child's life undoubtedly furnishes the chief stimuli to the development of that individual's inherited possibilities.

When a child arrives in this world all that can be done in the way

of his inheritance gift has been accomplished. The home then begins its activity as an environmental factor. What must this home influence provide as inalienable benefits for a child thrust into this world of uncertain happiness, struggling to adjust himself to the demands of a social group?

Three rights seem preeminent. First, he has a right to come into a home established because two people, fit in every vital way, have a genuine love for each other and a desire for children. Next, he is entitled to loving and intelligent care. Third, he has a right to a home which is a place attracting him and his friends to its kindly influences rather than a force repelling them.

The undesirable qualities of a home brought into being by people who are unfit physically or mentally are too obvious to need comment. If genuine love does not exist between the mother and father the finest inspiration which that child may have as the basis for the home which he will sometime make is lost.

A group of seventh grade girls had been discussing standards which might well form the foundation of a happy marriage. Of course, self control, unselfishness, and consideration for the rights of others had been analyzed. One pert youngster gave voice to this idea:

"It's all very well to talk that way and it listens good but you'll have to show me the married people who don't fight."

Until that day I think it had never entered her mind that a marriage could be the delightful mutual relationship it often is.

Many times where love does not exist between the parents the child is reared in an undesirable atmosphere of family quarrels, verbal battles which make deep impressions upon the listener's mind. To have these parents with little affection for each other is a sad experience, but an even greater calamity befalls the little human being who comes into this world unwelcome and remains here unwanted. From the very outset of his existence his chances for a normally happy life suffer an almost insurmountable handicap. He may become the weak member of society, lacking in selfconfidence and believing the worst of himself as he has always heard it. Other products of this environment continually expect to be treated unfairly and meet life always suspicious and antagonistic.

If this first right of the child, a home founded on love, is provided, undoubtedly he will have one half of the next requirement, loving, intelligent care. Were loving the only adjective to be applied to supervision which children should receive, many parents who now rank as mediocre would be elevated to the rank of supremacy. Unfortunately, the idea which seemingly prevailed for many years that parenthood, and particularly motherhood, in some magic manner inspired the owner of the title to acts of great wisdom in dealing with her child, has been found an extremely fallacious one. To this mother interest must be added a large measure of intelligence trained for the mother's special task.

While having the very interesting experience of teaching child care to a group of high-school girls I found this lack of wise training of children many times in evidence in our nursery school. A certain mother, one afternoon, called with her lively three-year-old Elizabeth. She wished to enter the child in the school and during the conversation made this remark:

"Elizabeth is only three, but already she is well on the way toward being ruined. I observe her and I know there is good material to be developed. I also realize that she is being hopelessly spoiled at home. I don't know what to do with her. If only you'll take her, I'll be eternally grateful. We get on each other's nerves so there is no pleasure in our association. Please help me."

Here was no mother pleading so much for her own release from the problem as for the proverbial "stitch in time to same nine" where the little daughter was concerned. Also there was a rather one sided intelligence which quickly recognized and admitted existing difficulties, but which apparently had been unable to prevent them, a case where the moment of prevention would have counterbalanced weeks of cure. Elizabeth the victim of home influences, was as she was, I believe, because an apartment house life with one normal father, a charming, but rather nervous mother, two overly solicitous grandparents and a nearby adoring great uncle and aunt had proved too much for her quick, restless and aggressive mind and body. As we wish all stories might, this one, so far as it has gone, does end happily. Elizabeth came to the nursery school where obedience was taken as a matter of course, where temper tantrums availed one nothing, where she was not an only child, where all day long she heard "do" many more times than "do not," and where her energy found a happy outlet. Although she did not become perfection itself, her wonderful natural abilities were developed; the mother and child, rested from each other during the day, did build a splendid relationship; and home, which I believe had conditions continued as they were when Elizabeth came to us, might have completed its start toward making her a lawless, rebellious individual, became a place of peace instead of strife.

Quite a different but equally mistaken case of loving care was that concerning twelve-year-old Ona who mourned because her mother wouldn't allow her to help with various home tasks. Mother and grandmother felt that she would have years of such hardship—what a false notion—later. They wished her to take pleasure without work while she might. Loving care, possibly, intelligent care, never. If a girl is given no share in home duties while she is growing up, no opportunity to learn the joy of work, how can she be expected to assume those responsibilities splendidly when she becomes the homemaker?

With the differences between loving and intelligent care apparent we come to a contemplation of the latter.

Intelligent care will supply the basis for a healthy body, an invaluable asset as anyone who even for a day has lacked it will testify. This means an understanding and application of simple rules of hygienic living, proper diet, rest, and recreation. It means growth in a quiet calm atmosphere which will foster emotional stability. The home influence, either directly or through its choice of an outside agency, is practically the only one during the preschool years, those years important beyond comparison.

Intelligent care must be only that and not an unintelligent overdoing of the matter. The child must be given the privilege of interpreting life for himself.

Intelligent care signifies wise discipline. Under this regime parents will be kindly, understanding guides, not imperial tyrants. They will strive to make good habits more attractive than poor ones. Necessity for discipline will be reduced to a minimum by furnishing the child with ample, healthful outlets for energy which appeal to the young members of the family. Minor pranks will be overlooked. When punishment seems necessary it will be given promptly, without impatience and with full understanding on the part of the offender as to why he is being reprimanded. Many times this understanding is lacking and pitiful parent-child antagonisms are begun. Whenever possible the punishment will be the logical outcome of the misdemeanor.

After a class discussion as to the meaning of home one fifteen-year-old confided to me:

"Do you know, home to me is a place where I'll stay when I get so old I can't go anywhere else and have a good time. In the meantime I'll sleep there when I'm free a few hours at night."

A survey of conditions disclosed a type of home much too common for one's peace of mind. This was a home of family bickerings, not violent, but unpleasant. Each member had but little consideration for the rights of others. There was no opportunity for wholesome, happy boy and girl social life. Is it any wonder that this child, unwisely wise beyond her years, regarded home a place from which to escape? That she will desire and plan a different life for her children is one great hope.

This order drawn upon the homes to supply both good heredity and environment is a huge one. That there are so many fine people in the world is a tribute to the homes of the past; that there are so many misfits is a challenge to homes of the future. To us is awarded the responsibility of searching out methods of home improvement and then giving to both future mothers and fathers that training which will make the home a most desirable influence in the child's life, which will furnish the world a genuinely improved home product.

A PROJECT IN STORY-TELLING

MRS. HAZEL KING, TEACHER, TRENTON, MICH.

The visualized story is a means of selfexpression. It combines story-telling, modeling, and stage-craft. The ideas derived from the story are visualized by molding the characters in clay and by moving them about in a series of miniature stage settings.

The purpose of the visualized story is to develop the "passion for concrete representation" that distinguished the Greeks; to discover artistic talent before it is lost in factory, office, or kitchen; to bring to the everyday work of the schoolroom "the joy in activity which is the essence of play."

The production of a story by this method unifies the work of the school, holding the attention of a large group of children on a difficult piece of work for a relatively long period of time. The method may be used in any grade from the kindergarten to the high school. Success is found in the ideas expressed rather than in motor skill.

A suggestive outline of work comprises: (1) Reading the book, (2) dramatizing the story, (3) selecting the characters and events to be visualized, (4) making the characters and scenes, (5) presenting the exhibit and telling the story.

THE CHILD AS INFLUENCED BY THE SCHOOL

LIVIA YOUNGQUIST, PRIMARY TEACHER, HORACE MANN SCHOOL,
WINNETKA, ILL.

Some one has said, "If we understood our children our educational systems might be revolutionized." Our educational thinking is being directed to understanding children. Modern educational psychology teaches us: that child instincts, interests, attitudes, and ability must be comprehended; that a large freedom is a strong environmental factor in behavior; that a favorable attitude should accompany the learner's procedure; that shorter drill periods are essential. These facts are basic for understanding children. The application of these facts can best be explained by telling of some of the work as it is done in the public schools of Winnetka.

The village of Winnetka, about eighteen miles north of the Chicago "loop" is made up of people, a few of whom have a mere livelihood, most of whom have a comfortable livelihood, and some of whom have a luxurious livelihood. They cooperate for the good of the school and the community. They value the teacher for her merits as an equal for poor and rich alike. They value a public school so much that they privately subscribed \$329,000 for the erection of the junior high school. There are three other buildings for the kindergarten and the first six grades. In one of these there is a nursery school.

The parent-teacher association is a strong working unit. Within its organization are classroom units made up of all the mothers of each grade in the system. The grade mothers furnish help and materials for making a schoolroom attractive. They discuss educational problems and general school problems. They seek learning from the school. One of them recently said, "I am glad that I came to this meeting. I learned so much that I did not understand before."

The parents find that their children are not forced into molds but are allowed to grow as individuals within a growing group. They find their children mastering the knowledges and skills needed in life. This helpful understanding of the parents affects the children. It helps to make the school a place where the children want to go. The children want to exhibit their handwork or share their schoolroom activities. A mother once said, "I couldn't stay away from this meeting. Billy would be heartbroken."

The Winnetka curriculum is based upon four principles:

1. Every child has a right to live naturally, happily, and fully as a child.
2. Every child has a right to master those knowledges and skills that he will probably use in life.
3. Every child has a right to develop his own individuality.
4. Every child must develop a strong social consciousness.

Health is a major consideration—health of body, of mind, of spirit. The major aims of the physical training department are first, to develop strong, healthy, normal bodies and minds, and secondly, to foster certain personal, civic, and social attitudes. Attempting to accomplish both aims, the department of physical training introduces competitive activity as much as is possible. Teamwork is essential. The physical director is assisted in the supervision work by two play leaders from each room chosen from among the children by election. The play leaders share the director's responsibility of minor behavior activities. They are able to direct game activities, too. For stressing the second aim, a list of attitudes expressed in action in the playing field is given the children. These are discussed and kept before the children by example and an effort is made to have the children understand the intimate relations of the attitudes to the sports program.

There are also scheduled programs, formal and informal in the gymnasium. One period a week is devoted to corrective gymnastics. Folk dancing is popular. There are examinations of all the pupils for physical fitness. A school nurse checks up the causes of absences. And because the curriculum adjusts itself to the individual child there are no failures and no repeaters, there is no fear, no despair, but rather a spiritual soundness and emotional fitness.

The freedom of the well managed home is found in the school at its best. The child is courteous, is fair, is himself without the fear of being punished. The controlling power is not one of authority but one of friendliness, one that secures enthusiasm instead of obedience. The school

wants natural and happy children. The children want a natural and happy school.

The drill subjects: reading, writing, spelling, language, and arithmetic are the knowledge and skill part of the curriculum. A great deal of research has been done in recent years both in Winnetka and elsewhere to determine what skills and knowledges are commonly needed. Some of these studies will serve as an illustration of this phase of the work.

A person in order to read intelligently must have familiarity with the persons and places which are commonly alluded to in periodical literature. An exhaustive study of these allusions forms the basis for a fact course in history and geography.

The spelling words most likely needed by children, the phonograms most useful to children learning to read, and the syllables which occur so commonly as to demand instant recognition—all have been determined by scientific investigation.

The standards toward which children should work in arithmetic are determined by knowing what arithmetic knowledge the adult needs in every day life. It has been found that we need to give more practise work and attention to addition and subtraction of integers, and less to multiplication and division of integers, and still less to the study of fractions. By measuring the speed and accuracy that the adult uses, one finds a guide to the degree of skill children are likely to need.

The research department has made it possible to determine the correct grade placement for any book so far as difficulty in structure is concerned. (The content factors that determine the grade placement of a book are still under investigation). By measuring a child's ability and having books graded (as to structure) it is possible to give children reading material that coincides with reading ability.

Granting that a scientifically determined knowledge and skill part of a curriculum is necessary to practically every normal person, every child should have an opportunity to master that part. But no two children have the same ability. The essential knowledges cannot be comprehended by all the children in any group in the same length of time and with the same number of repetitions. The school must provide different time allotments and different amounts of instructional practice materials for different children.

The individual technic demands selfinstructive and selfcorrective practise materials for each child in order that he may study the specific unit of subjectmatter with the minimum amount of help from the teacher. The children learn how to progress from one step to another in the practise books. They understand the method of selfcorrection. The procedure is accepted as a matter of course. (All the children learn that way.) It becomes a routine procedure.

The individual technic provides complete diagnostic tests to be used by the teacher to determine when each child has mastered a specific unit of work. Each child stays on the work as long as is necessary to make a hundred percent grade. How many units of work can be attained with this high standard of efficiency by all normal diligent children in a year's time in each grade has been determined by experimentation.

The individual technic defines the knowledge and skill part of the curriculum in terms of definite units of achievement or goals. The brightest child will complete the goals in a shorter time than the average child will. But he will continue to stay with the group of children of his own age or social development. The slow child will take a long time to complete his goals. But he too will stay with the children of his own social or chronological age regardless of advancement of academic subjects.

The record for each child is in the form of a goal book. In it are listed in columns the goals of each subject. The date of the accomplishment of the first goal of the grade is recorded just above the preceding one. The child thus sees a graphic picture of his work and is stimulated to compete with his own accomplishment.

While the first grade child does not necessarily know anything about goals he incidentally knows of goals as found in the units of subjectmatter on which he is working. He wants to reach his goal. He discovers the satisfaction accompanying a goal. He acquires a study habit. A primary child says, "I know this row better than that row," or "Mary does not know this lesson. May I help her?" And "Please test me, I am ready." A little six year old said, "Oh boy! I am glad I can soon get to this story. My sister read it to me and is it a good one. Oh boy!"

The teacher gives the children individual attention and help. She need not correct practise papers, but she does correct test papers and knows if more tests are needed for any child. She sincerely rejoices with the child over his individual progress. She is alert to watch for habits of laziness, wasting of time, and over exaggeration of ability. The child says, "I am ready for a test," when he is not ready. The teacher must then in a friendly way force the child to take up again the routine procedure for mastering the unit of work. She tries to discover the method through which there is a strong feeling of satisfaction. These satisfactions may result from correctness of doing, beauty of doing or social approval. The group is always ready to be glad with the child who wants to show or express his accomplishment. The teacher, however, guards against indiscriminate use of praise.

Drill periods are short periods of the day. The technic of individual instruction and progress demands less time from the pupils, for the learning of the skills and knowledge part of the curriculum. The subject-matter is in the form of goals, the accomplishment of which insures the feeling of responsibility to meet the standard of attainment. The subject-matter fits the child correctly (science has made it so). It has been found that one half of the day is all that is needed. The other half of the day can be spent in social and creative work.

Some of the expressional subjects for the social and creative work are: Music, dramatization, puppet show, manual arts, garden, plays, and auditorium activities. They are subjects in which a child may manifest an urge for expression and experimentation. But the urge must be sacri-

ficed when the interest of the group demands it. The child senses his dependence upon the group as well as his responsibility for the group of which he is a part.

For instance in music, the sweetest tones, the clearest diction, the most correct pitch that each one can produce gives that much more pleasure to the others of the group. In listening to good music each child must place himself in a receptive mood. One first grade has repeatedly requested that Chopin's "Black Key Etude" be played at their weekly appreciation lessons. A sixth grade shared its intimacy with the three composers, Bach, Beethoven, and Mozart, by giving biographical talks accompanied with lantern slides of their selection and manipulation. Three children furnished music from each of the composers. Finished singing and finished rhythm exercises are not the ultimate aims for music, but rather the joy of singing and of listening and of dancing.

The assembly work is a means for unifying the whole school. It is a place where children may share their individual and group activities. Programs vary. They may be those of solely electing school-government officers and committees. They may be talks about the school day's activities, story festivals or finished dramatizations.

But the group cannot progress unless there is developed in each child the latent capacities that are different. The individual varies from the average, and should be encouraged to do creative work. He should be original in what he contributes.

The content subjects such as health, civics, literature, nature study, and history that includes geography stimulate a wide variety of cooperative activities through which the child may grow. In the first grades such subjects as community life, home life, farm life might be experienced. A second grade has Indian, or Arabian or Japanese life. A certain third grade teacher said to me, "This year I am teaching Russia, as I am interested in that country. I am not required to do it. It is my own idea. The children are keenly interested, too."

There is a supervisor who aids the teacher and the pupils directly and indirectly in this field of creative work. She maintains a reserve library and a supply room of lumber, clay, paints, kiln, picture machine, camera and illustrative materials. She and the teacher want the children to experience life. Therefore, the creative activities are in the form of play-houses that are big enough to "go inside"; caves big enough to live in; tepees that are life size; Viking boats that are big enough to hold a pupil passenger or two. As much of the world as is possible is brought into the schoolroom. When that is not possible, the school goes out to the world. There are trips to the farm, to the museum, to the stores. One grade tramped far into the woods to live as did the cave men.

The third grade which is studying Russia trooped into their room the other day at three, instead of at one o'clock, in the afternoon, their arms loaded with marsh grasses to be used in making a thatched peasant cottage.

Problem solving is an essential phase of a group activity lesson. A fifth grade group converted the stage of the auditorium into a Grecian dwelling. They had to measure the width of the stage and from that measurement find the right number of pillars that were needed. They had to select pillars that were not too thin, nor yet too thick, in order that the dwelling be pleasing to the eye and correct as to structure.

A fourth grade had Egyptian life displayed in the room in various forms. The teacher said in answer to questions, "Yes. It is quite extensive. I told my children that if any one presented any more ideas for this expressional work, I would be unable to help them. Sure enough a child came forth with idea of a palm tree for the princess' palace. The child made the tree all right. But to make it stand up was the problem. I have learned that a child can solve about three-fourths of a problem in his creative work. The one-fourth resolves itself upon me."

The teacher and the supervisor also aim to teach correctness of form of expressing an idea whether the form be speech, drama, music or hand-work. This alertness is constantly evident but not so constantly that spontaneity and freshness are inhibited. When an environment is rich for creative expressions one may find attempts to give thoughts the form of poetry. A first grade child composed the following:

In summer when the leaves are green
And little children happy seem,
The farmyard animals make noise.
'Cluck, cluck' goes the rooster,
'Bowwow!' goes the dog.
'Bowwow! wow' all the day,
'Moo, moo,' goes the cow,
'Moo, moo, moo' the cow does say,
The farmyard is the best at last
To stay and lie all day.

A second grade child wrote:

I have a little shadow
That stays by me at day.
But when it goes a raining
My shadow goes away.

The teacher and the supervisor know that new experiences for the child should be added to the old when the child is ready to make these experiences a part of himself. Their attentions are directed to keeping every one happily busy. A certain first grade wanted the simplest technic for drawing a tree. During the art lesson a child had crayoned a whole page of rhythmical sweeps of the brightest crayon colors instead of drawing a tree. The result was a pleasing effect. When questioned as to why she had made her picture thus, she said, "I just wanted to make color."

Sharp lines are not drawn to separate absolutely the social and individual parts of the work. When a socialized activity needs certain knowledges

and skills, the social and individual activities merge. But certain parts of the day are devoted to individual mastery of tool and fact subjects. Other parts give the emphasis upon selfexpression and socialized activities.

For the group and creative subjects the child receives no grade marking. But on one side of the goal card are check marks showing the child's progress in developing certain habits and attitudes. They are orderliness, work spirit, selfreliance, initiative, and special interests.

Discipline is different from what it used to be. It is training in the use of freedom. Discipline controls and guides. It maintains a direction that more and more develops into selfdirection and selfdetermination. A most obstreperous, unthoughtful fifth grade boy said to his teacher shortly before spring vacation, "I am much better than I used to be. I like to be polite and kind now. And now I am invited to three parties this coming vacation. I never was invited before."

A first grade child, who had been a problem child at the beginning of the year, recently analyzed his behavior thus: "See my good paper. Isn't it good? I was good all afternoon. This morning I was naughty. That's why I didn't do good work." And another first grade child said, "Miss X, if you want to go away, we can take care of ourselves."

The child has a right to be natural and happy in a real life situation. Education is life. He has a right to modify his intellectual ability in the way that makes for growth and prepares for life; he has a right to develop his individuality with real problems to solve; he has a right to develop the spirit of group service, living with others for others. Because the child is being better understood, the Winnetka public schools are offering him opportunities to experience life situations, to develop skills, to create attitudes, to train abilities. The child gains habits, thoughts, and actions that are foundations for a full living.

REPORT OF THE RESEARCH COMMITTEE

JANE ROBERTS, KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY SUPERVISOR, PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
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During the year 1925-1926, a poetry experiment for the purpose of objectively discovering children's likes and dislikes in poetry was conducted by Miriam B. Huber, Herbert B. Bruner of Teachers College, Columbia University, and Charles M. Curry, formerly of the Indiana State Normal School. This experiment was conducted in twelve different cities. Fifty thousand children from the first grade through the ninth, as well as the fifteen hundred teachers of these children, took part in the experiment. The result was the publication, in 1927, of nine volumes, one for each grade, called *The Poetry Book*, each of which contains the best liked of the poems for each grade. A volume for teachers also resulted, called *Children's Interests in Poetry*. The publishers, Rand, McNally and Company, financed the publication of the experimental edition of the poems, and are the publishers of the permanent edition.

Since Gary was one of the cities to take part in the experiment, a number of Gary kindergartens expressed the wish that they might do something similar with four and five-year-old kindergarten children. A need for a differentiated curriculum for four and five-year-olds had long been felt in Gary, and it was thought that the carrying out of such an experiment might point the way to selecting different poems for these two groups. So, in the fall of 1927, a list of eighty poems thought suitable for such an experiment with kindergarten children was selected and prepared for the use of the teachers. Briefly, these poems were selected as follows:

1. The first ten best-liked poems in the first grade list of the Huber-Bruner experiment were included.

2. Forty-six from the list published by the Literature Committee of the International Kindergarten Union were selected.

3. A large number of kindergarten courses of study were examined, and those poems that were common to most of them were included.

4. A few were included that did not appear in very many courses of study, or that were found in no courses, because it seemed to those selecting them that they would make a particular appeal to kindergarten children. An example of this type is the one called "The Pumpkin and the Moon."

The directions for carrying on the experiment coincided very closely with those of the Huber-Bruner experiment. After we had started our experiment we discovered that the procedure as outlined by the Huber-Bruner experiment was not suited to kindergarten children. They could rather readily choose one of five poems which they liked best and one which they liked least, but it was difficult for them to choose two from fifteen or thirty or sixty, as was necessary in following their organization. Therefore, if we try this experiment again we shall have a different organization which will not require that the children choose from more than five poems at one time.

We shall quote briefly from the directions given our teachers in order that the procedure followed may be understood.

This experiment with children's poetry will take approximately eighteen weeks to finish . . . In general, the scheme consists of having the children come in contact with sixty poems and then checking up to see which of these poems are liked best or least.

It makes no difference in what order the poems are presented. The method of teaching should be your own. It is not meant that the poems should be memorized, unless the teacher and children so desire. If any are memorized, only a small fraction of those presented should be attempted.

Step 1—Select any five poems from the booklet and plan to present them the first week. This would be an average of one poem a day. (It is possible, when those selected are Mother Goose rhymes or familiar material, that more than one could be given in one day.)

After these five poems have been selected and presented to the children, you will set aside one period to record the children's first choice and last choice of the five poems he has become familiar with. This we shall call selection day. Four-year-olds and five-year-olds will be given the same poems each week. There should be no variation in this.

The following plan for determining the children's choice is offered:

First talk to the children and let them talk to you about each of the five poems that you have read to them during the past few days. Then, if you have both four and five-year olds in the same group, separate them, assigning one group to the teacher working with you, or, if you are alone, allowing one group to play while you work with the other. Then, with your scoring sheet in your hand, call one child at a time to you, and have him tell you, as a secret, which one of the five poems he liked best, and which one least.

As soon as your pupils have come in contact with the first five poems selected for them, and have had their selection day as outlined above, they are ready for five more poems. You select this next group of five, and proceed with them as you did with the first five. After each selection day, you should send to the office of the supervisor your "Summary of Results Sheet."

Step 3—When you have finished with the second five poems and your results have been sent in to the office, choose a third five and present them. Proceed to record the children's choices from these five just as you did before.

We shall not quote further from the directions for lack of time. When fifteen poems had been presented, they were reviewed and a choice of two made from the fifteen. Then another five was selected and presented, and so on until sixty poems altogether had been used.

Toward the end of the first semester, the Kalamazoo, Michigan, public schools joined in the experiment. Their procedure was somewhat different from that followed in Gary, in that the review and the choice from the reviewed poems was eliminated. While this brings the number from which the children chose at one time, down to a practical size, it has the weakness of not allowing for revoting on some of the poems.

Kalamazoo had approximately six hundred children in the experiment—five hundred five-year-olds and one hundred four-year-olds. Gary had approximately fifteen hundred,—one thousand five-year-olds and five hundred four-year-olds. This made the total number from both cities approximately two thousand. This number is not large enough to give reliable results, but it was believed that the results from this number might at least indicate something.

Results of the experiment—There is not time enough to call attention to all the interesting points that may be found by a study of the tabulated lists. Only a few of the more outstanding will be mentioned.

1. Mother Goose rhymes seem to be more popular with Gary children than with Kalamazoo children. Nine of the twenty-five best-liked poems in the Gary five-year list are Mother Goose, while in the Kalamazoo five-year list there are six Mother Goose rhymes in the first twenty-five. Comparing the four-year-olds, fourteen of the twenty-five best-liked in Gary are Mother Goose while in Kalamazoo eleven are Mother Goose. This would seem to indicate that Mother Goose is better liked by four-year-olds.

In Gary, Jack and Jill seems to be the best liked by both four and five-year-olds. But it is also the most disliked by five-year-olds in Gary.

In other words, about three-fifths of Gary five-year-olds prefer Jack and Jill, while about two-fifths dislike it most.

How can we account for these things?

It is thought that Kalamazoo children, being mostly of American parentage, are tired of Mother Goose when they enter kindergarten, having had it at home. A large percentage of Gary children are foreign born or of foreign parents, and therefore Mother Goose is new to them when they enter kindergarten at the age of four, or in many cases, five.

The fact that Jack and Jill received the highest number of votes from Gary five-year-olds as being most liked and disliked may be due to the same thing. In other words, it appealed most to foreign children, and least to American children who had had it before. Or, the ones who disliked it may have been those who had already attended kindergarten a year.

These figures seem to indicate that we can give too much Mother Goose to kindergarten children.

Another interesting point is that *The Woodpecker* is the first choice of Kalamazoo five-year-olds, and the first choice of first graders in the Huber-Bruner experiment.

Certain poems appear uniformly at the end of both the Gary and Kalamazoo best-liked lists, indicating general unpopularity. They are: *We Thank Thee, Old Gaelic Lullaby, Three Jovial Huntsmen, A Child's Prayer, A Child's Grace.*

While not in every case standing in highest rank, the following poems rank high, or fairly high, in both Gary and Kalamazoo four and five-year lists: *The Barnyard, A Farmer Went Riding, Three Little Kittens, The Balloon Man, Puppy and I, The Snowman, Time to Rise.*

The Barnyard, Time to Rise, and Three Little Kittens occur among the first ten in both Gary and Kalamazoo five-year lists; while *The Barnyard* and *Three Little Kittens* are the only two common to the first ten in both Gary and Kalamazoo four-year lists.

Reasons for liking and disliking poems—Time prevents our drawing further comparisons, as there are other interesting phases of the experiment which should be touched upon. One of these is the children's reasons for liking and disliking certain poems. The reasons are given in the children's own words.

The Snowman—I like it because I like snow; I like it because the snowman melts; because we know a story of a snow girl and I like it.

I don't like it because the snowman turned to a puddle.

Jack and Jill—I like it because they fell down; I like it because they went up-hill; because its funny; because it makes me laugh; because they helped their mother; I like to say it; I sing it at home; it's good; it's short.

I don't like it because Jack fell down and broke his crown; I don't like to hear it; those kids are not strong; they can't carry a pail of water; they are not good kids; because they fell down and got hurt; I don't like it because I know it; it doesn't sound good.

The Cow—I like it because I like cream; because I like milk; because the cow is pretty; because the cow is red.

I don't like it because I don't like cows; because the cow gives milk and I don't like milk; I don't like it because the cow ate the flowers.

Time to Rise—I like it because the bird told sleepy-head to get up; because the birdie had a yellow bill; because it is the prettiest one; because the birdie hopped on the window-sill; I'd like to have a birdie of my own; because I'm a sleepy-head too; I like yellow birds; because the bird waked up the kid.

Three Little Kittens—I like it because it's pretty; because I like kittens; because they have mittens; because I know it best; because the kittens ate pie; because they found their mittens; because its furry; because its a nice one; because they cried; because it says "purr."

The Barnyard—I like it because the animals are polite; because the animals said 'thank you' like we do; because the cow said 'moo' and the duck said 'quack'; because I've seen these animals on the farm; because it had so many funny things in it; because the words are pretty; because the farmer says 'good-night' to them.

From the tabulated list of choices and the reasons can we not get some indication of what our measure for poetry, from the children's standpoint, should be?

Pleasing content, which is pleasing because it involves some object or experience pleasurable to the child; humor; brevity; rhythmic word combinations and rhyming words; concrete, objective subjectmatter, seem to be outstanding reasons for the selection of poems by children.

This is borne out by their choices. Compare any of the best-liked, *The Barnyard*, *Time to Rise*, and *Three Little Kittens*, with any three of the least-liked,—*We Thank Thee*, *Old Gaelic Lullaby* or *Three Jovial Huntsmen*, and it is clear that the children have made honest and child-like choices.

We feel that we have but made a beginning in this study of kindergarten children's preferences in poetry. We need from ten to fifteen cities in different parts of the country to join us in carrying it on next year.

THE CHILD AS INFLUENCED BY HIS CONTEMPORARY GROUP

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In every group of children we find some with the quality of leadership. It is through our skills in enlisting the interest and cooperation of these leaders along the lines of right habits and attitudes that we secure that group morale which is so necessary for successful character training. There is in every group of children a certain fine loyalty to the code of the group, and it should be within the power of every teacher to transfer this fine loyalty from a narrowly personal to a broadly moral realm. It is a challenge to every one of us, this making honesty, justice, and truth fashionable in the group.

It has been most evident in the last few years that modern methods in regard to health habits, for instance, have succeeded in securing the interest and cooperation of the group. The tooth brush has become involved with gold stars and radio talks; milk taken from a bottle by means of a straw in the joyous company of other weight-seekers seems more attractive than

the fluid urged upon one by anxious parents, spinach is mentioned with affection and carrots with respect, in the comforting consciousness that this is in full accord with the best group traditions.

In matters of social adjustment we arrange situations and provide activities which allow for the practise of principles of right conduct in such a way that it is proven that the only possible method by which harmony, happiness, and the approval of the group may be secured is by taking turns, by respecting property rights, and by sharing privileges.

WHAT THE CHILD GUIDANCE CLINIC DOES FOR THE CHILD

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Youth is not in revolt when it seeks to know how and why life actually should be lived. The youth of today has been stimulated by modern invention and science to live by trial and error rather than by the authority of some ancient custom or creed. The prestige of tradition and precedent wavers. A child of five can enter the kindergarten today having seen from the automobile, having heard over the radio, having observed on the screen, and having overheard from the press more events and information of life than did his grandparents ever learn in their entire life span. It is natural, then, that in recent years educators universally have come to stress not so much the acquisition and retention of knowledge in the classroom, as the use of knowledge in every-day life. It is the utilization of one's knowledge which hampers or facilitates an individual to adapt to the lives of others about them.

Colleges and professional schools decry the training the student received in high school; the senior high school criticizes the preparation given in the junior high school; and the junior high school looks askance at the elementary grade achievements. Finally, the primary grade and the kindergarten turn to the home to blame a parent not known to them to be overworked or ill or distraught with trouble. Each and every one are tempted to blame another other than estimate their own responsibility in the behavior and progress of a child. Not infrequently all join together to label the fault as inherited or the responsibility of a generation ago. Sometimes it is more convenient to blame the child, particularly if there is the likelihood that the error committed will come to rest upon an adult. Youth, today, is not so much in revolt as it is curious to know at last how life should be actually lived, and not by some defunct authority of some ancient tradition or creed. This uncompromising refusal of children to continue blindfolded on straight and narrow paths where our ancestors were content to be defeated should be encouraged and should be guided.

A child guidance clinic jointly associated with the school system aids the child early in the kindergarten to understand others and to be under-

stood. It more often assists adults than it does the child. Home life in America may be on the wane, but there is still much of family life which cannot be shared with those outside the family circle. With the ethical standards of the medical profession, a child guidance clinic assumes the responsibility of interpreting the home of a child to the teacher, the school to the parents of the child, and primarily the child is assisted to comprehend the aims and attitudes of adults, teachers, and parents. Not always can the attitudes of adults be explained to the child. It would be too overwhelming and too discouraging for the child to know early that too many adults believe they have the inalienable right or the sacred duty to shape, check, repress or coerce the emotions and thoughts of children to their own individual whims and prejudices.

It is the right and the duty of parents and teachers, however, to learn all they can of each child to whom they are responsible and to help that child become selfreliant and selfcontrolled. In this duty, a child guidance clinic shares with parents and teachers the opportunity to assist children to grow up with confidence and courage to cope with the changes of constructive modern life. A child guidance clinic assists those interested in children to help the child himself to be encouraged to make use of his own individual method of response to the subjectmatter of life.

THE CHILD IN HIS PLAY GROUP

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In considering a study of the child in relation to his play group let us think of him in relation to a group of his own choosing, whether it be in the backyard or in the playroom of the home, the playground at school or within the four walls of the building itself. In such a group which he joins of his own volition, rather than in the organized play group where games and directed activities are carried on, we find the real child. Groups of this type represent the child in his leisure time comparable to the adult with the opportunity for leisure.

Inasmuch as my special interest at the present time lies in the youngest member of the educational family, the nursery school child, I will endeavor to bring to your attention a few aspects of the development of the young child as he goes about the serious business of play. At the nursery school level the development of speech that comes through group contact is a most interesting study. We find children whose vocabulary has been retarded, and when exposed to the social situation offered by several children playing together, the child's freedom of expression grows by leaps and bounds. Perhaps in his association with adults or with older children in the family, he has resorted to his dramatic ability, to gesture or sounds to gain his point. Parents respond to these baby means of expression, but he finds that these have little weight with his companions and as a result the need for language comes home to him in order to satisfy his desires.

On the other hand the older members of the group may revert to the baby talk of younger playmates. If this passes unnoticed among the grown-up members of the circle they soon forget this. It is evidence of the sensitivity that the young child has in hearing conversation about him.

The child who has the privilege of being one of a play group meets a challenge to his mental capacities that the child who plays alone does not meet. Follow a youngster for a morning in the nursery school or kindergarten and note the number of problems that confront him. One of our three-year-olds will plot, bargain and maneuver in order to solve his difficulty whatever it may be. He has found through sad experience that snatching or hitting another child to force him to give up the beloved toy brings only an undesirable response. The other day all the kiddie-kars were in use and at that moment Phil apparently had a great yearning for one. He stood at the window looking longingly at a playmate enjoying a kiddie-kar as he pulled a duck on wheels behind him. Phil watched enviously the rider of the kiddie-kar, then looked out of the window at the school sheep grazing on the grass plot beyond the playground. An idea dawned! His face lighted up and he shouted, with great enthusiasm, "Oooh! See the sheep! See the sheep!" His enthusiasm and tone of voice commanded the interest of several children. The rider of the kiddie-kar hopped off and ran to the window while Phil slyly absconded the kiddie-kar. In this case the solution to his problem worked, for Jack became absorbed in watching the sheep. Phil will soon learn however that attempts at diversion will not always meet with success. We as teachers know that only too well.

Two little girls were washing doll clothes in the wash basin when the bowl became too full. The water faucet had stuck and as the water rose to the top the children began to look about with panicky expressions. One child ran for the mop as she saw the overflow was inevitable, while the other gave the stopper a hard pull. Every day with any group of children, challenging problems arise and the success with which they meet them is due to the opportunity given the youngsters to work out their own salvation. The adult acts as an onlooker and interferes only when might alone will win, or when the solution is beyond the child's ability.

The child must be alert. When in this play contact with others he soon learns through experience that he will lose out many times unless he is alive to the activity about him. Competition calls forth greater effort. Imagination is aroused and many other mental traits are stimulated.

As to the emotional life of the child we frequently see fears disappearing because of the many activities carried on by others. Often the example set by one eradicates fear in a playmate, and places the child on the road to selfconfidence. For example the child who is afraid of heights sees a friend ascend to the top of the slide, a large drygoods box, or a fence. He tries it too, and after several attempts finds there is no cause for fear. How contagious is laughter over thunder and what a help to those who have squirmed under its peal.

The fiery temper is curbed and controlled as the peppery individual finds that his outbursts bring him isolation rather than the attainment of his wishes.

As social adjustment becomes more evident greater harmony is established in the group, which should mean for the individual the building up of the habit of being happy. If we as adults, can guide the play of children so that the atmosphere prevails and the habitually happy child is the result are we not helping to cultivate one of the most priceless characteristics a human being may possess?

In a consideration of the emotional condition of children in a play group there is need for the adult to be constantly alert to signs of over stimulation which may come about frequently from too large groups, limited play space or from no supervision. The latter condition is often responsible for the fatigue and over-stimulation that comes in the home or backyard.

We are aware of the value of the play group as a socializing agency. Even the youngest nursery school child is gregarious and enjoys being near or with the crowd, though his activity may be purely individual. Gradually he enters into contact with one or two other little individuals, though his approach may be that of snatching or hitting. A give and take relationship finally evolves through the experience of living together in this play atmosphere. Such qualities as generosity and thoughtfulness cannot be taught to little children but must grow out of life situations.

Let me give an example of the development of generosity as it has been studied in one of our nursery school centers. The director has made a most extensive study of play materials for this age level and has seen the need for considerable duplication. There must be times when the individual is protected so that he will not have to give up some beloved toy to others. He should, many times, be able to reach a point of satisfaction. If frequently forced to, "Be generous," especially if accompanied by the familiar little sermon of many mothers, "You mustn't be a selfish boy, John. Give the engine to your little friend," will there be a true desire to share, or will John feel resentful toward the adult who requests him to give up his precious engine? And will he rejoice in seeing a playmate possess it proudly? Not at all! Here is the need for duplication. It is true we cannot and should not at all times offer a duplicate, but in the highly individualistic stage of the two to four-year-old it is often advisable. We must help to cultivate friendly attitudes if sharing is to mean anything.

A criticism parents make of social groups at the nursery school or kindergarten level is that children soon reach the place where they never want to be alone. This is a dangerous state of affairs. Children need to learn to enjoy being alone and finding worthwhile occupation as well as to enjoy and to adapt happily to groups. Are not many of our young people in that state of restlessness today? They must have a crowd around and there must be something going or some place to go. If parents and teachers are setting up the right environment and are encouraging creative effort

along all lines, should not group contacts develop in the child a resourcefulness which will bring about a satisfaction in individual pursuits?

That intangible something we call personality is molded and developed through association with others, and at what an early age do we see these little personalities taking on new tones, new shades!

In the physical life of the child we see new skills and abilities arising. Competition enters in and though joy in the activity is of more importance at this level than development of skills, the child is constantly gaining in coordination.

Anyone knowing young children intimately will agree I believe that children are more spontaneous and free when engaged in play out of doors, than when they are within the four walls of home or school. There is something about having the blue sky for a roof and the horizon for a boundary line that is conducive to the presentation of the real child. Let me make a plea therefore for more play out of doors—not organized games or a longer “recess period”—but the selfinitiated activities found in our informal lower school groupings. This means the moving out and in of materials but often this is possible and the teacher who attempts it will reap the benefits of seeing the most worthwhile work.

To aid children in putting more content into their play should we not give them more first hand experiences, utilizing the opportunities and institutions that our communities offer? I recall a first grade teacher who had a group in rather a poor section of the city close to the down town center. The children were attempting to carry on a street car project. Upon questioning, the teacher found that many of the children had had the experience of seeing street cars only from the outside. Few had ridden in them. The teacher thought this enlightening information. She called the principal, a most understanding person, and when he was confronted with the fact of the children's meager background, he straightway secured a pocket full of nickels and he, the teacher, and the children spent the afternoon riding on the street cars and visiting the car barns and repair yards.

Do we as teachers know the experiences our children have? They need those which will carry over and be reproduced and enacted in their daily play activities, for in the vital, serious business of play children develop an attitude which will make for purposeful work at each stage of progress until, when later life is reached, the habit of purposeful work and wise use of leisure is established.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

The luncheon of the Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education of the National Education Association, July 5, 1928, at the Nicollet Hotel, Minneapolis, Minn., completed a most successful series of meetings for this department.

The meeting was presided over by Miss Eleanor Troxell, President of the department.

Officers for the coming year were announced as follows: *President*, Mary Dabney Davis, Head of the Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Division of the Bureau

of Education, Washington, D. C. *Vicepresident*, Winifred Bain, a fellowship student at Teachers College, Columbia University, and formerly of the State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. *Secretary*, Miss Florence Davenport, St. Paul, Minnesota.

The following delegates to the National Council of Education were announced: Miss Agnes Burke, Teachers College, Columbia University; Miss Frances Berry, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Baltimore, Md.; Miss Caroline Barbour, State Teachers College, Superior, Wisconsin.

Miss Barbour, President of the International Kindergarten Union, brought cordial greetings from that organization to the assembled group. Miss Hahn, President of the Primary Council, sent a very happy greeting by letter, with deep regrets that she could not be present.

Miss Miriam Brubaker, director of the nursery school at National Kindergarten and Elementary College, gave a most interesting and helpful talk on "The Child in His Own Play Group." She made a plea for more outdoor activity and more excursions for the little child. Among other things, she warned that young children should not be overstimulated, and that teachers should see that they have opportunities to be alone. Group play only, develops the desire for companionship at all times, so that the child is not satisfied at home.

Mrs. Eleanor Poehler, accompanied by Mrs. Eleanor Freemantle, sang a most delightful and charming group of songs about children.

Dr. John Chamberlain, Head of the Child Guidance Clinic of Minneapolis, Minnesota, gave a most helpful talk. His subject was, "What the Child Guidance Clinic Does for the Child." Dr. Chamberlain said that the Child Guidance Clinic aids the child in the kindergarten to understand and to be understood; it aids the adult more often than it aids the child; it interprets the home and the child to the school, and the school to the home. Its method of work is to find out about the family history, to give a psychometric examination, and to make a personality study.

Miss Stella Wood, head of Wood's Kindergarten-Primary Training School, read a very interesting paper on "The Child in His Contemporary Group." She brought out the point that the school can often do more to bring about desirable behavior on the part of the child than can the home, because the school has it within its power to make certain activities "fashionable." She gave as examples the instances of children eating in school certain foods which they will not touch at home; washing without protest at school; behaving unselfishly because others do, etc. Her paper closed with a very interesting "case history" written thirty-five years previously, showing how a selfish child learned to share through the influence the group had upon him.

The meeting was then adjourned.

The 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 1928-29: are *President*, Caroline F. Kimball, 39 Jackson St., East Lynn, Mass.; *Vicepresident*, Coralie N. Kenfield, 617 Shreve Building, San Francisco, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Alice I. Putnam, 3610 Milam St., Houston, Texas. Meetings are held once each year in July. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are to be found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1926:473-486

1927:473-486

REDUCING THE HANDICAP OF THE HARD OF HEARING

HORACE NEWHART, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF OTOTOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE HARD OF HEARING,
MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

THE MAGNITUDE and importance of the problem of the hard of hearing has long been unappreciated. Recent investigations by scientific methods of the acuity of hearing have shown that in the United States there exist nearly three million public school children with a hearing loss sufficient to be a possible hindrance in their educational advancement and to become later in life a probable factor in limiting their economic success and in curtailing their social contacts and pleasures. There are doubtless three million more individuals who are already seriously handicapped by their defective hearing.

This situation has long existed but has not been generally recognized except by our otologists. The latter, unaided, have been unable to cope with the problem. They have realized, nevertheless, that a very large proportion of cases of partial deafness are preventible if discovered early and given adequate treatment. Efforts in this direction on a large scale have not been possible, chiefly because of ignorance, indifference and a lack of adequate means to detect accurately a slight degree of hearing loss. The result has been an admittedly gross neglect of the hard of hearing and their peculiar needs. It has remained for the hard of hearing themselves aided by a few interested otologists, scientists, and public spirited citizens, to initiate and carry on definite effective efforts in behalf of this neglected group.

In any comprehensive program for reducing the handicap of the deafened, prevention must hold first place. Prevention implies the early detection of all those individuals who may have even a relatively slight degree of hearing loss; for if overlooked and neglected until the impairment becomes apparent, they already have a serious handicap which too often cannot be remedied but is apt to become progressively worse.

The most advantageous time to apply preventive measures in combating deafness is during school life. Our older methods of testing hearing acuity have proven altogether inadequate for the purpose of prevention. Their uncertainty, slowness of application and cost have precluded their application on a large scale and have made of no effect such laws as exist in many of our states providing for the yearly testing of the hearing of all school children.

The recent invention and perfection of the audiometer, chiefly the contributions of Dr. E. P. Fowler and of Dr. Harvey Fletcher, of the Bell Telephone Laboratories, has given us the means for quickly, accurately, and economically determining the acuity of hearing of large groups. With the 4-A or multiple telephone phonograph audiometer it is now possible to test children above the second year in elementary schools at the rate of

more than one hundred per hour; forty or forty-eight being examined simultaneously. Children who are too young to write to dictation are tested individually with another instrument, the 3-A audiometer of the Western Electric Company at a rate of twenty to twenty-five per hour. All pupils showing in one or both ears a hearing loss of six or nine sensation units and more (the basic figure varying at the present time with the operator according to the needs of his immediate environment) are given a second test for the sake of accuracy. All who on this retest still show a definite hearing loss are regarded as requiring special otological examination to determine the possible presence of any factors which require removal or correction.

The regular examination of the hearing acuity of school children by means of the audiometer was first officially adopted by the Board of Education of Minneapolis in September, 1926, although preliminary research with the audiometer had already been conducted in New York City, Rochester, New York, and Poughkeepsie, New York. The findings have been so conclusive that many cities including San Francisco, Detroit, St. Louis, Boston, Chicago, Columbus, Ohio, Fort Worth, and many others have already adopted this method. It is very apparent from the tests already made that from eight to ten or more percent of our school children are in need of medical attention directed to their ears. In the light of knowledge most recently acquired, this means not a superficial examination, but one in many cases calling for highly specialized skill and knowledge. This fact however should not deter us from giving to each child the best which present equipment and medical skill can provide.

The entire subject is so new that there is need for the greatest publicity to acquaint all classes with the need and possibilities of attainment connected with this work. There is already apparent a need for the standardization of methods. This system is now applicable in all of our larger cities, where already much of the organization required has been provided. With modifications, it has an equal, if not a more needy field of application in our rural communities where the teacher can most efficiently carry on in cooperation with the medical man, after each shall have been made familiar with the details of the work. Ultimately uniform legislation in all of our states must be secured, which will provide for the regular periodic and adequate examination of the ears of all school children, and will guarantee to each child the benefit of the necessary medical care to yield the most nearly perfect hearing in each individual case.

Under all circumstances the teacher is so situated as to do much to lessen the handicap of her hard of hearing charges. They should always be given seats near the front of the schoolroom with the better ear toward the teacher and the other pupils. It is also important that the light should be such as to fall favorably upon the lips of the teacher and those reciting. Correct speech habits on the part of the teacher also go far towards lessening the efforts of the hard of hearing pupil.

A most important means to effectively lessen the handicap of impaired hearing is the provision of instruction in lip reading for all children who are retarded in their class work because of this deficiency be it only slight. One or two short periods a week, it is recognized, will keep many of these pupils abreast of their classmates, whereas they would otherwise be retarded and become repeaters—an unfortunate circumstance for the pupil and for the taxpayer.

A still further step in reducing this handicap is found in extending to the adult deafened the boon of lip-reading through the organization of special classes.

WHY HARD OF HEARING PUPILS IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS SHOULD BE TAUGHT LIP READING

CAROLINE F. KIMBALL, TEACHER OF LIP READING, PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF LYNN, MASS., AND PRESIDENT OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LIP READING, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

Everyone will admit that there are a few hard of hearing pupils in the public schools, but they are skeptical about there being a sufficient number of such pupils to justify the employment of a teacher to instruct them in lip reading, or speech reading as some prefer to call it.

Investigations have been conducted that show that there are probably no less than 3,000,000 pupils having defective hearing in the public schools of our country.

Some years ago, when the teaching of lip reading in the schools was in its early stages, the school authorities in Washington, D. C., thought there were not more than eight hard of hearing pupils in the schools of that city. A survey has been made which has resulted in the finding of over 1400 pupils having defective hearing in the intermediate grades alone.

Partial deafness is not always easy to discover, in fact, in many cases the pupils themselves do not know that they are hard of hearing. The old way was to allow such pupils to get what they could in school, and after dragging along for some years, finally to drop out, discouraged and with small equipment to meet the problems that life thrust upon them.

But happily, there is a new way, a brighter outlook for the hard of hearing at the present time, not only for the children, but adults as well. In fact, the work started with the adults, and because of the benefit they derived, it is being adapted to the needs of children having imperfect hearing.

For many years the condition of the totally deaf child without speech has been recognized, and educational facilities provided for such cases. Witness the fine schools for the deaf in all parts of our country with devoted teachers ever seeking for the best ways of teaching the pupils in their charge.

But what about those little people and, indeed, the older pupils who have speech, who hear somethings and miss somethings, whose ears play tricks on them? Surely, they do not belong in schools for deaf children. What they need is to be shown how to pay closer attention, to have their eyes and their

minds more alert by special practice. And so we teach them lip reading, which is designed to do this very thing.

The 4A phone-audiometer, a scientific instrument for testing the hearing, is constantly revealing cases of pupils whose backwardness in school is due to impaired hearing when no one realized before that such was the case.

Witness the case of this boy: A phono-audiometer test was made of the pupils in his school. His test showed that he had a 24 percent loss of hearing in both ears. Because of intelligence tests he was well placed in school, but his work in the schoolroom was not what the result of the intelligence test would indicate. When asked what they thought was the reason for his poor showing in the schoolroom, his teachers said they thought he was lazy. Neither they nor he knew that his hearing was below normal.

Only recently I found a little girl in one of the schools I visit regularly. She had just become a member of the class. Her grandmother with whom she lives had told the teacher that the child was hard of hearing. When asked if she noticed the child's handicap, the teacher said "No." The only thing she noticed was the wild answers which the child gave to the questions she was asked.

Now, I believe that by training children in lip reading and following them along through the grades, the handicap of imperfect hearing may be greatly minimized.

Mary first came to me when she was in the first grade. She could not hear as well as the other children. We began the lip reading lessons, very simple at first, being careful not to overtax the eyes. I have kept along with Mary. She is now in the 6th grade. I am confident that without the lip reading lessons and some help in her other lessons that I have been able to give her, she would not have progressed in school as well as she has.

It behooves us to discover and follow-up the cases of hard of hearing pupils, because deafness is in most cases progressive and insidious in its progress. The child who shows a slight loss of hearing now, in a few years' time is likely to show a greater loss. Lip reading *does* minimize the handicap.

It is a source of great satisfaction to me to see how much more readily children who have had lip reading lessons understand what is said than do children who are beginning the lessons.

Another point to keep in mind is this, that if the hard of hearing pupils do not have special training to meet their needs, when they become older we suddenly awake to the fact that they have lost something which can never be made up to them.

A child lost her hearing when she was three or four years old because of scarlet fever. She could hear some, but not enough to learn to talk. Her mother thought when she had an opportunity she could take the child to the hospital and by having some slight operation the child would be able to talk and hear. When, at the age of nineteen, she finally did take her daughter to the hospital, she found that nothing could be done for her. The daughter had tried to work in the shop, but she could not understand

well enough to follow the simplest directions. She had remained in school—not the public school—through the fifth grade. She had learned to write and copy very nicely.

At the hospital her mother was advised to have the young lady study lip reading. Lip reading classes had just been started in the city in which she lived. Of course, she needed more than lip reading. After four months' study she had an opportunity to go to work. Her folks were skeptical about her being able to hold the job, but they wanted her to try it. That was seven years ago. She is still working at the same place, a happy, useful member of society and a trusted employee. She travels on the train to her work, goes shopping by herself, and is selfreliant and resourceful. Who can doubt that lip reading is a real benefit? Without the lip reading lessons and help that she received, she would not have been able to go outside her home to work. She continues to take private lessons and has for the past three or four years had a lesson a week through the winter. She has a good mind. How much better it would have been for her to have had the training when she was younger. How many children are we neglecting now?

This year a young lady has graduated from one of our high schools, an honor pupil in spite of the fact that she has been handicapped by increasing deafness, which can neither be relieved nor can its progress be checked by medical treatment.

For the past five years this young lady has had instruction in lip reading and she is a very good lip reader. During that time, I have witnessed her increasing deafness. If it must be that she will lose her hearing entirely in the future, what better training could she have than the lip reading lessons which have been provided for her during her junior and senior high-school years?

Our aims are prevention of deafness, by all means, when it is possible; discovery of pupils with imperfect hearing; medical treatment to cure if possible, if not, to improve existing conditions; lip reading instruction for those who are handicapped or who will be later in life.

WHAT IS BEING DONE FOR THE HARD OF HEARING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF ST. PAUL

S. O. HARTWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ST. PAUL, MINN.

In provision for the hard of hearing, we are behind both our needs and our desires. For two or three years the director of special classes has been urgently presenting the need for at least two additional teachers who should take these groups for parttime work in lip reading. While state aid would be available for part of the expense, our budget is just now so hampered through charter restrictions that we have not been able to meet the evident needs.

But a recent survey has not only given us working data for proving the demand, but has started some remedial work.

In March, 1928, tests were given to all the pupils in eight schools in grades 4B to 8A, inclusive. The schools selected make a fair cross-section of the city clientage. Audiometers for both group and individual testing were used. Assistants from the division of research and the division of hygiene conducted the tests and scored the papers.

Two results are noted: For about seventy-five pupils, reports were sent home advising parents regarding the deficiency in hearing and suggesting medical attention. The records of the division of hygiene show that about thirty have consulted a physician, of these ten have been reported back as not needing treatment. Second: If the average percent of loss of hearing in these eight schools adequately represent the city situation, some 2500 pupils need at attention of an ear specialist and approximately 140 should have the chance to learn lip reading.

Sometimes accurate information, such as this survey has given, helps to disclose funds not hitherto available. No such gleam of light has yet illuminated our 1928 budget. But at least the immediate problem ahead is made clear.

THE UNNECESSARY WASTE IN THE EDUCATION OF THE HARD OF HEARING

Alice G. Bryant, M. D., OTOLOGIST, AND MEMBER OF AMERICAN SOCIETY
OF HEATING AND VENTILATING ENGINEERS, BOSTON, MASS

Education as it has been carried on in our schools has not fully justified itself in the eyes or minds of the hard-of-hearing pupils. There is reason to assume that such education from the viewpoint of the hard-of-hearing pupils has not given full measure of returns. For them it has been a lessened education and indeed a costly education. They have as co-partners in the accepted educational scheme the right to expect a return on their capital. We refer now to capital not in its moneyed sense. The human factor is to be reckoned with. Every day it was becoming more apparent to the hard-of-hearing pupils that there have been widening and deepening barriers existing between their educational knowledge and experiences and those of their hearing comrades. They do not want special legislation. They do not want to be segregated. Segregation is unwarranted, unnecessary, and unjust. They do want the thoughtfulness and the intelligence of a consistent unity of life in order to direct their forces for the achievement of their rightful education and successes. They should have the initial advantage of a common pupilship.

It is a significant fact that the hard of hearing should have their special training in the lip reading, speech reading classes, but above all they should have the wide companionship of normal hearing individuals in the regular classroom work. These statements have been obtained by independent authorities who have had intimate practical knowledge of the requirements, possibilities and results in the educational training of the hard of hearing. As we think on these things, the hard-of-hearing pupils have been

educated on side lines. They have been allowed to trail behind as interpreted in processes of class-repeating and class-repeating. There has been, on the whole, much groping in the dark in our lack of classification of the deaf and the hard-of-hearing. We who are closely associated with them in the home, in educational, in social, in economic, and in medical ways clearly differentiate in our minds the cleavage lines between them. On broad lines, we may say the deaf include those persons who were born deaf or who became deaf before they acquired speech, while the hard-of-hearing became deaf after speech had been acquired. The former have been favorably provided for, as their condition is more in evidence, but we appeal for a fuller understanding of the latter—that is, the hard-of-hearing.

There is desirability and need for a common understanding on these questions. A continuous and unending progress must follow our direct incentive of study with unity and aim of purpose sweep away these educational barriers. The teachers of lip reading, speech reading, and groups of physicians, aurists, research workers, acoustic engineers, social service workers, nurses, parents, guardians, school boards, advanced thinkers of education, are stressing the potent and beneficial influences of intensive work for the hard-of-hearing. These groups are thinking in terms of life-expectations at their best, and thus “an evil clearly understood is always on the way to remedy.” The keynote in this education is to shun old methods of instruction, to enlarge our outlook by sympathetic and intelligent understanding of the position that the hard-of-hearing child bears to education and that education bears to the hard-of-hearing child. In fact, we should examine these problems in their entirety. We need to study and to forecast the net balance in the educational training of the hard-of-hearing child. The pleadings of individuals and groups interested in the hard-of-hearing problems have been heard during the years. They want to prepare the hard-of-hearing for the stresses of life, to prepare them to step into positions of the skilled worker and to occupy fields of usefulness wherever they should find themselves placed. These pleadings have gathered force and the National Education Association in its wisdom has created a Department of Lip Reading.

Lip reading, speech reading, affords an avenue toward a constructive method of dealing with this situation of the hard-of-hearing. It bridges over the untrodden pathways between the hard-of-hearing and the normal hearing individuals. It serves as a stabilizer. The hard-of-hearing are no longer restricted, hampered, discouraged, or unduly depressed when lip reading, speech reading is understood. This would seem like a fairy tale, if it were not for the real facts, the actual outcome of the systems. There is infinite scope of deep study in these interests of the hard-of-hearing that are not only individual but national and international. We have as yet but scratched the surface of these problems. We are only nearing the growing edge of a continuous and unending development. We now know our common ground. Misgivings and failures and lack of understanding

may come our way, but with unquenchable hope and great faith and ceaseless and undaunted endeavors we will carry on the good work.

A network of interests in this movement is being developed throughout the educational world, within and without the schoolroom. Each city of any large size in our country has its guilds, branches, and clubs for the hard-of-hearing. There is a spirit of happy and productive cooperation and coordination among these interconnected relationships. Across our borders and across the seas, a noteworthy interest is being shown in these comprehensive efforts for the hard-of-hearing. It is desired to arouse general and world-wide interest on this subject by a fuller appreciation of its beneficial results.

The causes of impaired hearing are sometimes baffling, but no opportunities are missed by the aurists to meet the situation. They are unceasing in their research studies and contacts to work for the conservation of hearing and prevention of impaired hearing or deafness. They are seeking aid wherever it is to be found to solve these problems, and more and more they are linking up with other scientific societies and new connections are being constantly formed.

One of our stumbling blocks has been the impossibility of individually testing the hearing of the millions and millions of school children. Such a procedure would have been a colossal affair, a time-consuming task. It would have taxed the otologists' and examiners' strength up to the hilt. Today there is a keen sense of love of research, of the conquest of the unknown. A recent example of this is the invention of Dr. Harvey Fletcher, an acoustic research engineer of the Bell Telephone laboratories and the Western Electric Company. He has invented the phono-audiometer. "It is a combination of phonograph and telephone system, whereby the record on the phonograph can be heard by a group of children through telephone receivers." It is possible to link up groups of receivers and thus increase the number of children to be tested. The different percentages of losses in hearing classifies the children for the lip reading, speech reading teachers.

Physicians are under deep obligation to Dr. Fletcher for his invention. It is of inestimable value to the aurist in interpreting the degree of deafness. The hard-of-hearing pupil is left no longer to chance. He is given immediate attention and continuous consideration. This strong grouping scheme is a great new adventure, full of possibilities for the prevention of deafness and the conservation of hearing.

Dr. Fletcher, in association with Dr. E. P. Fowler, has estimated that there are over 3,000,000 school children in this country whose hearing is impaired. Dr. Harold Hays, the wellknown otologist, and an understanding exponent of the hard-of-hearing child, states that in New York City 14.4 percent of the children have defective hearing.

The invention above referred to has rendered conspicuous service to the advancement of the study of the hard-of-hearing. It has become a time-saving device, an instrument of precision and a necessity—not a luxury. Its only disadvantage would seem to be its cost. The practicability of this

invention and the far-reaching necessity of skilled expert teachers for the hard-of-hearing who should be deservedly paid will do away with class-repeating and class-repeating. To figure the cost question in either case is a matter of thoughtlessness, and it is not sound reasoning. The child with impaired hearing has been long enough an innocent, helpless and unguided shareholder in the plant of education. Teachers must qualify for lip reading or speech reading positions. They are in high demand and the demand is far in excess of immediate supply. Whether the enrolment will come from the rank and file of teachers or from a group of teachers specially equipped can be answered as to qualifications by stating that the teachers must be so fitted for this specialized study that they will maintain the high standards set by their forerunners in the lip reading, speech reading professional field. It seems unnecessary even to suggest to the normal hearing individuals that they should enunciate clearly for the benefit of the hard-of-hearing pupils. It favorably affects them to understand intelligently the spoken words. The essential point is to avoid nerve strain as "fatigue deafness" in the hard-of-hearing. The slovenly practice of poor enunciation, the improperly modulated, diluted and staccato voices, the unsteady effect of not facing the hard-of-hearing when addressing them, the facial contortionists and hand-gesturing, and the fly-wheel conversationalists are undesirable in the life of the hard-of-hearing, and they contribute to nerve deafness.

Before the normal hearing individual criticizes the hard-of-hearing, let him learn the lesson of controlling himself in the above-mentioned ways before he attempts to control the hard-of-hearing. A group of hard-of-hearing individuals have ear-marked a week in May as "National Hearing Week." Thus it appeals to a broader understanding and appreciation of the subject and also promotes a fashion of contributing to its growth.

The fetish of super-architectural school construction is overdone. It involves unbelievable millions and billions of dollars. Meanwhile the hard-of-hearing pupils who are innocent and helpless participants within the schools are struggling, often unaided, to surmount and to survive the handicaps placed in their way. We should remember the pupils must accept existing conditions. We have been trying to put square pegs into round holes and round pegs into square holes, but it may be at times no attempt has been made to put each peg into its rightful hole. No opportunities should be allowed to be missed in the lives of the school children.

Lip reading, speech reading, for the hard-of-hearing is all too insufficiently understood by the normal hearing individuals. Without it the activities of the hard-of-hearing individuals are hampered, successful competition and participation in life's endeavors are lessened, and they partake of the crumbs of knowledge and experience. There must be insistent demands for skilled medical knowledge for the prevention of deafness and conservation of hearing, accurate hearing tests and lip reading, speech reading and voice training. If in places where they think, there are those who approach these considerations in an apathetic, lukewarm and hesitating way.

or who question the advisability of stressing the reform in the education of the hard-of-hearing, then we are led to believe that they have taken a superficial viewpoint or appraisal of existing conditions. If we expect for the hard-of-hearing greater output and better results and unhampered social relations and preparation for qualified positions, let us not permit them to drift into undesirable, unprofitable, and unqualified bypaths.

The usefulness of lip reading has been tested and its existence is justified. It is a vital asset. Through the ripening and fruitful experience of those whose principal life-task has been to associate with the hard-of-hearing, it is recognized that the latter are taking courage, taking heart. The bed-rock of the whole situation is a full appreciation and a clear mental picture and a mutual understanding. The hard-of-hearing are coming into their rightful and common human heritage.

THE VALUE OF LIP READING FOR THE HARD-OF-HEARING ADULT

IDA P. LINDQUIST, PRINCIPAL OF THE MINNEAPOLIS SCHOOL OF LIP READING, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

Lip reading for the hard-of-hearing adult is both old and new. Almost 300 years ago John Bulwer, of England, advocated "hearing with the eyes." A little later a Dutch educator preached the same doctrine. It was in Germany, however, that such teaching was first put into general practice, but it was limited to those who were born deaf. Nothing was done to help those who became deafened after speech habits had been established until late in the 19th century.

As a regular help for deafened adults, lip reading is as *new* as the 20th century. In America this study has had its chief source and attained its greatest development in the private schools. In 1902, Martha E. Bruhn founded the Muller-Walle school of lip reading in Boston. In 1903 Edward B. Nitchie established the New York School for the Hard of Hearing.

From these parent schools teachers have gone out to "carry on" all over our land. Today—twenty-five years later—the advertising pages of the *Volta Review*, our magazine, list 39 private schools in 31 cities.

The American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing has published a roll of 155 teachers of lip reading in 70 different centers. Some of these give fulltime work in downtown school locations. Others teach parttime in home studios; while still others give lessons to adults occasionally, but devote their time mainly to teaching children.

Even a casual observer will realize that the way to secure results is by the intensive concentrated effort of the private session in a special school.

Unfortunately, however, many cannot afford the expense of private instruction. To these the public schools have offered free evening classes.

A beginning of such instruction in the public schools was made in Boston as far back as 1883 by Miss Sarah Fuller. The work was continued by

Eleanor F. Hough until 1893, and then by Alice Mary Porter.' In Brooklyn, N. Y., Miss Mary Woodrow started a class of five women in January, 1913, while in October, 1912, Chicago gave its first instruction to a class of eight adults. In 1915 Miss Estelle Samuelson took charge of the first class in Manhattan. Such was the beginning.

Today, according to the latest statistics available, 47 cities in 17 states offer free evening classes in lip reading in the public schools, California being in the lead with 12 cities. No state has as yet sponsored any such course.

But why all this bother? Does the deafened adult need lip reading? Does he need it badly enough to warrant the help of the public schools?

Let us consider this question. Way, way back mid childhood memories three phrases stand out, "Life—liberty—and the pursuit of happiness." Well, what of them? They were said to be the right of each man, woman, and child under the stars and stripes. "Life"—the deaf man has that in the form of existence. He needs it in the form of real living. "Liberty"—Is he free? No, for he is in bonds just as surely as is his blinded or crippled brother. He needs to be set free. Has he a fair chance of success in "the pursuit of happiness?" He has not. Unhappiness is his daily portion. How can he attain this triple goal? No miracle of present-day surgery can restore his hearing. Perhaps he can use one of the many truly wonderful hearing devices now on the market. If so, his rehabilitation is easy and secure. He needs no other help. But suppose he is one of those whose deafness is of such a nature that an ear phone is of no benefit—what then? Then he faces two alternatives. Either he must master lip reading or he will slip backwards and downwards. His earning capacity will decrease; he will become discouraged, dull and morbid. "Out of this darkness of deafness" said one who had been there, lip reading will lead him "into the light of hope and courage, where he is ready and willing to face the world and finds a thrill in the impact of meeting it."

We borrow from the *Volta Review* this argument. "Lip reading is a happiness insurance policy. It yields large dividends in satisfaction. Its cash value lies in the independence it gives one and the ability to meet others on an equal footing." "Happiness, satisfaction, independence" are not these a very desirable trio?

A deafened man who is a lip reader has a decidedly better chance to secure and hold a position than a non lip reader. That helps to make him independent. Economic independence begets a sense of satisfaction, that is essential to happiness. He is both useful and happy?

The central theme for all divisions of the National Education Association this year is "Education for Citizenship:" To be a good citizen a man or woman must be economically independent, intellectually "able to meet others in an equal footing," and socially happy. Any line of teaching that helps to bring about these desirable results becomes therefore "education for citizenship." And if lip reading contributes aught toward this end, it,

too, is doing its bit to educate for citizenship. And then it, too, merits a share in the interest and help of the public schools and public funds.

Does it do this? Has it proved itself really worthwhile?

First let us consider some general results. The hard-of-hearing person is morbidly sensitive. When eyes have been trained to help ears, this sensitiveness diminishes. The nerve strain of trying to hear is lessened and he gains in poise. His mental processes are quickened. He becomes alert who once was inattentive and distracted. He sees more, thinks faster, remembers better. He perseveres like a dandelion. He enjoys better health; he even looks better, for he is happier and more efficient. His family, friends, and business associates find it much easier to communicate with him. Sometimes they even regard his skill with wonder and admiration.

Let us do our utmost in both private and public schools, that every adult who needs the help of lip reading may share in its benefits. Let us do all in our power to help the deafened realize their rights to "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness." Rid, in some measure at least, of their handicap; living, not merely existing; and happy because of their restoration to usefulness, they will be better men and women. And better men and women make better citizens.

Will you help us to help them reach that goal?

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Minneapolis Meeting

First session—About 140 persons were present. Of this number about 40 were pupils who took part in the musical program under the direction of Mrs. Alice Murray. The pupils were from the Phillips Junior High School. Under the direction of Mrs. Murray, they rendered a fine program which added much to the interest of our meeting.

All the speakers were present and took part except Mayor Leach who was undoubtedly prevented by official business, as he had twice assured us that he would speak.

Dr. Horace Newhart, of Minneapolis, President of the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing, was the foremost speaker of the afternoon. He gave a very interesting address on "Reducing the Handicap of the Hard of Hearing." He also explained and demonstrated the use of the 4A phono-audiometer.

Miss Ella Rusch, Principal of the Minneapolis School for the Deaf, gave an excellent demonstration of lip reading with a group of pupils from her school.

Miss Kimball's paper on "Why Hard of Hearing Pupils in the Public Schools Should be Taught Lip Reading" was well received.

The audience showed much interest in all the numbers on the program.

Second session—About 135 persons were present. Of this number 8 were pupils from the Phillips Junior High School who took part in the musical program under the direction of Mrs. Alice Murray.

There were some changes in the musical program for this meeting. All the numbers were finely rendered and they added to the pleasure of the meeting.

All the speakers were present and gave their addresses as listed in the program.

Superintendent S. O. Hartwell, of the public schools in St. Paul, gave an interesting account on "What Is Being Done for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing in the Public Schools of St. Paul."

Dr. Alice G. Bryant, of Boston, gave an address on "The Unnecessary Waste in the Education of the Hard of Hearing."

Miss Ida P. Linquist, Principal of the Minneapolis School of Lip Reading, read a paper on "The Value of Lip Reading for the Hard of Hearing Adult."

Miss Mata Westerman, Principal of school of lip reading in St. Paul, gave a fine lip reading demonstration with adult pupils.

All the addresses were well received and listened to with close attention.

At the close of the program, Mrs. Alice R. Strobbridge, Executive Secretary of the Minneapolis League for the Hard of Hearing, demonstrated the working of the 4A phono-audiometer for those who were interested.

At the business Meeting the following officers were elected for the year 1928-1929.

President, CAROLINE F. KIMBALL, Teacher of Lip Reading, Public Schools, Lynn, Mass. 39 Jackson St., East Lynn, Mass.

Vicepresident, CORALIE N. KENFIELD, Teacher of Special Adult Lip Reading Classes San Francisco, Cal. 617 Shreve Building, San Francisco, Cal.

Secretary-Treasurer, ALICE I. PUTNAM, Teacher of Lip Reading, City Schools, Houston, Texas. 3610 Milan St., Houston, Texas.

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. No meeting was held in connection with the Minneapolis Convention.

The officers of this Department for the year 1927-28 were: *President*, Thaddeus Giddings, Director of Music, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Vicepresident*, Estelle Carpenter, Director of Music, San Francisco, Calif.; *Secretary*, Esther 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 Department of Rural Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION grew out of the Department of Rural and Agriculture 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 July.

The officers of the Department of Rural Education for the year 1928-29 are: *President*, William McKinley Robinson, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Mich.; *Vicepresident*, Ada York, County Superintendent of Schools, San Diego, Calif.; *Secretary*, Mrs. Katherine M. Cook, Specialist in Rural Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, 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); J. C. Muerman, Southeastern State Teachers College, Durant, Okla. (Term expires 1932); C. H. Barnes, County Superintendent of Schools, Duluth, Minn. (Term expires 1933).

Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1906: 716	1912:1365-1391	1916: 613- 637	1920: 271- 278	1924: 651- 715
1908:1187-1217	1913: 801- 812	1917: 599- 615	1921: 523- 617	1925: 522- 563
1909: 953- 993	1914: 877- 909	1918: 271- 295	1922:1099-1197	1926: 536- 600
1910:1081-1108	1915:1131-1161	1919: 281- 289	1923: 745- 841	1927: 497- 560
1911:1365-1391				

TO WHAT EXTENT IS DIFFERENTIATION FOR RURAL SCHOOL ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICE JUSTIFIED?

JULIAN E. BUTTERWORTH, PROFESSOR OF RURAL EDUCATION, CORNELL UNIVERSITY, ITHACA, N. Y.

WE ARE meeting in Boston, a city of something over three quarters of a million. It may help us to visualize our problem here today if we compare some of the administrative duties of the superintendent of Boston with those of the district superintendents of Tompkins County, New York. It is recognized, of course, that neither position is likely to be attained except by those with preliminary administrative experience, but the significance of this for our discussion will be considered later.

Tompkins County is probably a fairly typical rural county of New York. It has one city with 20,000 population. The remainder of the county is divided into three supervisory districts each under the leadership of a district superintendent. Their professional duties are not unlike those of the county superintendent of other states. In the county are 139 rural schools including 7 rural high schools and 126 schools with one teacher. One community is now in the process of organizing a central rural school commonly called a consolidated school. The fact that the county is neither semi-urban nor extremely rural makes it better for our purpose.

Similar and dissimilar elements in the two situations—As we study these two types of administrative jobs we begin to realize that there are both similar and dissimilar elements.

1. Either officer needs a background of administrative knowledge, including such items as: the function of the federal government in education; principles of state educational organization; existing types of such organizations; principles and types of intermediate and local unit organization; the function of each level in educational control; state legislation on such basic problems as attendance, teacher certification, state aid, minimum salaries, teachers' pensions, and the like.

2. There are other problems that have both similar and dissimilar elements. Take, for example, the preparation of a local salary schedule. The general factors to be taken into account are probably largely the same: cost of living; amount of training and experience; efficiency, and the like. I am not sure but that a factor is needed in constructing a county schedule that is not needed in a city—that is a recognition of the fewer social and recreation opportunities of the county and the rural village, and the rewarding of those who are willing to sacrifice on them.

In planning a building program there appear to be numerous differences between country and city. In most rural counties the population is, in contrast with the city, increasing very little if at all. In many it is declining. Even where there is little change in total population it is often shifting from hamlet to village or from village to village as new roads are opened or new service agencies are established.

Leadership is needed in both urban and rural school situations. From general observation one is tempted to say, however, that democratic leadership of the whole citizen body is more essential to educational progress in the country than in the city. While the rural citizen has, of course, the same general characteristics as the urban citizen, the conditions under which he lives appear to develop habits and ideals that create special problems for the school leader. His first step in successful leadership is the understanding of the rural citizen and the social and economic conditions under which he lives.

3. There are some problems that are largely different. Among the more important ones are: Finding satisfactory housing conditions for the teachers; organizing the schedule of classes for one teacher to cover six to eight grades instead of one; keeping the teacher professionally alert when she is largely without contact with other teachers; providing a really effective plan of supervision; consolidating the schools, and transporting the children.

Research must be used to settle the question—It would be well for us to know more exactly the nature and the degree of the similar and dissimilar elements in city and rural school administration. I can see two ways of proceeding in getting the desired knowledge.

1. We may select some problem, such as a building program for Boston and for Tompkins County, and work toward a practicable and scientific solution in each situation, primarily that we may answer the question as to the nature and the extent of the differentiation.

2. We may carry on a series of investigations regarding building programs under various types of city and rural conditions. When we have a fair number of these studies we may then compare the cases to see what is the nature and the extent of the dissimilarities and then to make a judgment as to what differences should be made in preparing for the two positions.

To me the latter procedure seems the wiser one as a general policy. We should be concerned not so much in whether differentiation in rural or urban administration is or is not justified as in understanding the problems of administration in country and in city in order that they may be more intelligently attacked. In other words the determination of differentiation should not be the purpose of the research but a very valuable byproduct of it. If we follow the first procedure there is danger that unconsciously we shall try to prove much or little differentiation as accords with our present view.

My present conception of the organization of training courses for administrative officers is this:

1. Have an introductory course in general school administration devoting itself largely to those problems that are common to all types of public school administration.

2. This introductory course should then be followed by differentiated ones for particular positions. One or more comprehensive courses may be given for all

city superintendents or the material may be broken up into several, devoted to finance, school population, the teaching staff, etc. I do not pretend to know what would be best for the city group, but I believe that for rural administrators two comprehensive, differentiated courses are imperatively needed: one for county superintendents and similar officers and one for village principals. Even then we shall have only relative homogeneity because rural situations differ as to their "ruralness" and the problems thereby created.

I should organize these courses on the so-called "jobanalysis" basis. From it I should expect the members of the class to learn to analyze such situations; to secure knowledge as to what procedures have been successful or seem likely to be successful; to evaluate technics adapted to the situation; to set up clearcut ideals as to the function of the rural school administrator and attitudes that will help him to be a successful leader of rural citizens on school questions.

From the national point of view one difficulty with the average general course in administration is that it sets the faces of the class cityward. This is partly unconscious but is influential nevertheless. I for one am not willing to admit that the rural field can get along with the "left overs." The problems there are fully as acute as in the city; I believe that the tangible rewards in, say a county superintendency, can be made comparable to those of the average city.

If the institution putting on such a program as that just outlined has both a department of administration and a department of rural education the two differentiated courses may well be joint offerings of those departments. Contact with the administration group will permit the instructor to keep up with the newest developments in that field. Contact with the rural department will stimulate him to keep in touch with the problems of rural life. It should develop in him and his group the realization that the work is worthwhile and a willingness to expend energy in its promotion. This group consciousness is one of our real needs now in rural education. However it is not the basic purpose of differentiated work in rural school administration but a result of it. The real purpose is to insure an adequate and sympathetic study of administrative problems as they exist under rural conditions.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

N. L. ENGELHARDT, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, NEW YORK CITY

The administrator of a program of public education will understand his task better if the significant differences in the organization of public education and private business are realized. Without doubt, one of the potent forces in the improvement of the administration of a private enterprise is the element of competition. Through its agency, superior methods, higher efficiency and, as a result, a superior service are secured. The administration in a public school organization feels to less degree the urge of com-

petition and must rely upon professional attitudes and human interest for improvement and success.

In a private enterprise, the capital is secured through voluntary investment; in education, even those profiting only remotely are compelled to share the costs of the undertaking. The returns from an educational investment are difficult of measurement; in business, the dividends or the losses are expressed in a commonly understood medium of exchange. The chief executive of a private corporation assumes complete responsibility. To this is linked the necessary authority to manage his organization. In public education, the administrative responsibility is frequently spread among different officers and board members. In such cases, responsibility and authority rarely go hand-in-hand. The business employer can, in the majority of cases, accurately measure the production of his workers. In education, the product of the personal service involved is rarely reducible to known units of accomplishment.

The salaries of those responsible for success in business in large degree are commensurate with their successes. In education, the financial rewards for management may depend upon human factors as the value of the administrative services can be gaged with only a slight approximation to accuracy.

Even the clientele in public education is different, being the child, and too infrequently, the adult.

The administration of a public school system is also confronted with problems of personal management which vary significantly from those of the business enterprise. Life tenure is rapidly becoming established, salaries may be paid without full recognition of accomplishment, and contrary to a commonly held but fallacious opinion, working hours cannot be fixed. If other features of public educational service, such as the possibilities of advancement for the classroom teacher, the supervision of work done, and the capacity of the workers, were studied in relation to similar aspects of private enterprise, significant differences would appear.

The problems of school administration are also undergoing the change to be expected as an enterprise expands. The increase in the number of children attending school, the greater diversification of the educational offerings, the size and numbers of school buildings, the growth in the appreciation of the teaching personnel of its responsibilities, produce new conditions and new problems. The tendency toward the development of larger school districts, the increase in competition for funds between education and other types of community service, the growing scientific nature of the educative process itself, and the demands of parents for a better adjustment of curriculum and progress to the needs and abilities of their children have placed demands upon educational administration which are far above and beyond the requirements of some decades ago.

Whether a county or a city school board is involved, the success of the administrative program is in the first analysis dependent upon the division of the legislative and executive functions of the work to be done. A

thoroughly alert, active-minded board of education cannot be expected to delegate the executive responsibilities of a school system to an untrained and unqualified executive. If administrative officers are desirous of assuming the responsibilities which, logically, should be centered in their offices, professional skills, expert knowledge and administrative vision must not only be evidenced in the methods employed, but also in the results achieved.

No school administration may be expected to succeed where its program has not been well defined, and clearly and professionally supported before the public and in the press. The administrator has no right to expect support for hazy objectives, a hit-or-miss program, or a slipshod budget.

In public education, as in other enterprises, a twofold classification of activities may be made, i. e., the productive and non-productive groups. The aim of the administration should be to conserve for instructional purposes the highest possible percentage of the budget.

The chief executive in a school system determines, in large measure, through his own professional attitudes, devotion to his work and his interest in educational progress, the zeal and application of his staff in the professional advancement of the school system. The superintendent of schools maintains his leadership in a school system through professional knowledge and accomplishment, not through command or the mere authority of position. In few other fields is it so incumbent upon the chief executive to have the professional knowledge which comes only from constant study, the human sympathy which grows out of full understanding of the material and personnel with which he deals, and the liberal-mindedness which can give credit to others for accomplishment and encouragement to those who have failed. The success of a program of school administration is in part determined by a loyalty built upon respect, not fear, a devotion due to an example, not a contract, and a service inspired by loftiness of purpose and confidence in mankind.

Professional educators, however, will oppose strenuously the continuance of the widespread practise, now sanctioned by statute or state constitution, of electing officers of school administration by popular vote. It is beyond the power of the electorate to discriminate between the professionally and politically competent. The most significant change which can take place in the administration of public education in the United States is to remove from the control by ballot the officers of state, county, and district superintendents of schools. Every city in the country has now been freed from this unfortunate method of selecting a superintendent of schools. No effort should be considered too great to free state and county educational office from the restrictions which popular election places upon them.

School administration may be distinctly improved through a program of self-measurement. When a superintendent of schools applies rating devices to the administrative program, two results are secured. The adequacy of the program itself is first questioned. The degree to which an

adequate program is being put into operation is then ascertained. No administrator should feel free to give a professional rating to a teacher or a supervisor who is not willing and anxious to submit his own program and work to a similar analysis.

A program of school administration can achieve greater success through first ascertaining what has already been accomplished. A fourth-grade child gains confidence from learning that he has advanced a point or two on a scale. The continuing selfsurvey should accomplish for a school system what such a scale can for a child. No school system should be satisfied with anything less than the thorough analysis of the changes each year has brought to the end that further growth may be based upon what has already been accomplished.

THE PROBLEM OF DIFFERENTIATING RURAL EDUCATION SUPERVISION

HELEN HEFFERNAN, CHIEF, DIVISION OF RURAL EDUCATION, CALIFORNIA
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Ideally the function of the supervisor is the improvement of teachers in service but in rural areas this way may mean removing some of the obstacles in the way of improving the teacher. In every known factor involved in school efficiency and progress, the rural schools are lamentably handicapped and toward all factors the rural supervisor must direct attention.

Because of the untrained personnel and loose, inefficient organization and administration in the rural situation, the supervisor must attack problems not recognized as within the scope of city supervisory functions.

An analysis of the yearly supervisory programs of the California rural supervisors reveals that in addition to the functions directed toward the improvement of classroom technic, responsibility for functions usually discharged by other departments is placed upon the rural supervisor. These functions are related to administration, community relations, research, and service.

Two serious problems of administration are being met for the rural supervisor in California (1) by the county library system, which provides for the circulation of supplementary textbooks, reference books, maps, pictures, stereographs, phonograph records and films to rural schools in forty-seven of our fifty-eight counties, and (2) by centralized purchasing of all school supplies by the county school superintendent. These provisions reduce the responsibilities of supervision to selection and standardization.

A cooperative program between teacher training institutions and rural supervisors has taken form during the past year that promises to reduce still further these extra-supervisory functions of the rural supervisor. In two teacher training institutions, a series of discussions with senior students on the problems which inexperienced teachers meet are conducted by rural supervisors. These discussions cover such problems as the qualifications

of a successful teacher; the teacher's opportunity for service and professional growth in the rural field; professional relationships of the teacher to county officials, to the community, to professional organizations; the educational service rendered to rural schools by the county library, the general supervisor, the special supervisors of music, art, physical education, attendance and the health department; school management in regard to necessary equipment, good school housekeeping, the playground and the school garden, the school program, the course of study, the school register; problems of teacher placement.

Not only does this cooperative activity serve to prepare teachers-to-be for the problems which they are anticipating but it serves to bring to the attention of institutions the problems which school officials regard as urgent needs for training. The project should facilitate the adaptation of the inexperienced teacher and create an excellent professional relationship between the new teacher and her supervisor with whom she had the opportunity to become acquainted.

The specialized supervisory problems which rural conditions create call for certain differentiation:

1. Adaptation of the educational program to individual differences in rural areas where classification is impossible to meet the needs of:

1. The mentally retarded pupil.
2. The accelerated or specially gifted pupil.
3. The pupil of special disability.

2. The integration of subjectmatter into units of activity and the organization by groups rather than by grades to economize the teacher's time and effort and to give coherence to the program.

3. The provision of selfdirected and educationally valuable activities at various grade levels to meet the problem of many grades in one classroom.

4. The use of the educational resources of the community and provision for those human experiences which the community lacks.

5. The adjustment of a modern program of education to present equipment.

THE PROBLEM OF DIFFERENTIATING RURAL EDUCATION IN RESPECT TO SUPERVISION

I. JEWELL SIMPSON, ASSISTANT STATE SUPERINTENDENT IN CHARGE OF ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION, BALTIMORE, MD.

The standards are often much lower in the rural teaching service than in the city service. Furthermore, at teachers' institutes and at state teachers' associations, rural teachers and supervisors are often segregated to discuss such topics as *The Country Teacher*, *Socializing the Rural Community*, *The Hot Lunch in the Rural School*, while other teachers and supervisors are meeting elsewhere to discuss their professional problems; per-

haps Weaknesses in the Teaching of Reading, or Some Appreciations to be Developed through History, or Common Sense in the Planning of Lessons, or Developing Sane Policies for Promotion.

Class distinction such as these imply either that country children are less important to the state or nation than city children, or else that they are designed to be distinctly different types of citizens. Teachers are protesting, supervisors are protesting, country dwellers are protesting on the ground that the principles of teaching and of learning are the same everywhere; that purposes and standards at least in the case of elementary education should be the same for children whether in rural or city communities.

Supervision of teaching has proved itself a necessity in the progressive school system; it has accomplished much that is worthwhile; and yet in the public school system as a whole it is far from fulfilling the hopes and ideals which may reasonably be expected of it. Of course, supervision of teaching is the most difficult job in education. Therefore, it is not surprising that fine supervisors are more scarce than fine superintendents or fine teachers. The crux of the matter is that many city supervisors and most country supervisors do not have certain qualifications which are essential if they are to fulfill the strenuous demands of the profession. These essential qualifications are the same whether the supervisor elects to serve in a rural environment or in a city environment.

1. He needs a fundamental philosophy of education, clearly defined in his own mind, so that he can see the implications and possibilities of democracy in education and of education in a democracy.

2. He needs to think straight in a practical situation.

Although the standards of training and the type of training for supervisors should be the same, whether for rural or city environment, there is the big problem for each supervisor of adapting what he is and what he knows to the practical situation in which he finds himself. Common sense on his part and the advice of the superintendent should be sufficient to enable a person of proper education and training to cope with the inequalities existing between rural and city communities. However, there are certain prerequisites to success in a rural environment and certain differences between rural and city supervision about which the applicant for a position in the rural field should be informed.

1. The rural supervisor must be sympathetic to country life and must see the advantages that the country offers. He ought to know how to make the most of rural life, and perhaps even be somewhat of a propagandist for it. Above all, he cannot have a superiority complex toward country children. He must be able to face cheerfully the discomforts of weather, travel, and often of poorly equipped schools. Reflecting constant discontent and unhappiness has a bad effect on the children, the teachers, the community. Probably a person whose life has been spent wholly in the city ought not to undertake the supervision of rural schools unless he is an unusual individual with wide sympathies and interests, with an abundance of common sense and with a fine philosophy of life. On the other hand one can be an excellent rural school supervisor even though he may never have attended a one-teacher or a two-teacher school.

2. The rural school supervisor has, perhaps, a bit more of responsibility to the community than the city supervisor. Country people are more curiously and dubiously inquisitive about all that is taking place in a community than are city people. The supervisor will do well to attend small meetings of parents at the schoolhouse or larger meetings of parent-teacher associations for the purpose of explaining the group schedule which may be in effect in the one- and two-teacher schools, the new report card, the course of study, the objectives for the year; or for discussing age-grade problems, attendance problems, progressive methods or what not. Conditions differ in different states. Perhaps he will need sometimes to meet school boards, in an effort to make them intelligent in the matter of the modern school. He may need to explain the advantages of consolidation, realizing how important it is to carry the community ahead of the school program. The rural school supervisor will often need to help sell the school program. In the city there are more avenues available for this purpose.

3. The rural school supervisor must needs give even more careful attention to the matter of economy of time and effort than the city supervisor. It may be more economical to have fewer all day teachers' meetings rather than many meetings lasting from one to three hours. He may believe that instead of making frequent visits to very small rural schools, a more economical and more stimulating type of supervision is to meet four or five teachers in groups for demonstration and discussion. It is usually more economical to stay in the community over night when long trips—fifty miles or more—must be made.

4. The rural school supervisor is likely to have many more untrained teachers than the city supervisor, so that supervision cannot be on a cooperative basis is quite the same sense as it can be when the teachers are trained, "speak the same language," and have more nearly the same point of view as the supervisor. Also the rural school supervisor will have more new teachers than the city supervisor since the turnover in rural communities is so much greater than in cities. Fortunately, a supervisor, whether rural or urban, is judged not simply by the quality of the teaching in his schools, but by the growth of the teachers in teaching power.

5. The rural school supervisor's relationship to the school principal is apt to be somewhat different from that in city systems. In city systems there are supervising principals; in rural schools most of the principals are teaching principals.

These five points brought to the attention of the supervisor of rural schools are merely matters of adaptation. In no sense are they in conflict with the position that public education cannot be divided into city education and rural education, and that the invidious distinctions now made between rural and city teachers and rural and city supervisors should give way to distinctions based solely upon education general and professional, and upon successful experience.

THE COURSE OF STUDY FOR ONE ROOM RURAL SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

ANNA D. CORDTS, PROFESSOR OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION, IOWA STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, CEDAR FALLS, IOWA

I. The course of study for rural schools should state clearly and definitely the nature and the amount of subjectmatter to be covered in each subject throughout the eight years of work. Not the usual type of suggestive material from which the teacher may select certain items of subject-

matter, but clear, concrete statements of the definite goals or standards of attainment to be reached in each of the eight grades or years. Too often the course of study presents merely an outline of the topics to be taught. Such an outline contributes little to better teaching of the subject.

II. The course of study for rural schools should state definitely the method or methods of procedure for teaching the required units of subject-matter.

The procedure should be definite and concrete; not general, abstract, theoretical discussions of the principles of education; but simple, concrete, illustrative lessons that have been worked out, tried and tested, by teachers in rural school situations and found successful. This is the kind of help that the rural teacher needs; the kind of help that the teacher can understand, and therefore use with profit; the kind of help that is most difficult to obtain. It is not enough that the method of procedure embodies the best modern educational ideas. It must be workable under the kind of conditions under which the rural teacher teaches.

It is my belief that two or three lessons, worked out definitely and concretely for the teacher's guide in each of the subjects, are worth more to the rural teacher than all of the books that may be had on the theory and principles of teaching. The young, untrained rural school teachers cannot interpret theory. They cannot make the carry-over from theory into practice. This is a difficult task. It challenges even the supervisor, the superintendent, and graduate students in education. Oftentimes the theory is stated in words far beyond the understanding and the grasp of the rural school teacher. Her training and knowledge are often too meager to enable her to understand even the terminology. These statements are based upon many years of experience with several thousand school teachers in all sections of the United States.

Moreover, the rural teacher, given the capacity and the background for the interpretation of educational theory, has not the time in which to do it. The method of procedure in classroom teaching must be actually worked out for her or it will not function. The course of study must tell her definitely what to say when introducing the subject in order to stimulate an interest in it; to set up a background of familiarity; to lead the pupil nicely and successfully into the study of the subject. It must tell her definitely how to teach the subject; how to close the recitation and how to assign the new lesson. To merely tell the teacher in the course of study that she should know how to do these things is futile. It is time and space wasted, and leaves her still with no better introductory lead than the usual question, "What is our lesson about today?" In teaching and testing, she still is limited to the questions asked in text. For terminating the recitation, she has nothing better than the traditional assignment, "For tomorrow we will take the next lesson. Class excused."

It means little or nothing to tell the rural teacher in the course of study that the most important thing in the teaching of history is to cultivate a love for the subject; that history must not be taught as a record of dry

facts, lists of unimportant dates and events; that it must be made a vital throbbing subject. The teaching of history is little improved by the knowledge that one of the most important objectives in teaching history is to give the pupil an understanding of our social, industrial, and political problems and a desire to do his share in solving them; to make him feel the responsibility which devolves upon him as a member of a democratic society; to develop a wholesome and intelligent patriotism; a spirit of pride in his country and the flag; and the desire to become a worthy American citizen; that it is important to teach the pupil, not only the what and the when of history, but also the how and the why. Such theory, though perhaps sound enough, has a most doubtful hope of being realized in practice, for the reason that the rural teacher does not know what to do with it.

III. The course of study should include, not merely suggest, informal objective tests for the subjectmatter recommended in the course of study. It is not enough to advise their use and point out the fact that the same standards of achievement should obtain in judging rural as in judging urban children. It is futile to tell the teacher, in the course of study, to use these tests. Teachers do not know where to buy them. They do not know how to administer the test, nor how to interpret the results. The rural teacher has not the time nor the background to become skilled in the use of the tests. The course of study should include the test, whether it requires filling in blanks, answering questions, choosing the best answer, or whatever its nature may be. With the inclusion of such tests, the teachers will not only be able to objectively measure the pupils' achievement, but they will be interested in preparing children for the type of work in which they will be tested.

IV. The course of study must recommend a daily program; not a general suggestion of what constitutes a good daily program, but definite recommendations with a copy of a model program for the teacher's use. The daily program must present a workable scheme of combination and alternation of classes if such a scheme is desirable. Studies show that teachers have made little use of the suggestions of combining and alternating classes, perhaps because they have not known how to do it. The program must provide for study, occupation, and primary seatwork as well as for the recitation periods.

In summary, the standards of attainment, the method of classroom procedure, recommended in the course of study, must take into account:

1. The short recitation periods.
2. The long study periods.
3. The meager library and general equipment.
4. The short tenure of teachers in rural schools.
5. The small classes.
6. The meager academic and professional training of the majority of the rural teachers.
7. The lack of close personal supervision.

Because of these conditions, the rural school teachers of America should have a course of study which has been worked out with these problems

in view. It is not enough that the state course of study be *adapted* to the rural school situation. The course of study, to be really helpful to those teachers who need the help most, must be expressly made for them and their needs.

THE RURAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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I believe that there should be a differentiation in the rural and urban courses of study for elementary schools because of the conditions that actually prevail in the country school today. With all the needs in relation to the entire rural school situation which such discussion as these this afternoon are revealing, perhaps none is more pressing than this matter of the rural curriculum. Teachers of rural schools and pupils in rural schools are in dire need of materials of instruction built to fit the needs of rural children, the peculiar organization of the schools they attend, and to supply the lacks, while using the resources of the environment in which they live.

Our need is not only for professional leadership and trained supervisors and teachers, but also for material of instruction which will meet the point of view and fit the conditions actually prevailing among these seven million rural school children. And this leads me to ask: "How shall we conceive this rural school? What shall be its aims? And how shall we carry these aims over into daily classroom practice?" I ask these questions because our point of view in relation to the main function of the school will determine in large measure the criteria which we set up for selecting the materials of instruction.

Is the rural school to be thought of merely as a place where the child comes to learn those things which he has no opportunity to master in his social living outside of the school, a place where he merely exists during those hours when he is mastering the tools of education while social living which is the real educational process is done entirely on the outside? Or is the rural school to be conceived as a social group where children learn and daily practice the art of social living? In other words is rural school education to be isolated from life or integrated with life? Is the school to give education into social relationships? To my mind it must be this latter. Now, to do this the rural school must be provided with a curriculum which will offer a broad educational experience to country children. The course of study must be a teacher's handbook which will help the country teacher lead this country child through a wide range of educational activities into his peculiar social inheritance so that he can take pride in being a farm child and at the same time come into a deepened knowledge of his partnership with the nation and an understanding of his ability to take his place in any phase of American life to which his native capacities and acquired interests may lead him.

We cannot deny that the fundamental function of the elementary school is this harmonious extension of the child's whole personality, but we often ignore the fact that the limits of this extension of personality are set primarily within the total environment in which the learner can participate either actually or imaginatively. This necessitates marked differentiation in the rural and urban courses of study if country children are to be truly served. For we must remember that whereas equality of educational opportunity is a fundamental doctrine of American life, equality does not necessarily mean identical opportunity. It may mean quite the contrary. If the potential assets of the rural community are to be capitalized, if the lacks and needs of rural children are to be adequately met, then the rural curriculum must differ very materially from that built for the city schools. Such adaptations have always been recognized as a fundamental principle of good curriculum building, but they have been applied too rarely in the rural field. In fact, a rather careful analysis of nine thousand courses of study recently issued in different sections of the country show that less than two percent of them offer any suggestions to rural teachers.

The time is here, however, when such application must be made if educational opportunity is to be equalized. What form then shall this differentiation assume, first in the field of objectives, and then in relation to the selection of content and organization? Ultimate objectives will probably be the same rural and urban, but immediate objectives must necessarily differ due to the differences in the assets and the needs of rural and urban children.

In relation to the selection and organization of content or activities the rural environment and the rural experiences of country children not only offer the interpretative basis for the teaching, but provide in some measure the resources; demand a different method of approach, and require a different emphasis on certain phases of subjectmatter. "While the need for a practical organization of materials for rural schools, especially for that large group of one-teacher schools, presents so difficult a problem as to merit especial extended study and experimentation to that end."¹

This raises some essential educational questions in relation to rural curricula which must be answered in the light of the present rural school situation:

1. Should the rural curriculum place emphasis upon preparation for future living in the rural community or upon improvement of the child's present life?
2. Should major emphasis be placed upon making the child a better individual or upon aiding him to improve his own social group?

If we accept a joint responsibility then: (1) How are we to determine the chief needs and interests in our rural children's present lives in order that we may improve present living? (2) In preparation for the future, how are we to determine what will be the chief adult needs of our present

¹ Dr. Fannie W. Dunn, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

children? In other words, how can the rural curriculum take care of present and future needs that cannot be easily foreseen? How are we to determine what improvements need to be made in the various societies of which this child is now or will later be a member?

It is here that research can help us. There is need for more study in relation to the whole problem of the rural school curriculum for only carefully directed research can answer some of the issues involved. Among these, there is need for:

1. Studies of activities as well as of the interests and abilities of rural children at various stages of maturity.
2. Experiments conducted in rural settings to determine immediate objectives.
3. Special investigations to discover the best selection and organization of materials for all types of rural schools, especially one-teacher schools.
4. Investigations to determine the most practical means of providing for individual differences in rural schools.
5. Studies to discover how best to combat, supplement and utilize the environmental influences which rural life exerts upon the rural child's education.

THE CURRICULUM OF THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL

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In preparing this paper the writer has in mind primarily the typical or usual four-year high school with a faculty of from two to five teachers. This position is taken in the light of the fact that although there are a good many junior-senior high-school organizations in the rural districts, nevertheless, the great group of rural high schools the country over at present are of four years duration and are usually built upon an elementary school of seven or eight grades.

The very fact that educators nationwide are divided in their opinions as to just what should constitute the curriculum of the rural high school, shows that the matter is of serious import and as yet far from settled. This disagreement found among educators in general is quite as pronounced among the workers in the particular field of rural education. This but emphasizes the fact that it is a real problem.

1. *The fundamental purpose of all high-school education is liberal and general in its nature*—I think the workers in the field of secondary education, after all is said and done, will agree that the primary purpose of any type of secondary education should be of such a nature that general values would be stressed. This does not mean that there is not a place in every high-school curriculum for certain types of vocational work or certain courses of a broadening and finding nature. It does mean that the basic purpose of all high-school education is not and cannot ever be of a strictly vocational or a trade training nature.

2. *When a high school can offer only one curriculum it should be of a general or liberal type with variables bearing on the vocational life of the community*—This second principle is in a way a corollary of the first one;

but of enough importance to bear repetition. Of course, the number of variables offered by any high school will be contingent upon the number of faculty members and the condition of buildings and equipment. In some instances a rather wide offering of variables might be possible; in others, very few, if any, should be offered; but as said above, the variables should be secondary in consideration and should be worked out in the light of the community life which the school is serving.

3. *Little differentiation is possible in high schools with faculties consisting of from two to five teachers*—Immediately as one begins the matter of working out a daily schedule and offering a number of electives he meets with difficulties when he has a small faculty. It is a commonly accepted fact in secondary education that the larger the faculty the more variables or electives it is possible for the school to offer.

4. *The earlier years of the high school-curriculum should be liberal and general in nature and closely related to contemporary life, thus affording a broad range of educational experiences to all and especially to those who drop out before graduation*—In following out this principle of administration, the first two years of the high-school curriculum are largely fixed. During these two years it is the purpose of the school to stress the more common elements of education and to orientate the student as far as possible to modern civilization. The training should consist of courses in general science or biology worked out on a life basis to give the proper scientific outlook. In order to give the greatest amount of social and civic training, emphasis in the social studies falls upon civics and the various phases of American and modern European history. During the third and fourth years of the curriculum, electives should be more common allowing for differentiation under guidance and providing for the training of special aptitudes and abilities.

5. *In rural communities where a second and a third curriculum can be offered, they should be home economics and agriculture in the order mentioned*—In the small communities where only one curriculum is offered, the variables usually are offered in these two departments; but when facilities justify additional curriculums these are the ones that would render the greatest service in the rural high school.

6. *Core curriculums should be followed when more than one curriculum is possible*—By core curriculum the writer does not mean the subjects like English, civics, science, etc. that should be constants in every curriculum; but a grouping of those subjects which, if pursued under proper organization, would determine the peculiar character and function of said curriculum.

7. *College preparation should be a secondary function or at most only one of the several functions of any high school*—There was a time in the history of secondary education when the primary and only purpose of a secondary school was the preparation for college entrance. So firm a hold did this matter get upon the thinking of educators that to many it is still its dominant purpose.

8. *There is a distinct difference between a general or liberal education as discussed in this paper and the traditional classical education of the past*—It is pretty well agreed among school men that the education of the traditional classical high school was rather worthless for most students of the rural high school.

The writer wishes to make himself perfectly clear on one point and that is that the general, liberal high-school curriculum which he is advocating for the rural high school is not to be confused with the traditional, classical high-school curriculum so prevalent now among high schools of the country. The liberal high-school curriculum has as its fundamental purpose the task of giving to every high-school student the proper outlook upon life as it exists today. It tries to orientate him socially, morally, intellectually, spiritually and physically so that he can take his place in modern civilization as a helpful unit in present day society. It does not in any way exclude the classical or traditional elements in education; it merely reduces them to their proper places in the whole scheme of high-school training. Again it does not suppose that every boy and girl in the rural high school will go to college and consequently only offers a college preparatory training. On the other hand, it does assume that it is the right and the heritage of every high-school pupil to go to college if he so desires and consequently, it takes care of him along with those of the other varying groups. In the third place, it assumes that a certain vocational training of a general nature with the proper insight into the big occupational and vocational work of the world is a legitimate part of every child's high-school education. It assumes that a certain amount of vocational insight is a part of the orientation work of every adolescent. It does not, however, advocate that extreme attention be given to so-called vocational subjects at the expense of the general education simply because the pupils happen to live in the rural districts. The writer takes the position that more and more we will have to assume that increasing numbers of children from the rural districts will become citizens later in the towns and cities. He assumes that the cityward drift of the rural population is to be expected and will be continued in the future. He bases this statement on the fact that scientific agriculture together with modern invention of every description is every day increasing the productive power of men and is consequently making it possible for fewer people to be engaged in agricultural pursuits. This tendency is so strong that it will increase in the future even after the increase in population is taken into consideration. Stated another way, it means that we will have to continue to expect large numbers of the rural boys and girls to move into the city and it would not be fair to limit them to a strictly agricultural curriculum.

The rural high school of necessity will continue to be small and because of this fact it will only be able to offer one curriculum with few variables.

In the light of the foregoing discussion this curriculum must be of such a nature as to result in a liberal, cultural training; one that would orientate the student to contemporary life.

Since this type of training is especially adapted to the first two years of high school, the junior high-school movement is perhaps the solution to the problem. It would be possible for most any rural community to maintain a junior high school of three years. By proper organization a consolidated central senior high school could be located so as to care for the graduates of a large number of junior high schools located in the surrounding communities. Such an organization would allow the junior high schools to do the work in orientation courses, broadening and finding courses, and other courses of a general nature. The senior high school could offer several core curriculums designed for the purpose of giving special training in which these junior high-school graduates could find work best suited to their varying interests, needs, and capacities.

THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN THE RURAL HIGH SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

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The purpose of this discussion of the program of studies of the rural high school is, as I understand it, to indicate the nature and amount of differentiation, if any, necessary between the program of the rural high school and that of the urban high school if the former is to meet the needs of rural pupils. This is, it seems to me, the very question that cannot be answered explicitly until there has been much more careful, detailed study and research in the direction of determining what the needs of rural pupils actually are and how these needs may be most effectively met with the facilities that can be made available in the rural high school. Therefore, I should prefer to state our main question as: What are some of the problems to be faced in developing the rural high-school program of studies to meet the needs of the children of high-school age living within its attendance area?

Before we can go far in our discussion we must arrive at some understanding, if not agreement, as to what a rural high school is. I shall define a rural high school as one situated in rural territory and serving a rural population.

If we approach the question of the rural high school and its program of studies from the standpoint of its guiding aim and ultimate objectives, we can say, it seems to me, that its broad purposes are the same as those of all high schools.

Although they are probably inadequate in certain respects, yet, because of their wide acceptance and authoritativeness, we may accept for present purposes the cardinal principles formulated by the commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education as the ultimate objectives of

the high school. They will afford us a basis for indicating the nature and scope of the program of studies of the rural high school.

To determine a program of studies of sufficient range and variety to meet the requirements of the seven cardinal principles and, at the same time, to provide curriculum differentiation to meet, in part at least, the variant needs of each of the major groups of pupils, presents a number of problems peculiar to the rural high school.

Limited as it is in respect to size the rural high school cannot expand its program of studies beyond what can be offered by a small teaching staff. Its first responsibility is to meet as well as possible the common needs of all its pupils and its second responsibility is to meet the special needs of the different groups of pupils. If it is to have proper balance, its program must be the result of rigorous selection. Many subjects desirable in some respects must be rejected in favor of others of greater values. The question as to the relative amount of emphasis to be given different subjects and subject groups and the determination, within the limits set by circumstances, of sequential groups of subjects sufficient to permit a desirable amount of concentration in the work of pupils along lines of major interests and purposes, present acute problems in the building of a program of studies for the rural high school.

Finally the question arises as to the possible ways of putting into operation a program of studies that will meet the common and differentiated needs of the pupils in any adequate manner without overloading the teaching staff and without having a large number of extremely small classes. Here the possibility of alternation of subjects must be considered and the evolving of a practicable plan of alternation that will not operate in the direction of undesirable standards of work and that will not deprive any pupil from taking all the subjects needed to complete his course with the degree of continuity and variety desirable.

The second group of problems to be considered with reference to the program of studies in the rural high-school concerns directly the rural pupil and his characteristics. The adaptation of the program of studies of the school requires the study of children of high-school age in the attendance area of the school.

This brings up the whole question of rural environments, their characteristics and their importance in shaping the mental development of rural youth.

When the next step is taken, however, and we begin the work of setting up the more specific objectives or goals to be reached, we at once get into fields where differentiation enters. In the third step, that of selecting specifically materials, activities, and problems for a certain type of community through which the learner is to attain the objectives set up, the desirability and even necessity of differentiation becomes still more evident.

To be more concrete, let us consider from this angle certain of the cardinal principles. In the matter of the ultimate vocational objective it is quite generally accepted that the work offered by a high school should

be in vocations of major importance in the community, where these vocations are appropriate to secondary education. These specific objectives and the materials and exercises to be used in attaining them can be determined only by individuals who know thoroughly the activities and problems of these vocations and the circumstances under which they are carried on in that particular community.

In working toward the ultimate objective of health it is probably true that a majority of the specific objectives should be the same for all schools. Even among those that are alike for all schools, however, there are undoubtedly many that should receive different degrees of emphasis in different high schools and that should in part be attained through different materials and exercises. Some specific health objectives will evidently need to be set up for rural high schools that are not needed at all in urban school programs.

In the realm of citizenship, particularly in what we may call the civic aspect, it is again clear that the rural high school, if it is to keep in contact with the community and educate in part, for life in the community, should deal with materials and problems definitely related to the civic activities and the civic agencies and institutions found in rural areas. Here again, the agencies of civic control and those that protect the individual in his rights are less numerous and less evident than in urban communities. More personal responsibility for civic activities must be assumed by the rural than the urban dweller for he may go days and even weeks without being made conscious of agencies of civic control. Forms of local government are usually more or less peculiar to rural areas. While the pupil in the rural high school should undoubtedly become acquainted with state and national, and even city, civic institutions and their functions, in preparation for his more immediate civic activities and responsibilities and as a starting point in developing in him the broader understanding of citizenship, his education with reference to his local institutions should receive emphasis in his program of studies.

In training for worthy use of leisure we find another fruitful field for study in planning a program of studies for the rural high school. To a large extent practicable ways of using leisure are dependent upon the possibilities of the community; the forms of leisure activities desirable depend in no small degree upon the nature of the occupational activities of a community. In any case there are the problems of utilizing the resources of the community and of counteracting its lacks and deficiencies.

In most rural communities libraries are not accessible and opportunities to come in contact with good books and magazines are lacking except as the high school offers them. There are some data available indicating that rural high-school boys and girls do less reading than urban boys and girls. There is some evidence indicating that the reading done is likely to be such as is found in cheap magazines and paper back novels. The rural high school should, it seems probable, give more attention than it

does to the development of habits of reading for enjoyment that will be most likely to carry over into life.

No small part of the task of building the program of studies for the rural high school is to be found in discovering and evaluating the educational byproducts of rural social institutions other than the school. Closely related to that problem is the problem of locating educational lacks and deficiencies due to the absence of social institutions in rural areas. For example, in many rural communities no Boy and Girl Scout or Campfire organizations with their programs of citizenship are to be found. In most rural communities there are no libraries other than the school library, no art galleries, no museums, no theaters except movies, and no orchestras or other musical organizations of high class offering opportunities to hear good music and operating in the direction of developing musical taste and musical appreciation.

In conclusion I am of the opinion that the task of building an effective program of studies for the rural high school demands special study of the rural high school and its limitations and possibilities and of all aspects of rural life. Furthermore, it seems clear to me that any intelligent solution of the problems involved will require research by persons who are not only trained in the general principles of curriculum making but who know also rural life from all angles, as economic, health, civic, social, intellectual, recreational and moral and ethical. They will need to understand the prejudices, customs, attitudes, standards and ideals of rural people. Finally, they will need to have, or develop, technics effective in studying rural people and their activities and problems.

DIFFERENTIATION IN PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN RURAL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

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With the spread of the high school to communities in which there were no other agencies for secondary education, it immediately took on preparation for college as one of its major functions. A number of factors, which I need not discuss here, operated very early in its history to make the college preparatory curriculum the sole curriculum of the high school, and it is only during the past 30 years, coincident with the phenomenal increase in high-school enrolment and the development of the psychology of individual differences, that the need for a differentiated secondary program of studies has again expressed itself in practice.

When many children with their wide range of abilities and capacities brought to high school the great variety of occupational interests which had grown out of the complexity of American society, it made necessary an enrichment and broadening of the high-school course. Wealthy, populous communities not only provided for many free electives in their high-school curriculums, but even went so far as to establish differentiated high

schools, many of which were highly specialized and technical in character.

This differentiated program of the high school imposed upon very young, uninformed pupils the necessity of making practically irrevocable educational choices. The difficulty of making these choices, as well as the frequent unwisdom of them, served to impress upon educators the fact that the serious gap which had developed between elementary and secondary education would have to be bridged before pupils could profit to the utmost by the enriched program of the secondary school. The junior high school was conceived as the bridge between the practically undifferentiated program of the elementary school and the wide range and variety of courses and subjects of study offered by the secondary school. Its fundamental characteristic from the first, therefore, has been exploration to the end of intelligent, informed differentiation.

With the spread of the junior high-school movement and the desire of villages and rural communities to provide at home secondary schools for their boys and girls, paramount questions arose. Educators asked, "Is the junior high-school organization feasible for village and consolidated rural schools? Can a differentiated program of studies be provided in view of all the limitations inherent in the rural situation? To what extent can the devices used to provide a differentiated program in urban communities be adapted to small rural schools?"

Differentiation in its most complete form provided for differentiated schools. The specialized high school was usually a four-year institution built upon the work of the eight grades, or a three-year school requiring for entrance the completion of the junior high-school course. The specialized junior high school in cities is rarer, if, indeed, it exists at all. Certainly the trend is not in that direction. But the differentiated senior high school suggests immediately that the rural junior high school in comparison with the comprehensive urban junior high school should be differentiated with respect to the interests, previous training and experience, and probable future needs of its major group of pupils. In view of the limitations, which I shall specify in a moment, this is the way in which the most significant differentiation of a program of studies for rural junior high schools can be made. Best practice and expert opinion agree that, in the first year and to a large extent in the second year of the junior high school, even under most favorable conditions, the curriculum should provide for exploration leading to differentiation, rather than for a differentiated program of studies. The very small junior high school, the characteristic type in rural communities, cannot offer a wide choice of curriculums or a wide range of electives even in the third year. It should, therefore, fashion its central curriculum in accordance with the interests, and present and probable future needs of a majority of its students. This will differentiate its work from that of the comprehensive school.

With the limitations in small junior high schools due to small enrolment, the size of the teaching staff, the qualifications of teachers, and the

meager physical equipment, certain elements of a program of differentiation considered essential in large schools are clearly out of the question. In this list we would place such features as the homogeneous grouping of students, wide range of curriculum offerings, numerous free electives, special classes, remedial rooms, complete sex segregation, and special teachers to coach backward pupils.

On the other hand, any junior high school worthy of the name can make use of a number of the following plans to provide in its curriculum offerings suitable to individual needs:

1. The school itself should be clearly differentiated from the comprehensive junior high school. This differentiation should be based upon pupil interests and needs taking into account the major group.

2. During the first year "broadening and finding" courses should be taught by the best equipped teacher on the staff. By the skillful alternation of subjects by years during the last two years of the course, the number of electives or curriculum variables may be increased.

3. The differentiated lesson assignment which provides for variety both in content and quantity of subjectmatter should usually be employed.

4. The small class makes possible and desirable the use of some form of individualized instruction at least in some of the courses and a part of the time. This at once makes possible the acceleration of the more able pupils.

5. The comparative ease with which schedules can be arranged makes promotion by subject entirely feasible.

6. The frequent housing of the junior high school in the same building with the elementary school permits pupils to carry courses in both schools, simultaneously.

7. The marking system can recognize quality of work through varying the assignment of credit.

8. The traditional plan of five recitations a week for each class can be abandoned, thus making more flexible the daily schedule.

9. The class period can be increased to 60 minutes to provide for the direction of study especially with a view to properly guiding and stimulating superior pupils.

10. Every member of the teaching staff can do effective work in educational and vocational guidance if she will make a study of it. This guidance can be very effective because of the intimate acquaintance the teacher has with a small number of pupils.

At least three other questions are pertinent to our discussion, namely: "What has actually been done with reference to the differentiation of the program of studies in rural junior high schools?" "What is now being done?" and "What are the trends?"

In 1916, the educational system of the state of Vermont underwent complete reorganization. Among other things, the program included the establishment of rural junior high schools in all communities desiring them. M. B. Hillegas, who was then Commissioner of Education, gave me the privilege of directing the junior high school work. We attacked the problem of a differentiated program of studies with the light which we then had. The plan used at that time, after undergoing certain minor changes, has proved in the main successful, insofar as we can judge success by pupil persistence and achievement. Indeed, I have it on good authority that those schools which have held most rigidly

to the guiding principles set up twelve years ago have enjoyed the most marked success.

The fundamental purpose underlying the establishment and maintenance of junior high schools in Vermont is the extension of the educational opportunities of each individual boy and girl in the state in the light of our professed educational aim—social efficiency. This means that the work must be planned to suit the individual needs of the pupils. It means that the school has just as much responsibility in equipping for their life work to the greatest possible extent those large groups of children who drop out of school early as it has in equipping the few who plan to enter college. It means the provision of nourishing, worthwhile study material for the gifted pupil quite as much as the discovery of the most promising field of activity for and to the dull pupil and the development of such abilities and skills as he may possess.

Another way in which instruction is improved is by the enrichment of the course of study through the reorganization of the material which it usually contains, the downward extension of subjects ordinarily confined to the high school, and the introduction into the course of new subjects whose immediate value is unquestioned. The courses are so planned as to offer sufficient variety to care for widely divergent interests, aptitudes, and abilities and at the same time to permit pupils to explore various fields of knowledge so that they will be "informed electors" when they reach the regular high-school work. If they drop out of school early this plan will have put them in touch with a great body of valuable information which will not only be a source of continuous satisfaction and enjoyment but will actually give point and direction to their out-of-school work and study.

In the new organization, more and more the formal, stereotyped recitation is giving way to the socialized recitation where teachers and pupils sit around a table and cooperate in the discovery and solution of meaningful, interesting problems. These problems are made significant because interpreted in terms of their use by the pupil in "modifying his familiar experience." This type of recitation makes enthusiastic searchers after knowledge and has for its main purpose teaching pupils how to think and how to study. This is another point in improving instruction and it suggests the next—namely, the use of the pupil's own experience in teaching him what he needs to know and the provision for individual differences.

A four-year, three-teacher, forty-to-seventy pupil, rural junior high school cannot be economically organized with a variety of distinct differentiated courses, neither can segregation be carried to any great extent. Individual differences must therefore be provided for in other ways. The small class which makes segregation impractical at the same time permits, on account of the intimate knowledge which the teacher has of the pupil and all his work, the use of other devices which are perhaps equally effective. We feel that during the junior school period it is unwise to shut the door to the college for any pupils except those who are absolutely sure they will not, and per-

haps should not, continue their courses beyond the high school. With this in view the core of required courses is such that half of the college entrance requirements will be satisfied upon completion of the junior high school course. In addition to these courses, elective courses which vary according to need in the different schools are offered throughout the four years. We find it possible to offer a sufficient range of electives in each school without multiplying classes unduly, because the individual community needs are rather clearly defined.

Still another type of election is possible—election within the subject itself. If a pupil becomes especially interested in electricity while engaged in wiring the building for electric bells, he should not only be permitted but should be encouraged to pursue his study as long as he finds it profitable and interesting, even to the neglect of some of the details of the work being done by the other pupils in the class. Of course his study must be under the teacher's direction and must be systematic and he must give the class the benefit of the knowledge he obtains. The other members of the class in turn keep him informed, during the class period, of their work.

While we feel that this type of work is worthwhile we are extremely careful to make the pupil discover it early if he is pursuing a phantom, and also to see to it that he gets some valuable conclusions and habits of study in his special field. It is a truism that there are many bits of knowledge just as valuable, and for individuals more valuable, than those ordinarily prescribed in school courses.

THE PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN THE SMALL JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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Perhaps chief among the shibboleths of the junior high school for the small school system has been the notion that for every subject offered in the program of studies, and for each year's work in every subject, there should be organized a separate class. Rivaling it in importance is a second; the generally conceded need for teachers specially trained in the materials and methods of the subjects which they are to teach. The first requirement would seem to demand a class-program so extensive as to be beyond the reach of the small school; the second, a teaching staff so large as to make a full junior high school program of studies unthinkable. Unless we can find some method either of meeting these requirements or of evading them, the small community must content itself with some other form of school organization than the junior high school.

How great an obstacle the first requirement may be is readily conceived if we set before ourselves even a minimum list of the subjects of study which a "real" junior high school may be expected to provide.

The small schools which have attempted to meet this problem have adopted various methods of procedure. The method seeming to promise

greatest success has been that of abandoning the customary grade-lines, and combining pupils from two or more grades in subjects offered only in alternate years. In all but the smallest schools, such alternation of subject-matter and combination of grades allow at least a nominal provision for a complete program of studies.

If we examine the program of studies in detail, we find that the subject-matter which the junior high school presents falls roughly into two different classifications. On the one hand are those subjects or parts of subjects which demand the acquisition of certain skills—mathematical, linguistic, mechanical, and the like. On the other hand is the content subject-matter—that which emphasizes general information, attitudes, and appreciations, rather than the development of specific skills. Of the skill type are, of course, English composition, specialized foreign language, clerical work, certain phases of practical arts. Of the content type are English literature, most aspects of the social studies, the appreciation of art, many phases of general science.

In teaching content subject-matter, the grouping of pupils of various levels of ability and maturity need offer no insuperable barrier to effective work, even on the customary class basis. The materials may in general be so organized as to allow group attack upon fundamental problems or topics, in connection with which individual pupils may study broadly or narrowly as their abilities permit. For the brighter pupils such subject-matter makes possible the acquirement of wider experiences and more detailed understandings, in contrast with the more limited acquaintance with the same topics gained by the less able pupils at the same time. But in skill subject-matter broader study frequently means more rapid progress. Advancement in such work is likely to be cumulative: more effective study than the average at any one level places the pupil even farther above the average with respect to the next higher level. Hence any serious attempt to provide for differences in ability-to-learn in skill subjects must of necessity result in the abandonment of uniform group progress, and the substitution of some form of individual instruction.

Combination of classes, therefore, offers to the small junior high school only partial assistance in providing a program of thirty-one subjects. Were all these subjects of either one type or the other, the school's burden might be measurably reduced, without ill effect, through combinations within the content subjects. Grouping of classes in cumulative skill subjects would result in serious disadvantages under our usual methods of instruction, since the needs of individual pupils would have to be subordinated to the rate of progress of the group. But the economy which would result from combination of classes in content subjects would go far to offset the expense of necessary small-group instruction in the skill subjects.

Our present subject-matter divisions, however, recognize no clear distinctions between content and skill materials. The established subjects of study, whether required or elective, are likely to present both types of subject-matter within each single field. Hence with the accepted program of

studies, combination of classes only in content subjects is seldom possible. If combination is attempted, and it at the same time instruction is carried on according to the usual class-method, there must almost certainly follow an undesirable neglect of individual ability-to-progress, so far as the skill elements are concerned.

The second shibboleth of the junior high school is the assumed need for teachers specially trained in the materials and methods of the subjects which they are to teach. This need is, of course, not peculiar to the junior high school; but the difficulty of obtaining trained junior high-school teachers as compared with elementary or senior high school teachers has doubtless been an important factor in limiting the development of small junior high schools. Furthermore, the necessity in the small school for assigning a number of different subjects to a single teacher almost inevitably results in the ineffectiveness of at least a part of the program. Granting an adequate background in as many as three different subjects, the teacher who must be responsible for four or five cannot do justice to all, and may do justice to none. We are brought face to face, in other words, with the question of how to make possible specialized teaching on the part of the teacher who is no specialist.

The most intelligent teacher cannot successfully distribute his efforts over a wide range of subjectmatter if he must proceed according to our present methods of classwork. The teacher in the small school is faced with major responsibility for planning, directing, and measuring the results of pupils' activities in several grades, in several subjects, and for pupils of widely differing interests and needs. His teaching can seldom rise above the level of hand-to-mouth effort. If the small school system is to be reorganized on a sound junior high school basis, the reorganization must give relief to the teachers from a part of the duties which are commonly imposed upon them.

In the contention that the junior high school needs teachers who are generally intelligent, rather than highly trained in special fields, we have a suggestion as to the form which this relief may take. We cannot and should not free our teachers from the necessity of guiding the immediate activities of their pupils. But can we not give them greater help than at present both in planning such activities and in measuring their results? Can we not provide for them a body of carefully prepared teaching materials, to be used directly by the pupils rather than after translation by the teacher? These materials might well take the form of graded assignment-sheets, covering in detail the successive units of those subjects in which individual differences are likely to be most significant and in which specialized subjectmatter receives greatest attention. With the aid of such assignment-sheets, the teacher's function might be that of stimulating and guiding the pupil's learning rather than of "teaching" him all that he must know. If we can furnish materials of this sort, we shall have made it possible for the intelligent teacher of limited specialized training to supervise the work of pupils even in specialized fields.

There are obvious difficulties and dangers in such a plan. The drawing up of lesson-materials may tend to formalize teaching and to limit unduly the initiative of the teacher. It may prove difficult to adjust assignments adequately to individual interests and needs. The extensive use of printed materials may tend to limit progress even beyond the extent to which it is now limited. But the plan as a whole seems to offer so many possible advantages to the small school that it deserves careful attention in any general program for the improvement of rural education. Judged in terms of present conditions, it promises definite gain in both the breadth and the quality of teaching.

The two procedures here suggested—rearrangement of the junior high-school program to allow more advantageous subjectmatter groupings, and provision for detailed and specific instructional material in the form of carefully prepared assignment-sheets—offer a possibility of valuable distinction between the program of the small junior high school and that now accepted for the large. To what extent either procedure will be worth while can be surely determined only by actual trial, and by long-continued trial. We have some clue as to their usefulness in the present Dalton and Winnetka Plans. But it is neither the Dalton nor the Winnetka Plan, as such, that is here urged for consideration. Our purpose has rather been to suggest certain specific changes in the approach to the small school program of studies, in the light of immediate conditions which would seem to make those changes advantageous.

THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

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I. *A condition*—In October, 1923, a study was made of 295 one-teacher schools in Connecticut distributed among about ninety small towns, a few more than half the towns of the state. This study showed that 101 normal graduates and two college graduates were employed, or 34 percent of the whole number of teachers. The majority of the remaining 66 percent were high school graduates only with one or more six-week periods of training at summer normal schools.

Furthermore, the study revealed the fact, with the exception of one of the four normal schools, a distinctively urban school, that each school had contributed an equal number of graduates to the rural field. The one exceptional school was in the largest city in the state, and this school contributed a little more than twice as many rural teachers as did each of the others. It was evident that providing teachers for the rural schools was not a problem peculiar to any one normal school.

In September, 1927, there was an improvement in the situation. Sixty-eight percent of the teachers of one-room schools, 273 in number, or exactly twice the percentage of 1923, were normal graduates. For the more than one-teacher schools, the percentage was 76 percent, and for the

entire rural area, 72 percent of the teachers had had a full normal school course of two years, preceded by four years of high school.

This changed condition in the teaching personnel was the result of five years of effective planning and execution, in which the school officials cooperated with the normal schools, and with the other administrative divisions of the state board of education. For in 1922 the state board passed a resolution that all new teachers beginning to teach in the elementary schools, rural or urban, after July 1, 1927, must be graduates of a two-year approved normal school course.

Moreover, in meeting this situation not only the one-teacher schools, but the consolidated and village schools in rural areas also, were found to have their peculiar problems, and these were of concern to the normal schools. Among these problems are those clustering about the conveyance of pupils from surrounding areas. These pupils bring their lunches to school and arrive and depart at almost the exact moments for opening and closing the school sessions. With these noninstructional problems the prospective rural teacher must become acquainted.

After all, the numerous difficulties in equalizing educational opportunity are obstacles, and obstacles are not devils, only obstacles, and they suggest problems to be solved. They are not impassable hurdles.

One attitude of mind on the part of town school committees had to be overcome. This was that normal school training does not make teachers. "Such must be born." Back of this attitude, all too frequently lies an unfortunate experience with one or more normal graduates who have failed to manage. These graduates have come from the lowest quartile of the graduating class, and are considered good enough only for rural schools. They ordinarily lack the personality, physical strength, and specific knowledge and insight necessary to succeed in schools which present problems quite different from those in the urban schools to which their abler classmates have gone. The last type of school for which the normal school should recommend these poorer graduates is the one-room school. This lack of confidence in the normal schools operated not alone to reduce the demand for normal graduates, but worse still it tended to prevent local high-school graduates from entering the normal schools.

Committees of the normal school faculties studied these problems during the year 1923-1924 and reached the conclusion that the process of training teachers to teach in rural schools involved all that is necessary in the training of teachers for grade schools, plus an understanding of the environment and organization of the one-teacher school. With such a conviction, what factors have played a part in the operation of a program which has been contrary to rural differentiation in teacher preparation?

II. *The Problem*—First, I wish to emphasize the idea that the question of differentiating education for the rural field, with regard to teacher preparation, is a part of the broader question of rural differentiation in general. The question of differentiation is one that cannot be answered by a simple "yes," or "no." It is rather one of degree. To what extent is it desirable to differentiate in the program of education for the rural

school, since it is fair to assume that it is the function of the normal schools to prepare teachers to carry out a program.

III. *First as to general differentiation*—The real field for differentiation is to be found in vocational and professional education and not in general education on the liberal or cultural levels. The elementary field, therefore, is not the field for differentiation. Here we are concerned with elemental skill and a fairly uniform body of knowledge and habits and with ideals that should be common to all. Moreover, this is the period of education for which we require compulsory attendance, and seek to lay a foundation for subsequent advance. The conception of education that would require a degree of differentiation for other than vocational and professional purposes or for educationally exceptional children has many implications and as yet requires substantiation.

Unless, then, it can be shown that specific differentiation is required for the pupils of the rural schools, there is little justification in providing for a rural differentiation in teacher preparation.

The curriculum offerings require quite as great an enrichment and as well qualified teachers in one community as in the other. It is probable that when school finance is placed upon a comparable plane in the two types of communities, rural and urban, and when the educative materials, the equipment and the teaching personnel are provided without the differences that now exist in these respects, in some of the states, the problem of educational differentiation will disappear.

IV. *Differentiation in teacher preparation*—If, upon further examination and with an adequacy of school support, the need of educational differentiation as between rural and urban communities comes to be either reduced to a very small amount, or eliminated, then it follows that there is little need for differentiation in the matter of teacher preparation.

Differentiation in teacher preparation to the extent of providing a rural training curriculum must require a professional guidance program that will prove efficient in bringing about wise choices in professional preparation.

A close examination of the teacher-training program throughout the country discloses the fact that the process of training for rural schools requires, as has been said above, all that is required in the process of training for other elementary schools. Examine, if you will, the programs of study and what do we find? Of 170 state normal schools and teachers' colleges, a few years ago 52 of them maintained special rural departments and 61 others offered special rural courses, and we find that such rural teacher training requires psychology, principles of education, professional ethics, professionalized subjectmatter and the like. It is manifest therefore, that all of these elements and some others are necessary. It is upon the extent of these other things that the degree to which we should go in making rural emphases in our teacher-training institutions depends.

Wherever the normal schools and teachers' colleges are under a single administrative control such as a department of education, the problem of providing adequate state programs is simplified. Furthermore, a teacher

is not broadly prepared without a more or less intimate acquaintance with several types of schools.

In conclusion, differentiation in the elementary school curriculum, as between rural and urban schools, is thought to be inadvisable, hence differentiation in teacher preparation is unnecessary. The evidence in one state at least seems to justify this conclusion.

THE PROBLEM OF DIFFERENTIATING RURAL TEACHER PREPARATION—ABSTRACT

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During the last two decades much progress has been made in the general field of normal school education. Among the outstanding tendencies are: The raising of entrance requirements—mental, physical, moral—for admission to normal schools and teachers colleges; the extending of the curricula based on high-school graduation as a prerequisite until in many instances three and four years are required for their completion; and the making of greater provision for and use of the "laboratory equipment" for observation and practice teaching by novices.

The fact that the state normal schools have grown away from the general curriculum makes even more necessary than heretofore special consideration of a curriculum for the training of rural elementary school teachers, for surely no one of the usual curricula offered—kindergarten, primary, intermediate, or grammar grade—is any better if as well adapted, as was the general curriculum, to the needs of prospective rural school teachers. Teacher training institutions have gradually come to accept this point of view.

The comment is often made that the teacher of the sons and daughters of the farmer, who is carrying a large share of the tax support of the state normal schools, is not receiving as much attention and as adequate training for her job as is the city teacher. Assuming the end of rural and of urban education to be the same, in how far should the normal school curricula of both groups of prospective teachers be identical? The writer is of the opinion that in many of the general professional courses offered in the normal schools, such as child study, educational tests and measurements, public school systems and school law, the rural and the urban prospective teachers should be together. There is need for common, rather than differentiated, aims and philosophy for the two groups. Their mingling in all classes except those requiring strictly rural emphasis—such as rural school observation and practice teaching, rural school administration, management, and curriculum, and rural community activities—has a wholesome broadening and cultural effect on both urban and rural students alike.

Although some teachers colleges divide their classes in the specific professionalized subjectmatter courses into rural and urban sections, this prac-

tice may be questioned. As indicated in the above paragraph, lines of cleavage should be overcome wherever possible rather than emphasized. With the two groups together in courses, however, the instructor should consciously aim to adapt the materials and make applications, use illustrations, and assign problems suitable, respectively, to rural and to urban conditions.

Among the courses that are differentiated and receive rural emphasis, those in observation and practice teaching are, in my judgment, the most essential and promising in educative results. Theoretical instruction at the best can but tell about teaching, whereas experiences involving responsible activity in rural teaching situations can improve the normal school students' rural teaching skill. The major portion of the prospective rural teacher's professional preparation should center in and about the demonstration and practice schools maintained or affiliated with the normal school. Adequate facilities should be provided to meet this need. The different curricula should include and be administered so as to give ample opportunity for observation and practice teaching, carefully supervised and sufficiently graded to meet the varying needs of the students. The practice teaching courses should be the central and most important activities in the student's curriculum. Most of the instruction in subject-matter, classroom management, and teaching technic should be motivated by them. From actual practice and experience with concrete cases, the student may be led to the theoretical and abstract general principles of the profession.

The graduates of a two-year rural elementary school curriculum, who had taken all or part of their observation and practice teaching in rural schools, were asked if in their judgment it was of sufficient value over and above that obtainable by using exclusively the urban practice school to justify the extra time, effort and expense involved. Ninety percent of them answered this pertinent question in the affirmative. To a similar question asked the 21 educational experts, 19 answered "yes." The fractional part of the total amount of observation and practice teaching to be done in rural schools is variously estimated by the experts with 50 percent being most frequently suggested.

A scientific approach to the problem of differentiation is needed. Under the supervision of W. W. Charters, and financed by the Commonwealth Fund, there has been under way for the past two years a job-analysis of the teaching profession. The purpose of the study has been to obtain a scientific basis for determining the curriculum for the preparation of teachers. Time does not permit a detailed description of the study. The fact that W. W. Charters and the Commonwealth Fund are responsible for it are proof sufficient that the study is scientifically sound. The writer was so fortunate as to obtain permission to use the data concerned with those activities of the teaching profession, with their decile ratings, which the various groups of teachers felt should be taught in the teacher preparing institutions. The rural teacher group varied two or more decile

points (which the investigators consider a significant difference) from both the kindergarten-primary and intermediate groups, the most nearly comparable groups, in 166 of the total 558 activities listed. In other words, the rural teachers indicated a significant difference in emphasis in 30 percent of the activities listed by the elementary teachers as being those which they thought should be taught by teacher-preparing institutions.

In conclusion, conditions have not so changed but that we as a Department of Rural Education may well reiterate and again pledge our support to a resolution passed by this organization at the Chicago meeting in 1922, which in part reads:

The safety of society demands a new kind of rural school suited to the preparation of rural people for the new world situation. The present supply of prepared teachers in no sense equals the demand which should be made by rural people. We believe that normal schools and other teacher preparing institutions should immediately recognize their obligation, first to train teachers for rural schools, and second, to create among rural people an ever increasing demand for prepared teachers.

To this resolution, however, should be added a second one which, in my judgment, is very essential. In view of the diversity of opinion, practice, and outcome among those struggling with the problem of preparing rural school teachers, this Department should, if possible, initiate, foster, guide, and complete a scientific study or series of studies to be carried on over a period of years to supplement what has already been done and to determine which curricula and training practices are most hopeful in their solution of the rural teacher problem. Surely not all of the multitude of practices now offered are equally adequate and efficient in meeting the need.

RURAL SUPERVISION IN WISCONSIN

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Rural supervision is determined by the administrative units under which schools are organized and operated. Wisconsin has approximately 7100 schools under the jurisdiction of county superintendents. Six thousand five hundred of these are one-room schools. The others are state graded schools of two or more rooms. All units except city superintendencies are directly under county superintendents. There are no county boards of education except for the selection of textbooks. The establishment and projection of educational policies is therefore up to the state department if any degree of uniformity is to be attained. According to the state constitution the school system shall be as nearly uniform as practicable. The time of the county superintendent is almost entirely absorbed by clerical and executive duties, thus permitting only a modicum of supervision.

In 1915 Wisconsin established the supervising teacher system. A county having 125 teachers is required to employ one; if it has more than that

number it must employ two. It so happens that in the seventy-two superintendent districts, thirty-six have one supervising teacher and thirty-six have two. The state, therefore, has 108 teachers charged with the sole duty of supervising rural schools. The department of public instruction has set up training and experience standards for this work. Their salaries and travelling expenses are paid out of the state distributable school fund. Training institutions have thus far not trained them for their specific work, hence, promising and successful teachers have had to be trained by superintendents and the state department in service. Two members of the department spend the major portion of their field time in company with the supervising teachers in rural visitation. The aim is to assist them in formulating supervisory programs and acquiring an acceptable degree of technic. When the work was first inaugurated supervising teachers had no goals or aims to guide them. It was but natural for them to assume that each teacher in a rural school presented a problem distinctly her own and unrelated to conditions which might be found in other schools. Each school was regarded as a supervisory entity rather than a part of a system. The prevalence or possibility of common problems was not recognized. No doubt the actual conditions in the country schools were more suggestive of incoherence than relatedness. To bring to the teachers and county administrators the conception of a coordinated forward movement of the county and state school systems was evidently the next big task of Wisconsin's educational leadership.

The first step in this direction was the revision of the state course of study so that it could be adapted to the program of the rural schools. This was done and the course embodied the feature of a combination of the work of certain grades and presentation of some subjects in alternate years. This marked the departure from haphazard methods to one of standardization of subjectmatter. It gave the supervisors an opportunity to unify the county educational work. Subsequent development of the course has given Wisconsin's rural schools practical workable programs for every activity for which they are accountable. All professional workers know exactly what standards have been prescribed.

One valuable byproduct of the system is its effect upon the county superintendents. These officials have been awakened to a consciousness of their responsibilities; they have learned the difference between supervision and administration; and recognized that a program of supervision should be the dominating activity of their office. By law the county superintendent is required to visit each school annually. A realization of the inadequacy of these required visits has prompted about one half of the superintendents to initiate well-planned supervisory programs for their schools. These serve as guides for supervisors and teachers alike. A supervisory program should not be confused with teaching plans, devices, methodologies, or testing programs. Methodology is not synonymous with a program. A supervisory program is a well-defined outline of the activities by which the educational objectives of a school unit may

be realized over a period of years. It is not a spasmodic emphasis upon a particular phase of school work but a plan of continuous procedure which should involve and animate every one connected with the system. Programs should be determined by the educational needs of the counties. Regardless of the fact that the responsibility for such a program is directly upon the county superintendent it should be drawn up with the assistance of his teachers, principals, supervising teachers, and interested group representatives. May it be said at this point that the success of a program is prefaced upon it being the cooperative effort of the various educational agencies of the unit. A program handed down from above may be a lifeless thing to administer. Besides the necessity of interpreting its contents it may appear to them an impractical scheme more concerned with administrative problems than the improvement of teaching.

Teacher training and in-service training are directly correlated. Rural teachers are trained with few exceptions in county rural normal schools, high-school training departments, and rural departments of teachers colleges. The largest number are products of rural normal schools governed by a three member board, the county superintendent being ex-officio secretary. Several county superintendents maintain their offices in the county normal building instead of in the court house, thereby making the training school the educational center of the county. It is evident that a definite relationship between teacher training and the county schools is inherent in the nature of the organization. The students observe the work of rural schools early in the year and bring back material for discussion in methods classes and model room practice teaching. The county superintendent and supervising teachers usually accompany the students as do the rural normal faculty. Later in the year a week of practice work is done by each member of the training class in one of the rural schools.

It has become the general procedure for faculty and supervising teachers to exchange positions for a short period so that each group may better understand the problems of the other and give the benefits of their experience to the other field. Some rural normal schools conduct classes on Saturday permitting rural teachers the privilege of visiting and observing the work carried on. A splendid tie-up between training and theory is thus maintained. Several of the training departments have been especially helpful in providing unit lessons for the county schools. Field service by these departments as conducting evening meetings, providing movies, organizing community organizations, and drives of many sorts further emphasize the close relationship prevailing. This interchange of service has impressed the teachers that training does not terminate on graduation day. It has given the entire system fluidity and progressive development from within.

Unification of programs into a state plan is heartily endorsed by the Wisconsin Teachers' Association. Through the columns of its monthly magazine the program has been kept before them. To promote such a program and a fusion of interests the state department conducts annual con-

ferences for the supervising teachers the week preceding the opening of school in September. Policies, new statutory requirements and modern methods are explained by members of the state department; outstanding supervising teachers and county superintendents report upon projects carried on in their respective counties; and special subjects as health, thrift, recreation, music, and farm records and accounts are discussed by specialists. Later a similar conference stressing administrative topics is held for county superintendents. This is followed by a meeting for principals of county rural normal schools.

IMPROVEMENT OF PRIMARY GRADE PRACTICE IN RURAL SCHOOLS

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Primary grade practice is the weakest part of the rural school. It is so because of a number of factors each of which tends to perpetuate a most undesirable condition. First is the group who are about to leave the elementary school for high school or for employment. This group more or less below standard in achievement by reason of the weakness in the lower grades appeals to the teacher as especially needy. They must be helped if they are to succeed in the high school. If they are to leave school soon, there is so much to be done for them. High-school requirements set up standards which must be met directly.

The attitude of the community toward the school is a second big factor. The community tends to judge a school by the work of the upper grade pupils and by the record of its pupils in high school. Frequently, all the community expects of the primary grades is that in a motherly way they be trained to work at something quietly and without disturbing the upper grades. Too often that is the teacher's point of view also and busy-work devices are in constant demand.

"The needs of the older pupils must be met. There is time enough in the coming years to meet those of the primary pupils if they will only keep quiet." Meanwhile, as the primary group passes through the grades, it is thinned out by discouragements, lack of progress and an uninteresting regime of busy-work. The situation is abominable from an educational standpoint and very difficult.

Again, the rural community does not keep abreast of progress in education. No more do city people, but they cannot make themselves felt because of the vast organization or machine intervening between them and the schools. Country people labor under no such difficulty. They can make themselves felt and they do. They are in intimate touch with the school and I, for one, would not have it otherwise. That close relationship is worth a great deal, but it suggests the necessity for educating the community, for keeping the community aware of changes accomplished and proposed, and for developing an appreciation of what it all means.

This cannot be done by lectures backed by all kinds of authorities. It can be done only by more intimate meetings where school work, an actual learning situation, is shown and explained and where the community has opportunity to ask questions and talk it over. The worker in the rural community who resents this questioning or who finds this work of helping a rural community to modernize its concepts of education distasteful is out of place.

The schoolroom itself presents many difficulties. There is little room to move about or in which to locate many activity centers. The desks are more often than not fixed quantities. In fact, to the beginner these fixed quantities of the rural school present the most difficult and baffling situations. The response is frequently, "It cannot be done." And thereby hangs the tale.

One cannot do in many rural schools the sort of thing modern school magazines love to photograph. That does not mean, however, that modern practice is impossible. It may mean that certain practices are impossible, due to these same fixed quantities, to the fewness of the pupils, to the lack of the newer conventional teaching materials and to the teacher himself. Other practices just as modern in spirit, just as educative in worth, just as social in their possibilities and just as valuable are possible.

But before going on with that, account must be taken of the teachers. The rural teacher is a variable with unknown limits. He may be an elementary school product only and sometimes of long ago. He may be a high-school graduate with more or less professional training at summer school. He may be normal school trained with or without especial preparation for rural school practice or liking for his work in a rural school. He may be a sojourner there pending marriage or a position in a larger school system. Or he may be a genuinely professional teacher who is able to see opportunities and problems, who is able to lead, to stimulate, to guide and do it in terms of the social and physical environment in which the school is set.

Whatever may be the limits of this variable, the teacher profits invaluably by good supervision because supervision brings to bear on the problem more professional training, other experience and the insight which grows out of these. Supervision must be the agency through which any extensive or profound changes in primary practice are effected.

The supervisor with understanding of modern primary practice born of teaching experience, study and reflection visits the school frequently and there in conference with teacher and pupils helps them to discover the possibilities of their situation and to realize them. But the supervisor who enters the rural school with a stock of ready-made, conventional ideas finds the going exceedingly rough and sometimes he is wrecked. The situation calls for adaptability and ingenuity, and is therefore a challenge rather than an impossibility.

The pupils are not so unlike other pupils. They are children with interests appropriate to their age. Their experience has embraced much that is common to other groups elsewhere, in the home, in the school,

at play and so on. It has elements of difference, too, which supervisor and teacher may well find and capitalize.

There is a schoolroom with possibilities. Generally it presents many opportunities for teaching applied art, sanitation and living together well. Did it ever occur to you that the country child has many advantages over the city child in his opportunities to do and learn so many things that are done for the city pupil by hands and forces unseen. The fundamental principles of community sanitation mean something to the country child. Transportation is something else than stepping into the subway and being shot somewhere.

Connecticut has undertaken to solve the problem presented by these more or less complex conditions through introducing into the rural school specialists in modern primary practice. Beginning with certain experiments some years ago this organization has been extended until this year there are nine of these specialists giving full time to supervising especially the primary grades.

The situation briefly is this. For twenty-five years the state board of education has been furnishing supervisory service to the small towns of Connecticut. In recent years the territories of nine successful men supervisors have been enlarged and to these men have been delegated such administrative duties as may exist together with the supervision of the upper grades and high schools. With each of these men has been associated a woman to supervise the primary work. These women have had extensive teaching experience in the primary grades and advanced training in primary practice. In some cases they have had supervisory experience. They are free to devote their whole time and energy to supervision. The one-teacher schools are arbitrarily divided between the two supervisors to give the primary supervisor from 55 percent to 60 percent of the supervisory load. Where the one-teacher school is very largely primary, as many of them are, it is assigned to the primary supervisor.

This is a long term program. We do not expect to achieve our goal by 1929 or 1930. We do anticipate that each year will see more of the spirit of modern primary practice penetrating these schools in all lines of work.

The rural school can reflect modern education just as clearly as any school albeit in different colors. Originating problems and activities, planning, executing, judging are just as feasible in the rural school as elsewhere. Clay modeling, poster-making and puppet shows, if these be accepted as parts of a modern school's program, can all be provided in the rural school. Standards of achievement in what some people are graciously pleased to call the fundamental subjects have been and can again be attained in the rural school.

It is for expert leadership to find the way and that is the task of the primary supervisor in the rural school. The primary supervisor becomes the champion of the younger pupils who constitute the weakest part of the rural school. As the spirit of the new permeates the lower grade work, it will hasten the same process in the upper grades until the unfortunate situation described at the beginning of this paper disappears.

INDIVIDUAL INSTRUCTION IN ONE-TEACHER SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

U. J. HOFFMAN, STATE SUPERVISOR OF RURAL SCHOOLS, ILLINOIS

School improvement progresses in stages. The first schools in America were one-teacher schools even in cities. Horace Mann led the movement to centralize the schools of a community and segregate pupils in groups of like attainments, and place each group in charge of a teacher. It was thought that specialization would be advantageous to instruction and to learning, but the chief gain was economic. These schools were designated graded schools. The practice became universal. Only the schools in sparsely inhabited communities remain one-teacher schools.

During the last two decades the effort to meet the educational needs of the individual child has been making such progress that the hope may be entertained that the child is coming into his own—the opportunity to be aided to grow into the best manhood of which he is capable. Credit is due to Dr. Stanley Hall and to Col. Francis Parker for directing attention to the child rather than the subjects of knowledge taught. Learning is not an end in itself, but a means to change the child into the man of matured powers.

The "child study" of these great leaders has been made definite and specific in the mental measurements that have been devised. So that now the effort is widespread to aim the teacher's efforts at the learning needs of every pupil or student. High schools and colleges are laying stress on study rather than as previously on instruction. The graded schools are grouping pupils according to their ability and speed in learning. The teacher's aim is to help each group and each individual in the group to attain the maximum of his ability and to hold each one responsible for all that he is capable and no more.

The one-teacher school has suffered most from the graded procedure. The school is divided into eight grades. Each grade constitutes a class and is taught as a class though there be but one pupil in the grade. The absurdity of delivering a lecture to an audience of one is not greater than treating one or four pupils as if they were a room full. Each grade has at least four study or class periods. That gives the teacher thirty-two or more class periods. This drives her to the cafeteria method of service. The teacher's desk is the center of activity. Each class comes up and is served each the same portion. This occupies all the teacher's time and one fourth of the pupil's time. Three fourths of his time he must shift unaided for himself.

The present program is a teacher's program. The pupils are obliged to adjust themselves to her convenience. The program should be primarily a pupil's program and the teacher should adjust her activities to serve the pupils in every possible way to aid him in successful learning.

What the Program Should Provide

First: It should provide ample and uninterrupted time for the pupils to study each subject and do the necessary exercises.

Second: It should provide ample time for the teacher to start every pupil in his work at the beginning of each session.

Third: It should provide time for class instruction, class cooperative study, class conference or discussion and testing.

Fourth: It should provide time for the teacher to give individual instruction to those who were not able to profit by class instruction to the end that the gifted pupil may work to his full capacity and the slow pupil do at least the minimum essentials to enable him to progress in his studies.

Fifth: It should provide time for "general exercises" participated in by all the pupils such as singing, story telling or reading, current events, morals and manners, etc.

Sixth: It should provide time for recreation and play.

What Can Be Effectively Done by Class Instruction?

First: Time can be saved by serving every member of the group at the same time. If pupils are equally well prepared and wanting to do the work this is the only help they need to attack the problem successfully.

Second: By capitalizing the social nature of children they can be more easily motivated to undertake the mastery of a problem. The interest and enthusiasm of the teacher and some members of the class awakens interest in those who at first have no interest in the work to be done.

Third: The class exercise may be so conducted that the pupils learn from each other, exchanging ideas and the selfexpressions resulting therefrom are helpful both in learning and in stimulating interest.

Kinds of Class Exercises

The assignment of the lesson—(instruction period). Lesson planning is essential. The chief purpose of the plan should not be for the teacher to enable her to teach better, but for the pupil that he may study better. The teacher should find the plan for teaching in the pupil as well as in the subject taught. When a new subject, a new section of the subject or a new project or problem is to be taken up, the teacher should meet the class. Her first aim should be to interest them in it, to arouse their curiosity and their determination to conquer the new situation. Next show them what they are to do, get the problem clearly before them. Next show them how to begin and how to proceed, removing as many obstacles as is advisable. Both ideas and words may be unknown that are essential to comprehension. The text may convey little meaning because of this obscurity. This should be cleared up before the pupil is expected to begin the mastery. When assigning the lesson, the teacher does the work, the pupils cooperating by giving attention, asking questions are

otherwise making it known what they do not understand or wish to know. It may require one or even more class periods to get the assignment across to even the brightest pupils. Even with the most skillful work by the teacher some pupils will fail to get a start. They should be served by individual instruction.

Class study of the lesson—Another method may serve the purpose better to get the pupils to understand what to do, how to begin and how to proceed. This is called class study, the teacher regarding herself as a member of the class. Cooperatively they read and discuss the text. If possible, the pupils decide what should be done. They determine what is of greater and of less importance. They should discuss the possibility of other information not found in the text. Finally, they should organize their knowledge into a logical statement. If the information gained is to fit them for doing some thing such as solving problems in arithmetic or writing a letter or thesis in language, the information is to be applied in doing these things. Even in this procedure some will fail to profit. They must be sought out and helped individually.

Individual study and instruction—Following either of these class exercises, there comes the time for the pupils each to study by himself, to apply himself to doing the work for which he has been preparing. It may be learning facts and truths that he does not already know or it may be acquiring skill by doing exercises. During this time the teacher can best serve by inspecting the work of each pupil by suggesting improvement, by commending those who are doing well, by inspiring those who fail, and showing them how to succeed. What is done here by both pupils and teacher is the real thing. All that was done in class was done that the study and the learning that is done here may be successful in bringing about the change in the pupil that is desired. This is the most educative work that can be done in school. Good instruction is greatly to be desired but successful study is more so. Instruction is good only to the degree that it helps to make study successful.

Class discussion of the lesson studied—The pupils having succeeded in what they undertook, should be given the opportunity to mutually rejoice in their victory. They have each for himself or with the assistance of the teacher mastered the problem. Now they should be given the opportunity to talk it over among themselves. Knowledge is not quite complete until it is expressed. Now comes the time for expression. This should in no sense be a "recitation," but a conference of equals.

Fault should not be found or censure administered by the teacher for the pupil's contribution to the discussion. What he says should be received in as good faith as it is given, however faulty it may be. What is sought is free expression. Appreciation, not criticism, encourages this. The diffident pupil should be led to talk on a subject that the teacher knows he can do with credit. Succeeding in small things will give courage to undertake larger ones.

Great care should be exercised to avoid giving the impression that the pupils will be judged by what he does in the discussion period. Questions should be asked in a way that leaves the impression that it is done to bring out a point for the benefit of the class. This should not be a test. It should be a genuinely honest, cooperative effort to get at the truth. No matter how well or how poorly a pupil does it should be understood that it has no effect on his grades or standing.

Given this freedom and all fear removed, pupils will ask questions that point out clearly the pupil's needs. The teacher can then come to his assistance, enlighten him, direct him how to help himself, or set him right if he is in error. Any method or manner that induces the pupil to hide his deficiencies from the teacher defeats her in her efforts to serve him. The thing most desired in the pupil is an inquiring mind. In the discussion period everything should be done to encourage inquiry and expression.

The test—Another class exercise is the test. If the pupils have been instructed in the assignment of the lesson, if they have had the teacher's guidance while they were preparing the lesson, if they have talked over the work with their class-mates and the teacher they will be glad to be tested. It should be carefully impressed upon their minds that this is an opportunity to prove to themselves rather than to the teacher that they have succeeded in what they undertook. Fear that doing poorly will cause them to fail to pass should be removed. If taught as suggested in the foregoing they already know that they have profited by the lesson, that they know what they were expected to learn, that they can do what they were expected to do. The teacher also knows. Both may be mistaken in their judgment. The test will help both to make sure. Failing to stand the test satisfactorily should not mean that they "flunked." It should signify that more effort must be made to get what the lesson has to give and steps should be taken to make good the deficiency.

Pupils are not neglected—The parents of the school children of today were taught by exclusive class instruction. They remember to have received help from the teacher only in class. For the rest of the time, they had to shift for themselves. The teacher did nothing more than watch them and tell them to study the lesson if she suspected them of doing something else. When they learn that their children are not assembled in class every day in every subject, they naturally decide that the children are neglected and the teacher is loafing on the job. It must be clearly impressed on the minds of the children that they do get the teacher's help every day in every subject. Some days they all get the same help at the same time. On other days every one who needs help gets it at the time he needs it most. If he does not need help he is not disturbed while he is doing the essential thing that he can do without help. If this is done the children will repeat at home that their teacher does differently from other teacher, that she shows them how to get their lessons. When they cannot do it very well she helps them so that they can do it. The doubt

arising in the parents' mind about not "reciting" every day in every subject can very easily be cleared up by explaining that the children come to school to learn—that the teacher is employed to do everything she can to help them; that she is doing it in a way that helps the children most. The parent should be requested to watch and see whether the children are interested in their studies and whether they are learning. If they are the teacher cannot be rightly charged with not doing her duty.

PROGRESS IN CONSOLIDATION IN PENNSYLVANIA

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The philosophy of education that underlies the principle of consolidation has been developing gradually in Pennsylvania from the establishment of our state system in 1834. There has been evidence of it in various Acts passed from time to time giving school boards the privilege of uniting small schools into larger units of organization.

In 1901 an Act was passed by the legislature authorizing school boards to submit the question as to the consolidation of the schools of their district to a vote of the people. In fact, this was an obligation resting upon the board, if a majority of the qualified electors of the township school district representing or owning property to the amount of not less than one-fourth of the assessed valuation of such township district petitioned the board for such an election. If a majority of the electors voted in favor of consolidation, it became the duty of the board to proceed at once to the centralization of the schools of that township. If a majority voted against centralization, the question could not again be submitted to the electors for a period of two years. This, then, puts the matter of consolidation into the hands of the people of the township school district.

In 1911, the year in which the present Pennsylvania School Code was written, an Act was passed placing the authority for the consolidation of schools in the hands of the school board instead of in the hands of the electorate of the district. This Act states that "Whenever graded schools can be made to accommodate the pupils of one or more ungraded schools by consolidating said ungraded school or schools with another school either graded or ungraded it shall be the duty of the board of school directors to abandon the one-room school or schools and instead of repairing or rebuilding the one-room schoolhouse or schoolhouses they shall erect a suitable modern building for the purpose of consolidating and properly grading all of the said schools."

In addition to the above Act there was a provision in the School Code itself which provided for the closing and consolidating any of the public schools in the district because of the small number of pupils in attendance or the condition of the existing school building or for better gradation and classification or for economical or other reasons. This Act stated that in the case of the closing of such schools, children living in a district of

the fourth class belonging to any such closed school or schools and residing one and one-half miles or more from the school to which they are assigned shall be furnished proper transportation at the expense of the school district.

From 1911 to 1919 a great deal of interest in consolidation was taken by the school people of the state, especially the county superintendents of schools. Consolidation was a subject for discussion in most of the educational meetings. Sentiment was growing rapidly in favor of a larger unit of organization and against the one-teacher school. During this period the war came on, trained teachers became scarce and the one-teacher schools in many cases in the state were being taught by inexperienced and untrained teachers. As a result of this the one-teacher schools had reached an almost impossible condition. County superintendents realizing this felt that the only relief was the closing of these schools and consolidating them.

As a result of the interest shown in consolidation of schools, the legislature of 1919 passed an Act providing for reimbursement of school districts for transportation of children to consolidated schools and also passed another Act making it obligatory upon school boards to close all one-teacher schools of the fourth class districts having an average term attendance of ten or less. This Act contained the same provisions relative to the transportation of children and the reimbursement by the state in the case of the closing of these small schools as provided for consolidated schools.

In 1921 a provision was made in the law whereby a district of the fourth class closing any school or schools would receive two hundred dollars annually for each and every school permanently closed. This appropriation for closed schools went far towards assisting school boards in financing their building programs. Two hundred dollars or any multiple of this number would practically pay the interest on indebtedness necessary in the erection of new school buildings, of course depending upon the type of building erected.

In addition to the legislation mentioned the state council of education and the department of public instruction at this time put on an intensive campaign of education for the consolidation of schools throughout the state. A bureau of rural education was organized in the department of public instruction to assist in this program.

In 1919 we had 115 approved consolidated schools in the state to which children were transported and reimbursement from the state became available under the Act of Assembly of that year.

By 1927 there were 417 approved consolidated schools to which transportation was provided. In addition we had approximately fifty approved consolidated schools where transportation was unnecessary.

In 1925 the Legislature amended the Act providing for reimbursement of school districts for children transported to consolidated schools and extended the provisions. In Pennsylvania districts are reimbursed for the payment of the minimum salaries of teachers according to the valuation

back of each teacher in the district. The ratio in fourth class districts is 50, 60, or 75 percent of the minimum salary of the teachers depending upon this valuation. This Act of 1925 placed reimbursement for transportation of children on the same basis as reimbursement for teachers' salaries. This is another factor that encourages districts to close their small schools and unite them in larger school units.

The legislature of 1925 in order to equalize the appropriations to all school districts for reimbursement for transportation passed an amendment whereby school districts owning their own conveyances receive annually 15 percent of the original cost of the transportation vehicle up to one hundred dollars per vehicle per year. This provides for the maintenance of the vehicle.

Of course, in Pennsylvania, as in all other states, the last decade has provided a road building program such as no state had ever experienced up until ten years ago. Thousands of miles of improved roads have been built and during this same period a system of motor bus conveyances has been developed to make transportation possible over the improved highways. This more than anything else has stimulated the program of consolidation in Pennsylvania. Keeping in mind all of the factors named above and the growing desire on the part of our rural people for the better education of their children, the immediate future is full of promise in a program of consolidation in Pennsylvania.

We believe that we do not exaggerate when we say that consolidation is sold to a very large majority of the rural people of our state.

It should be stated that the greatest hindrance to a more rapid development of consolidation in Pennsylvania is the present cost of the erection of school buildings. Farmers are now paying a very heavy tax compared with their earnings. Anyone acquainted with the conditions in the rural districts would agree to this. With excessive cost of the erection of new school buildings and the relatively high taxes paid by the farmers it is difficult for rural school districts to provide the type of building most desirable for consolidated schools. Pennsylvania has taken one step to relieve this situation. The last legislature appropriated for this biennium \$100,000 to be used by the state council of education to aid school districts that are in special need of a building program but unable to finance it. In addition to that there is approximately \$50,000 available each year to the state council of education derived from the state school fund to be used as they may determine.

A SALARY SCHEDULE FOR RURAL TEACHERS

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From available information it would seem that the median salaries of urban elementary teachers in the several states are from three to seven hundred dollars per year higher than the median salaries of rural teachers in the same states. Perhaps the difference may be better shown by stating

that the median rural salaries are from fifty to eighty percent of median urban salaries.

Much has been done within a few years to improve the general standard of teaching through laws establishing uniform standards for certification. Has the time not come when it is proper for the state which has fixed the minimum requirement for eligibility to fix a minimum salary which this certified teacher may receive? And also fix a minimum increase to be paid for further professional training beyond the required minimum?

It is my belief that these minima should be the same for both rural and urban schools.

We find in this section of the country at least, that there are two major groups of towns—first, the small towns having only schools which are classed as rural, whether they are of the one-room type or consolidations, and second, those towns having both the urban and rural types.

The first group are nearly always poor towns having relatively low per capita valuations so that the rates of taxation for maintenance of schools, required to pay even the present unsatisfactory salaries, often run as high as .020 in fact the average rate for maintenance of schools in Maine is .0117 per thousand of valuation. Obviously no law should be passed greatly adding to the financial burden in these towns. Provision must be made for supplying the necessary funds from some other source. The method of financing such towns which seems most readily to meet the situation is the equalization fund apportioned by the commissioner of education upon a purely mathematical basis, a certain amount per teacher to be apportioned to each town having a tax rate above the average set, and the amount per teacher to be increased as the tax rate necessary to maintain the required standard increases. Unless some such provision is made to equalize the burden of taxation it will not be feasible to increase the minimum requirement for certification as they should be increased in most states and it is to be feared that unless action is taken by the states these small towns will continue to employ the type of teacher who cannot go elsewhere and demand a reasonable salary.

The second group of towns—those having both rural and urban schools—present a somewhat more difficult problem. A careful study of conditions in my own state shows that the tendency in a great majority of cases is to make the rural school a training school from which teachers for the graded urban schools are recruited. The maximum paid to teachers in the rural school being about the same as the minimum paid in the grades. So long as the patrons of the school and the school officials of the town are content that as soon as the teacher in the rural school has proven her worth she shall be sent elsewhere about all that we can do is to try to create sentiment for better rural teachers so that those teachers who have the necessary training and ability to teach in graded town schools but who prefer the open country and the country school may be able to remain there without financial loss.

Fortunately for us in Maine there are some such teachers and through the helping teacher movement, fostered by our commissioner of education, we have been able, not only to hold them in the rural school, but to enlarge their sphere of usefulness.

By act of the legislature of 1919 the commissioner was authorized to establish a school for rural leaders to be held for six weeks at one of the normal schools. Candidates for admission to this school must be nominated by the superintendent for whom they are to teach for the ensuing year, must be graduates of a two-year normal course or its equivalent, and must have had two or more years of successful teaching experience.

We have divided the work for the six weeks into six unit courses and have brought to this school as instructors recognized authorities in rural education from widely scattered sections of the country.

When the teachers return to their schools their duties are threefold, first their schools are to serve as demonstration schools to which other teachers in the district may come to observe; second as visiting teachers and supervisors who work under the direction of the superintendent of schools; and third as community leaders who study conditions in their own and other school districts and make the schools community centers for their patrons.

What has this to do with salary schedules? The same legislative act authorizing the training of rural leaders provides that tuition and board shall be free to all teachers accepted for this special training and that the teachers shall be reimbursed for all expenses of travel to and from the school and it provides further that when the teacher has served for one year under the direction of the superintendent of schools and his report of her work has been filed with the commissioner of education, the commissioner shall pay to the helping teacher a bonus of twenty-five percent of the salary paid her by the town. These helping teachers are by virtue of their training and experience among the best paid rural teachers and when their bonus is added, their salaries compare very favorably with the best urban salaries.

Satisfactory as this financial recognition of the importance of the rural teacher is to those of us who have the improvement of rural schools at heart, by far the most important result is the change in the morale of the rural teachers. There is now a definite goal to which the rural teacher may look which offers professional and financial recognition in her chosen field. Through the operation of the equalization fund, inadequate as it still is, and the change in attitude toward the rural school both among the teachers and patrons of the schools, we have been able in the last four years to increase the number of graduates of normal school in the rural schools from 535 to 1295; to increase the median annual salary of rural teachers by nearly one hundred dollars and to increase the number of rural teachers who receive more than one thousand dollars per year three and one-half times.

COMPARISON OF ACHIEVEMENT IN CITY AND RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

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It is not always easy to differentiate between rural and non-rural high schools. For the purposes of this study, however, the term rural high school is used to denote a high school situated in a community with a population of less than 2500. In Virginia the enrolment in rural high schools ranges from 25 to 200. For the year 1926-27 approximately 20 percent of all accredited four-year high schools in Virginia had an enrolment ranging from 25 to 50; approximately 30 percent had an enrolment between 51 and 75 and 68 percent of all accredited high schools in the state for that year had enrolments of less than one hundred. There were 146 three-teacher high schools, all rural. Eighty-five percent of all accredited high schools in Virginia are rural. The enrolment in these schools amounts to only about 30 percent of the total secondary school enrolment in the state however.

The study of intelligence and achievement scores of high-school seniors over a period of two years and also tests given in connection with local surveys indicate that the instruction in rural high schools is inferior to that in city high schools, and that rural pupils have had comparatively poor opportunities for accumulating other practical information and enlarging their range of experiences. While the seniors in the latter type of school approximated the norm for the Iowa Contest Examination in such subjects as English and mathematics, the median scores for the city schools on the same subjects were above the norms for the tests. But in considering the comparative scores for the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability and for reading comprehension, it was found that the medians for students in rural high schools were not only below those of students in city high schools, but were below the norms for the tests. On the other hand, the medians for students in city high schools on the same tests were considerably above the norms for the tests.

The comparatively low scores made by pupils in rural high schools do not necessarily mean that they have any less innate mental capacity than their city cousins. I should be reluctant to admit this was true. Although there is a possibility that the cities were affected by selection. These scores most likely indicate a lack of opportunity rather than a lack of native ability. Someone has defined intelligence as "ability to learn as determined by what already has been learned." But one cannot be expected to know what he has never had an opportunity to learn.

It is apparent, therefore, that in some instances intelligence tests are merely opportunity tests. This clearly indicates that no test has been devised, or perhaps ever can be devised, that will measure the mental status of an individual at any given time apart from learning and experience, and it is impossible to standardize experience.

Since most rural schools are small in comparison with town and city schools, there is little opportunity available for the proper training of any pupil except those who are interested in the traditional college preparatory course and possess the ability to profit by same. In general, pupils enrolled in small rural high schools are required to pursue the traditional or college preparatory course of study regardless of their abilities, aptitudes, or interests because the size of the school does not make differentiation possible, or at least practicable.

Of course, it should not be assumed that there is a causal relationship between the location of the school and the achievement of its pupils. Since size is a limiting factor, however, and most rural high schools are comparatively small, rural conditions do indirectly affect the status of the school.

Achievement in rural high schools is also affected by other factors due largely to rural conditions, such as irregular attendance, poor roads, distances, health defects, etc. Other limiting factors which might be mentioned, and which do not exist in the average city school, are crowded conditions, over-loaded teachers, lack of opportunity for teacher-specialization, high percent of teacher turnover, and obsolete and outworn theories of education. Even today there is a belief prevalent in most country districts that there is something inherently valuable in a task that is difficult.

Now let us compare the records in the freshman year of college of the students graduating from the two types of high schools. At first glance it would seem natural to assume that since most rural secondary schools are small and therefore confine their efforts largely to the college preparatory course, that their graduates who enter college would be as well or better prepared to pursue college work as those who come from the city high schools. But the few studies of this kind that have been made do not bear out this assumption. Because of the superior opportunities for exploration, guidance, and differentiation in the city high schools, the graduates of the college preparatory curriculum are better prepared for college than is the average graduate of the rural high school.

Pupils enrolled in city high schools who do not have either the interest or the capacity to go to college have opportunities to pursue other curricula and are shunted in a different direction early in their secondary school career. The pupils who enter college from this type of school are therefore probably a more select group and better prepared to pursue studies in higher institutions of learning than the average group of students graduating from the rural high school.

Students from small rural high schools find it more difficult to make adjustments in the freshman year of college than do students graduating from large schools located in towns and cities. In contrasting the conditions usually existing in rural and city high schools with those in the average college we find that the contrast between the situation in the city schools and that in college is not so great as between the rural high schools and college. It is a well-established principle of psychology that one tends

to respond to a new stimulus or a new situation in the way that he has responded to the situation most like it in the past. The adjustment problems in the freshman year in college of graduates from large city high schools should not be as difficult, therefore, as are those of graduates of small rural high schools since the organization and atmosphere of the large high school are more like those of the college than are those of the small high school. In small high schools pupils have close contact with teachers while in college just the opposite condition prevails. Not only do they have close contact with teachers in small high schools but teachers tend to nurse pupils. In college students are thrown upon their own responsibility to face different methods of teaching such as lecture and laboratory methods as contrasted with question and answer methods, drill method, etc. What is more, these students were most likely leaders in the small high schools from which they graduated, but in a larger and more select group in college they may not rank as leaders.

Because of the lack of opportunities for differentiation in small high schools the rural high school must turn out all pupils according to the same pattern. All pupils study approximately the same thing regardless of their abilities or their interests in life. The result is that many students are sent to college who never should have gone or who should have gone at least to some other type of institution. These students should have been shunted in a different direction early in their high-school career. The simplest and most satisfactory way of preventing college failures is through guidance and differentiation in high school.

We have embarked upon a program of universal secondary education in the United States. This implies education of all children of the secondary age group, approximately twelve to eighteen, for all the varied life purposes of individuals of the group. Realization of some of these life purposes requires a college education, realization of other life purposes is not necessarily conditioned upon a college education, but rather upon vocational or some other kind of training that presupposes immediate entrance into vocations or other type of activity upon completion of the training offered by the high school.

Generalized college preparation, therefore, no longer suffices. College curricullums today looking toward specific fields of work are highly specialized, and the high school should provide specialized curriculums articulating as well as may be with special college curriculums.

Where the pupil contemplates immediate entrance into vocational life upon completion of the high-school course of training the need for specialized high-school curriculums is equally great. The occupational world is now very complex and grows more complex from year to year. With increasing industrial specialization goes increasing demands for specialized training in preparation for occupations.

In the face of such a point of view and such ideals, it is obvious that most rural high schools, as we find them today, are comparatively ineffective. The rural high schools need to be adjusted to present-day demands.

In conclusion what are the remedies for the situation? The first and chief means of improvement is through consolidation. Consolidation increases the valuation of the district served so that a comprehensive school can be maintained by reasonable tax levies. Consolidation also increases the number of pupils in one school so that differentiation becomes possible. Hard-surfaced roads combined with other modern means of transportation will soon make a program of consolidation practicable in almost every rural community. The pupils will be able to go comparatively long distances in a short time.

The second remedy for improving rural high schools especially in localities where it is impossible or impractical to consolidate, is the itinerant teaching staff for special subjects. This enables the small school to expand its program of studies in response to current demands at a lower per pupil cost than would be possible if teachers of vocational and special courses were maintained in each school.

The third remedy, and this may be applied along with the other remedies, is the reorganization of the school on the 6-5 plan in systems having only eleven grades, or on the 6-5 plan in twelve grade systems.

As a fourth means of enabling the small rural high school to meet current demands and to serve most effectively the interests of all pupils, the curriculum may be reorganized in the first two years with the view of serving most effectively all types of pupils, and in the last two years emphasis may be placed on those subjects specially required for college entrance. This recommendation would tend to take care of the large number of pupils who drop out before they graduate and those who do not go to college.

The fifth means of adjustment of the program of studies of the rural school to the demand for a wider range and number of studies without unduly increasing the per capita cost is by alteration of subjects and by combination of grades.

Many small high schools will be eliminated gradually through consolidation and centralization but in sparsely settled agricultural regions such as are found in the south and west the comparatively small high school probably will continue to be the predominant type of secondary school for many years to come. It is, therefore, highly desirable that this type of school be given careful study and be made as effective as possible.

In the last analysis what we desire is "not equality of achievement but equality of opportunity."

THE PLACE OF THE 4-H CLUBS IN THE AMERICAN SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION—ABSTRACT

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The cooperative agricultural extension work of the land-grant colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture is based on the Smith-Lever Extension Act of May 8, 1914, and related federal and state legisla-

tion. Its object, according to the Smith-Lever Act, is "to aid in diffusing among the people of the United States useful and practical information on subjects relating to agriculture and home economics, and to encourage the application of the same. * * * The work shall consist of the giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending or resident in said colleges in the several communities and imparting to such persons information on said subjects through field demonstrations, publications, and otherwise."

In reporting the bill to the House of Representatives from the Committee on Agriculture, Mr. Lever stated that since Congress had adopted the policy of providing federal funds for experiment stations and higher education in agriculture, it should follow this up with funds for taking the information acquired by the state colleges and experiment stations and the Department of Agriculture to the people on the farms.

For ten years the demonstration work in the south has been a great success. "The theory of the bill is to extend this system of itinerant teaching." The state is to measure the relative importance of the different lines of activity and to provide "at least one trained demonstrator or itinerant teacher for each agricultural county." The county agent "must give leadership and direction along all lines of rural activity—social, economic, and financial. Not only production but also distribution must be taught by the extension service." "One of the main features of the bill is that it is so flexible as to provide for the inauguration of a system of itinerant teaching for boys and girls."

The Smith-Lever Act is frankly intended to improve the practices of agriculture and the farm-home, and the instruction for which it provides must necessarily have a vocational aspect. But it will fail of its most valuable and important effect if it does not also result in the improvement of the individuals who come under its influence. That educational results of great value might come from work primarily intended to improve agricultural practice was shown long before the passage of the Smith-Lever Act by the outcome of the work of the agricultural experiment stations. The discoveries of the stations not only brought about fundamental and highly beneficial changes in the practice of agriculture but also broadened and strengthened the mental status of great numbers of the farming people.

Attention was called to this in 1900 in Bulletin 80 of the Office of Experiment Station (p. 76).

The education of the individual is certainly not confined to the courses of instruction of the schools but is also brought about through his relations to the home, the church, the library, the press, and various social organizations, such as the Grange, the Y's, the boy or girl scouts, etc.

The extension work is also one of the agencies which supplement in peculiar ways the education given in the schools. In its organization and financial support it differs from the other agencies to which reference has been made in that it is a department of the state college and is supported

by federal, state, and county funds. It is therefore a part of the American system of public education. As such it is under legal as well as moral obligation to aid the development and progress of education through the public schools and promote their general interests. In its work with adults and children it will have signally failed unless it stimulates their interest in the education given in the schools, brings their influence to bear on the improvement of the schools, and leads the youth of the rural communities to prolong their attendance at school as far as possible. Much testimony has been given by rural teachers and county superintendents that club work tends to vitalize the rural school and is a positive help to the school work.

The children on the farms and in the farm homes are living in the midst of the farm and home operations. From an early age they are more or less familiar with farm and home practices and have some part in them. Without the influence of any outside agency the farm children are naturally and inevitably learning a vocation. The extension service does not come to force such training upon them. It simply takes them as they are undergoing vocational work and helps to lift the processes of the farm and home vocations above the plane of drudgery, to teach both the adults and the children better ways of doing the things they are already doing and to give them a broader interest and intelligence in dealing with their farm and home problems. It shows them that country life may be of a worthwhile type, with high standards of personal character and broad community service.

The farm boy, from the time he is able to walk about the fields, learns how corn is planted, cultivated and harvested, he rides on the wagon when it is being taken to the barn, he sees it when it is being cut up and put in the silo, he watches the cows eating the silage. As he grows older he takes an increasing part in growing and disposing of the corn crop. One day the county agricultural agent comes along and talks with his father about his corn and they go out into the field to see how the crop is coming on. They discuss the selection of the seed, the method of planting, the fertilizer used, the time of harvesting, etc., or they may go to the storehouse and look at the ears of corn selected for the next planting. The agent picks up some of the ears and examines the kernels and they talk about the best forms of ears and kernels. Perhaps the agent pulls out of his automobile some ears of a variety he just received from the agricultural college or elsewhere and asks the farmer if he would not like to try this next season since it is thought to be superior to the variety he is now using. The boy is not far away when this is going on and is perhaps more curious than his father to see this new variety. He is therefore pleased, if somewhat abashed, when the agent asks him if he would like to grow some of this new corn himself and join with some other boys in the neighborhood in growing it. Of course they must have their fathers' permission to do this. And so the little home demonstration in corn growing is started on that

farm and a 4-H club is begun in that neighborhood. Something similar is done when the boy undertakes to raise a calf or some pigs.

The boy's sister wants to grow something too and she may try to raise tomatoes or other vegetables in the kitchen garden. Then the question arises what to do with the crop. A home demonstration agent comes along and asks her how she would like to can it and agrees to show her and some other girls nearby how to do this in the best way. Mother may come to their meeting if she wants to or perhaps she is willing to invite the other girls to her house and they will have the demonstration there. After a while the agent inquires of this group whether any of them have the use of a room in the farm home. If it appears that several of them do, they are asked how they would like to do some things to make that room more comfortable and attractive. If they are interested in this, ways are suggested by which with the use of inexpensive materials and simple processes improvement in the room's furnishings may be made.

But it is not enough to arouse the interest of the boys or girls in improved farm or home practices. There must be opportunity for self-expression, an important factor in education. Therefore the extension system is founded on the principle that the participants in it should themselves be demonstrators, whether they are adults or children. The farm boy must grow the corn or the pig, the farm girl must grow the vegetables, raise the hens, can the tomatoes, refurnish her room, etc. The individual club member is to keep an account of the cost of each project and the value of the product, and is to write a report on his work. In doing these things he will, of course, take advantage of what he has learned in school. To learn the value of money or other property earned by productive work, the functions of the banker and the insurance company, and the importance of wise expenditures to make possible a good income from work, is worthwhile as a part of a child's education. The 4-H clubs therefore encourage buying and marketing by the club members of the things used and produced in the projects and child ownership of the products and proceeds.

Cooperation in effort to do worthy things is also a good element in education. Hence it is better to have children in classes in school rather than to teach them singly. For the same purpose the 4-H clubs are formed. And when the clubs have meetings the children should express themselves in the management of the meetings. Hence their instruction in the simple forms of organization and parliamentary usage. This is something like what is done in the up-to-date Sunday school, where the juniors and seniors conduct their own services of worship.

In every effective system of cooperation there must be an element of competition. Hence our schools and colleges have their schemes for rating students and encouraging them with scholarships, prizes, honors, membership in societies like Phi Beta Kappa, etc. In like manner the extension clubs have developed competitions and prizes of various sorts. This matter is sometimes overdone in both the clubs and the schools. It should

be wisely limited and improved but not abolished. Experience has shown the extension organizations and the cooperating farm organizations that a conservative policy regarding prizes is best. Therefore the club prizes are to an increasing extent taking the form of scholarships or other provisions for education in school or college or of tours of observation which broaden the outlook of the participants not only as regards farming and home life but also higher education, government, industries, and social life.

The club activities are undoubtedly organized and conducted with a view to giving children a favorable outlook on agriculture and country life. With the great pressure of various forces to take people away from the farms and the favorable impressions regarding city life which are crowding in on young people in the country there is little likelihood that club work will tend unduly to keep them on the farm. One of the most fundamental and important problems in American life today is how a sufficient number of intelligent people whose best work can be done in agricultural lines may be made content to remain in our rural communities.

The extension system aims to interest the farming people in the improvement of community life. Hence the adult men and women are encouraged to work together through their various organizations for the betterment of the government, schools, churches, fairs, roads, sanitation, health, and recreation. In a measure these efforts reach out beyond the local community to the state and the nation. Through the 4-H clubs the farm children are to a certain extent made to have an increased interest in patriotism, good morals, and health from both personal and social considerations. Their participation in local, county, and state fairs through exhibits is one of the forms through which they express community interest. Team demonstrations of better practices and sharing in general community activities are other important ways of expressing such interest, which in turn develop a genuine feeling of community responsibility.

THE PLACE OF THE 4-H CLUB WORK IN THE AMERICAN SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

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The problem which is basal to the theme to be discussed this afternoon, "The Place of the 4-H Club in the American System of Public Education," is one which probably never would have arisen if there had been, twenty years ago, a well established Federal Department of Education, with a Secretary in the Cabinet; and is an excellent illustration of the prejudicial effect upon American public school education or the lack of such provision.

The type of work now known as 4-H Club, or Boys' and Girls' Club Work, was inaugurated a quarter of a century ago by various county superintendents or school principals in a number of agricultural states. Kern's Winnebago County Boys' Club was organized in 1902, and by

1906 the same idea had spread to many localities in Iowa, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Nebraska, Ohio, and Texas. Superintendent Miller, of Sigourney, Iowa, in his annual report for 1903-04, told of his agricultural conventions for boys and girls and an educational excursion to the Iowa State College of Agriculture, which was attended by nearly 1500 persons. A woman superintendent in Christian County, Illinois, had a large and enthusiastic boys' club, had made two excursions to the state college of agriculture, and was planning for 500 boys to take part in the corn growing contest of 1906. In Nebraska in 1905 the assistant state superintendent conducted a state-wide boys' corn-growing and girls' cooking contest that brought 629 boys and girls to Lincoln for the concluding banquet. An Indiana superintendent had a corn club of nearly 300 members, and conducted an excursion of more than 300 boys and their parents to the state agricultural college in 1905.¹ The same year that Kern started his Winnebago club, a school principal in Springfield township, Ohio, organized a corn club, a clover club, a garden club and a home beautification club, and two years later took more than 100 boys and girls and their parents to spend the day at the state university.² Other early superintendents in club work were O. H. Benson, who developed club work in Wright County, Iowa, in 1905,³ and W. H. Smith, out of whose work in Mississippi, in 1907, grew the first Boys' and Girls' Club Work under the Department of Agriculture.⁴

This work was an early but genuine instance of what we call today a "project" or "activities" curriculum, with great promise for the development of a superior type of education in rural schools. Have you read Kern's *Among Country Schools* lately? It is astonishing how much it breathes the atmosphere of modern educational theory. "I plead for the spiritualization of country life," he says. "Education must do this. A new educational ideal in the country school will lead the boys and girls to see more of the 'divine joy of living' in the country. . . . The country school should be so organized as to meet the new conditions of life. It ought not to be continually necessary for country people to desert the farm for the city that their children may have art, music, libraries, lectures, and social intercourse. The proper organization and administration of the country school will bring to the farm all these things."

As an expression of his concept of the kind of education demanded by a democratic society Kern quoted Hanas: "Education cannot be limited to the school arts—reading, writing, ciphering. It must acquaint the pupil with the material and social environment in order that every avenue of knowledge may be opened to him, and every incipient power receive appropriate cultivation." He tells of his efforts to provide for the children "participation" in educational processes, through the school garden,

¹ Kern, O. J. *Among Country Schools*, pp.131-157.

² Miscellaneous Circular 85, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1926, p. 12.

³ Miscellaneous Circular 85, U. S. Department of Agriculture, 1926, p. 12.

⁴ Leaflet, Bureau of Plant Industry, 647, U. S. Department of Agriculture, April 5, 1911, p. 1.

through indoor art and decoration, school socials, school libraries, educational excursions, manual training, and his farm boys' experimental club.

Especially significant is the reason he gives for the inauguration of this club. Some way, he thought, "should be devised to reach the great number of country boys and girls who for various reasons quit the district school when they are fifteen or sixteen years old and do not go to a city or village high school." Lacking high school opportunity in the country, many of the children were attending city high schools; many more had dropped out of school. His boys' club was to reach the big boys, in the district school and those outside, and interest them in the work of the state college of agriculture. He called it his "country-school extension work."

Kern's is one of the few detailed accounts of those early days of real projects in rural schools. Jessie Field's *Corn Lady*, published in 1912, is another, telling of many activities growing directly out of the children's background of experience.

High spots these, undoubtedly, yet nevertheless symptomatic of a general movement. But teachers and superintendents all had their hands very full, with little time for the many tasks needed to be done, and few of them had the educational qualifications to realize the vision which inspired them. Consequently, when the Smith-Lever Bill in 1914 made federal subsidies available for the extension teaching of agriculture and home economics, the school agencies welcomed the aid, in the form of expert information or help in instruction, which the extension workers could give, the work appearing to promise a fine type of cooperation between the two forces to the end of improving the educational opportunities of country boys and girls.

However, as might have been anticipated, the justifiably predominant interest of the Department of Agriculture in economic improvement of the agriculture of the nation, to a very large extent changed the direction of aim and the nature of emphasis of the club work. The function of the Department of Agriculture is to improve the conditions of working and living on the farms of today. The state colleges of agriculture through their extension departments had been doing what they could to get to the farmers on their farms the new knowledge and improved methods of agriculture which had been developed at the experiment stations. The Smith-Lever Act brought the resources of the federal government to aid in this work, and subsidized the "giving of instruction and practical demonstrations in agriculture and home economics to persons not attending the agricultural colleges."

That it is hard to teach an old dog new tricks is proverbial. One of the best means of getting an entering wedge into farm practice proved to be through the work of enthusiastic youthful club members, many of whom for a decade had been developing under the leadership of the schools. Demonstration by these young folks was convincing where other means failed, and soon "Demonstration Clubs" were in full swing. Although benefit to the boy or girl was still valued, the main purpose was

the immediate improvement of the farm practice and economical status of the rural community. Citations to support this statement are abundant:

Girls' Club Work was started on the theory that the first fundamental and essential need was to increase the family income.¹

Volunteer leaders have been selected because of particular ability to handle the club activity undertaken, and not on account of their general interest in boys and girls.²

There is need of an agent employed to work wholly with young people if the latter are to play an effective role in bringing about a wider use of the better practices in agriculture and home making.³

Club work—provides an opportunity for boys and girls, 10 years of age and over—to put on demonstrations in their own communities designed to show better practices in farming and home making.⁴

Four-H Club work was organized by the extension forces to teach young people agriculture and to obtain their help and cooperation in farm and home improvement.⁵

From their inception the development in numbers and variety of interest of the 4-H clubs has been in close relation to economic trends on the farm, and has been responsive to the economic needs of the farm home.⁶

There is no question that through these demonstration activities the club members have received distinct educational benefit. Indeed, in many respects the work represents a high type of one phase of education—vocational. It is a high type of vocational education because it involves actual carrying through of the vocational activity being learned in a real situation, with real difficulties and real responsibilities, and because in addition it involves certain concomitant learnings of high value, in the form of experiences in cooperation, the development of attitudes of helpfulness, of service, of appreciation of labor, and all of these under the impulse of a genuinely purposeful and selfpurposed activity. For Kern's big boys (and girls too) already out of school, it is a distinctly desirable opportunity. Even for his big boys and girls yet in the district school it is of great value, though it is regrettable that it is divorced from and therefore does not reinforce, nor is reinforced by, the child's other learning. The excessive emphasis on the economical values and the skills and knowledges involved tends to crowd out the aesthetic values, the appreciations; and the remaining school studies, deprived of the fertile contacts of such a genuine activity are thereby and to that extent devitalized.

Most serious of all is the failure to differentiate functions for the various ages, from 10 to 20, included in the club membership range. To improve farm and home practices, to give training in agriculture and home economics, and to teach pride in occupation, may be legitimate purposes in work with boys and girls in the later teens, but they are certainly un-

¹ Departmental Circular, 248, Nov., 1922, p. 13.

² Departmental Circular, 192, Dec., 1921, p. 4.

³ Departmental Circular, 192, Dec., 1921, p. 5.

⁴ Departmental Circular, 312, July, 1924, p. 1.

⁵ Miscellaneous Circular 85, Department of Agriculture, Dec., 1926, p. 4.

⁶ *Ibid*, p. 6.

suitable for preadolescents and even for early adolescents. For these younger ranges, the danger lies in too early specialization, in undue limitations of horizon, in educational determination.

The position has of late years been so commonly accepted as to be almost an educational truism that preparation for a specific vocation has no place in the elementary school period, but only a wide range of insight-giving experiences and information about many vocations, as a basis for intelligent choice. In spite of this, however, one of the most recent publications of the extension service¹ recommends what may be colloquially termed catching them young, indicates earning of the apprenticeship type as the desirable method, and confines its suggestions for guidance, which it recognizes as a valid purpose, to a favorable presentation of agriculture as a vocation and the early development of faith in the Department as a source of information and help.

The United States Department of Agriculture and the land grant colleges are charged, under the Smith-Lever Act and in appropriations to the United States Department of Agriculture, with the task of teaching improved practices and standards in agriculture and home economics to rural people. * * * The task placed upon the department and the colleges is essentially an educational one and is continuous. It is recognized that when the state has an educational duty to perform, it is in accord with good teaching principles to begin with the youth of the country, rather than wait till they reach maturity. To this end boys' and girls' 4-H Club work has been organized throughout the United States.

Club work is learning by doing. It is in accord with the theory that the large majority of human beings learn primarily by observation and the apprenticeship method.

The particular value of club work is that it gets hold of young people while their minds are plastic and gives them guidance when they need it, teaches them some of the inspiring things in agriculture, and gives them a vision of its possibilities as a life job.

Four-H Clubs serve a distinctly useful purpose in bringing people in contact with cooperative extension work while they are yet young, so that when they later operate farms and farm homes for themselves, they will know the sources of agriculture and home economics information and help, and will have faith in them.

This vocalization of early education is advocated, be it noted, not on the basis of a soundly reasoned judgment that such a plan is best for the child, but because it seems the most promising means for performing a task laid upon a federal department by a federal congress.

The aims indicated above—improvement of adult practice through boys' and girls' demonstrations, and vocational training, with somewhat limited vocational guidance, of the boys and girls themselves, have been consistently maintained from the beginning with only slight variations, in the publications of the national Department in Washington. Wide differences in point of view and in conception of function have been shown in various state publications. Considerable latitude being permitted to the state and county agents, the more ambitious or energetic of them have extended

¹ Miscellaneous Circular 77, Department of Agriculture, December, 1926.

their enterprises from the original one of improving mere agricultural and home making practices to include, "the finer and more significant things of rural life," whatever that phrase may mean; and 4-H Clubs, "originally created for the purpose of soil conservation,"¹ may undertake to guide home recreational reading, promote the appreciation of music, direct hot lunches in the rural school, and even concern themselves with the improvement of the three R's—all with little required professional preparation of club leaders for the responsible work of general education, especially in the elementary field.

Unquestionably such activities as these are more appropriate for children from ten to twelve or fourteen years of age than narrow, highly specialized training in vocational proficiency. But that they should become part of the 4-H clubs' field is a perilous notion. On the one hand, is the vocational specialist or the lay volunteer leader qualified to undertake or direct general educational work? And, on the other, what is to become of the rural schools, in this day of education through activities, if its potential situations for educational projects are one by one to be taken over for exploitation by another agency?

Indeed, it is a serious question whether the extension agents should have any directive part in educational activities with boys and girls of school age. There are fine possibilities of cooperation for the benefit of school children between the extension service and the school, the former aiding the teacher with specialist's knowledge, with the inspiration that an occasional visit from an outsider brings, and with coordinated instruction of mothers, as for example in a county health program. But the public school is the fundamental agency for general and vocational education of children compulsory up to the age of 14, or 16, or 18, according to the state, and the presence of a coordinate educational agency, dealing with the same children, must inevitably cause more or less friction, uneconomical learning, waste motion, or even interference.

One type of such interference is to be found in the assumption and promulgation on the part of club agents of the idea that the school is of necessity a barren lifeless place, suited only for abstract learning, dry facts, book learning, and the pouring in process, whereas, to "see education at its best," as an astonishing editorial in a recent issue of the *N. E. A. Journal*² put it, one must go out "to where a fine lad and his father and a boys' club leader stand in mutual admiration of a cow that the lad has raised." Parenthetically, I am curious to know how the *Journal*, which is supposed to be the mouthpiece of the united public school forces of the United States, has been persuaded that "education at its best" is performed, not by the school at all, but by the "extension service of the Department of Agriculture."

As a matter of fact this is not "education at its best," and the work of the school must inevitably suffer if schoolmen so regard it. Such an

¹ Miscellaneous Circular No. 85, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Dec., 1926, p. 1.

² *Journal of the National Education Association*, Feb., 1928, p. 52.

evaluation is based upon an inadequate conception of education through activities, a conception far inferior to that which Dewey expressed in *The School and Society*. In that tiny volume upon which so large a part of modern educational theory and advanced practice is based, and which unquestionably inspire at least part of the early school clubs, Dewey emphasized as the revolutionary difference between the old education and the new a shift in the center of gravity from something outside the child to the child himself.¹

He described an ideal home, wherein the child learned through the social converse and constitution of the family, participated in household occupations, had a miniature laboratory in which his inquiries could be directed and a workshop in which to work out his constructive interests. He further conceived the life of the child in this ideal home as extending out of doors to the garden, fields, and forests, through excursions, walks, and talks. But having delineated all this, he added that even in the ideal home the occupations and relationships are not specially selected for the growth of the child, the main object being something else, and what the child can get out of them being incidental. Hence, said he, the need of a school, wherein the life of the child becomes the all-controlled aim.²

The great thing to keep in mind regarding the introduction into the school of various forms of active occupation, is that through them the entire spirit of the school is renewed. It has a chance to affiliate itself with life, to become the child's habitat, where he learns through directed living; instead of being only a place to learn lessons having an abstract and remote reference to some possible living to be done in the future.³

Insofar as a conception of education through activities which falls short of this ideal is promulgated and accepted, to just that extent is the potential service of the school weakened and voided.

Another hurt to the educational work of the school is illustrated by the evidence that the Four-H type of work is regarded to be meeting well the child's educational needs. As long as school authorities or the public at large are persuaded that the needs of the child are being adequately supplied as through the Four-H club, it naturally follows that they will take no steps to improve the situation. Club work under the U. S. Extension Service has the form and many of the earmarks of highly satisfactory education, but as a matter of fact, it is only a half loaf of bread, even for the very small proportion of the school population to whom it is available.

It was toward the provision of a whole loaf for all that our country schools were moving a quarter of a century ago. It seems to me a fact of serious import that this movement for the vitalization of rural public school education through the introduction of active occupations, should have been stunted, if not actually starved to death, for lack of adequate financial support, whereas, cuckoo-like, the similar enterprise, but for an

¹ Dewey. *The School and Society*, p. 51.

² From Dewey, *The School and Society*, pp. 35-38.

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 31, 32.

economic end, should have waxed fat and almost altogether crowded the former out.

That this has been the case is traceable directly to financial support, or the lack of it. Club work has been subsidized by federal funds, duplicated, or more than duplicated, by state funds. It is one of those mysteries that are past finding out why the rights of the states to direct and control the education of their own children are compatible with federal subsidies for agricultural extension agents, whose purpose is an economic one, and who regard boys and girls and their potentially educative activities primarily as means to adult development, whereas these same state's rights are menaced by federal aid for public school education in financially handicapped regions, and by a federal Secretary of Education to represent the development of the nation's children equally with the development of its animal and vegetable crops, its soldiers and its ships.

I wonder what our rural schools would be today if they, instead of the agricultural extension service, had been subsidized for the past fourteen years to "acquaint boys and girls with the material and social environment (all of it, not merely its vocational and economic phases) in order that every avenue of knowledge might be opened to them (rather than a few agricultural lines), and every incipient power (not merely vocational skills) receive appropriate cultivation,"¹ all this with the help and guidance that might have been rendered by a national Department of Education.

It is a startling fact that the club enrolments include a very small percent of these out-of-school young people. Of a presumably random sampling of about 3000 rural boys and girls in 4-H clubs studied by the Department in 1926, less than 5 percent were not enroled in school. If these data are indeed representative, less than 30,000 of the 3,000,000 out-of-school rural youth are club members.

Why is this so? If for nearly a decade it has been known that every agricultural county has so great an excess of out of school youth over the number for whom any club agent can provide, why have not the efforts of the extension service been concentrated upon these young people, needing some form of continuation education, likely to be attracted by the social features of a club, and of sufficient age to make the highly vocational nature of club work quite suitable for them? Is it perhaps because the children enroled in school are more easily accessible, and larger groups can be readily assembled and so more easily utilized to promote the agricultural program? Such a reason as this is stated to be the case in one demonstration agent's report, printed in a recent circular of the Department: "These health clubs were started with the idea of organizing the clubs around the community instead of around the school as a center. Because of the difficulty in getting the scales for weighing and because of the interest shown by teachers, school nurses, and superintendents of schools, practically all the health clubs have been organized in connection with the schools."²

¹ See Harris, opus cit.

² Circular 314, Home Demonstration Work, 1922, U. S. Department of Agriculture, June, 1924, p. 9.

This, however, is not extension education, but rather dual direction of the education of in-school children. We have here, however, but another aspect of the fundamental fact that the meeting of the educational needs of youth is not the end and aim of the work, the degree and kind of attention to boys and girls being determined rather by extent and facility to which they may be used to contribute to a general community program.

Recently, however, the extension service has expressed a recognition of the needs of these out-of-school boys and girls. In a Department circular issued in December, 1926, a plea is made especially to reach and guide through club work the boy and girl who have dropped out of school, and the suggestion is made that we might well adjust our educational system to consist of two parts, the teaching of those in school and the teaching of those out of school.

Doubtless as an outcome of this plea, Senator Capper has recently introduced into the National Congress a bill to increase the Smith-Lever funds by \$500,000 each year for the next five years to extend 4-H work so as more adequately to provide for the 3,000,000 rural boys and girls now out of school.

It would seem that this is an opportune time to evaluate carefully the whole club program. Should the extension service be taking a directive part in the education of any boys and girls in school, or should it for these serve in only advisory capacity, affording specialist information for the school agents and maintaining a cooperative attitude toward the development of educative activities in and through the school, but focusing its responsible direction upon the out-of-school youth?

Just what is the place of the 4-H Club in the American system of public education? What aims are appropriate respectively for the various types of members it at present includes: Elementary school pupils; pupils enrolled in high schools; boys and girls beyond the compulsory education age who have not completed a high school course, but are not enrolled in any school; and youth who have completed high school? What part of the program for various ages should be under the direction of the United States Department of Agriculture and what part under the several state departments of education? What part is it desirable that the agricultural extension workers play in the state educational programs?

Should not the school forces and the federal extension service unite in a critical review of the whole provision made today for the education of rural boys and girls, especially those living on farms? Important factors have changed in the past quarter of a century. Only in more backward sections are normal boys and girls in their later teens to be found in district schools. Longer terms and accessible high schools have very much altered the constitution of the rural school's enrolment. There is a widespread impetus to recognize and make adequate provision for rural elementary education in both consolidated and one-teacher schools. The Smith-Hughes law has made provision for vocational in-school education. The large number of out-of-school youth who still remain are, because of

advance in compulsory education, mainly in the later teen ages. National farm practice is today in no such need of improvement as was the case when Smith-Lever work was first started, and all signs point to a far greater importance of general education for farm youth than was recognized by rural education writers fifteen years ago. If anything is certain, it would seem to be that a decade-old program for state and national cooperation in the education of farm youth could not be the best program for today. Our problem as educators, all of us, is to get together and set up a modern plan that will assure to all the farm children the best all-round education we can give them with all the money we can induce the nation and the states to spend on them.

THE RURAL SCHOOL'S CONTRIBUTION TO OUR NATION'S CITIZENSHIP—ABSTRACT

WEBSTER H. PEARCE, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION,
LANSING, MICH.

THE American people need to be aroused to the great contributions that the rural schools have made to the strength and perpetuity of the nation and to the danger to the republic if the educational opportunities of the youth of the country are less than those enjoyed by the city children.

Rural children are not the assets of the country district alone but are the assets of the whole state and the nation and the whole state and nation should accept the challenge of the present situation and guarantee to all our children an equal educational opportunity without confiscatory taxation upon our farming communities. The resources exist with which these equal opportunities may be provided if they are but adequately marshalled and employed. The rural schools have contributed moral power, character, the determination to do right, as well as many material things, to the nation's welfare and will continue to do so if our people will but accept the rural challenge of the times.

Our rural leadership of today may have come originally from the country but as I know this leadership now it has in general gotten as far from farm life as conveniently possible. I am not unmindful of the strength and devotion of this leadership and that existing conditions often make necessary that this leadership live in the city but I am quite of the opinion that a leadership that reaches out its hand from city life to country lads and lasses cannot be as effective as a leadership that walks arm in arm by their side under rural conditions.

I covet for this leadership the courage and insight to rightly direct the rural education of this generation that the rich contributions that have been made in the years that are past by the rural schools may continue unreduced. I firmly believe that this nation's continued spiritual prosperity depends upon the continued welfare of urban and rural folk living

happily and contented in equality. Any nation that looks forward must look forward with the children.

Our challenge is that we as teachers help our nation to look forward with all the children in both the city and rural schools.

AN APPRECIATION OF PAST LEADERS IN RURAL CITIZENSHIP

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It is well for us who are vitally interested in helping solve the most difficult problem ever presented to our American people—the battle of rural life to save itself from centralizing and exploitation processes—to pause for a few minutes to pay tribute to those who saw and then fought for the vision. Fortunate, indeed, is it for any nation to have seers who recognize problems at the crossroad and then do valiant service to produce a proper solution.

Once we were wholly an agricultural nation; now we are largely industrial. Once we were a democracy economically as well as governmentally. Through the years our nation has developed various interests that have built about them laws for their special benefit. Vast sums of money and strong organizations have developed tremendous legislative powers that have produced unlimited success for the industries and occupations concerned. The Adamson law has aided the workmen; the Esch-Cummins law the railroads; multitudinous federal and state laws, the utilities; the federal tariff law, the manufacturer; the Federal Reserve Act, the banks; etc., etc. But the margins must be paid and are always paid by the unorganized, noncooperative groups. The most notable of all groups of this type is the farmer. At the source of the economic stream he finds the results of his labor drawn off to other reservoirs than his own to the point that his own is constantly low. Costs and added margins of profit are passed on until they reach the farmer and he must pay. Mother Earth pays all the bills ultimately.

Schools have added to this development by pointing students to higher callings implying, if not stating, that the white collared job ranks higher than that of producing food from the earth. Seventy percent of our population are now in the cities and thirty percent, suffering from lack of leaders, are keeping the soil for us all. If they do this job badly, starvation lies around some corner; if they have the opportunity to do it well, our hopes are assured.

Four splendid souls have sensed this situation and have tried to make education serve in staying this migration from soil to city and to vouchsafe for rural folk a fair share of the economic wealth they produce that they may have a decent standard of living with modern comforts and con-

veniences. I name Jason S. Hoffman, Eli M. Rapp, Ina Barnes, and Macy Campbell.

Jason S. Hoffman was born in the year 1859 and died from the effects of an operation September 3, 1927. For forty-eight years he served Hunterdon County, New Jersey, sixteen years as a teacher and thirty-two years as county superintendent.

His education was obtained in the Hunterdon County public schools and Rutgers College, from which school he graduated in 1879. His leadership was so pronounced that Commissioner Kendall chose him to direct an experiment in rural school supervision. Today his county has three helping teachers and the whole state is committed to the policy. For a number of years his county has been used by Columbia University as an educational laboratory. This use of Hunterdon County brought him and his work into international prominence.

He established rural school festivals, better language clubs, and the Hunterdon County Health Club. His activities were marked by their practical and direct influence on the life of the children.

He fought for a distribution of school funds on the basis of school attendance rather than ratables. In this fight he was not successful but the state board did adopt this method in distributing the ten percent reserve fund. This policy gave Hunterdon County an increase in annual income of from \$70,000 to \$80,000. Consolidation of rural schools was another policy dear to his heart. In this work his success was marked.

He was a member of the Department of Superintendence, National Rural Education Association, The New Jersey Council of Education, The State School Masters' Club, The American Country Life Association, The Rotary Club, and the Presbyterian Church.

Eli M. Rapp was born March 20, 1865, and died in Reading, Pennsylvania, in 1926. He was educated in the Berks County, Pennsylvania, schools and the Keystone State Normal School, graduating from the Normal in 1886. He taught ten years and then served for thirty years as superintendent of the Berks County schools.

He was a member of many associations and clubs. It is interesting to note that he was a member of the Farm Bureau and was an active worker and counsellor in this organization.

He was an honest, tireless worker, cultured, practical, never satisfied, but always craving the better part just ahead, and a lover of his country. His selfreliance made him a sturdy leader, a wise counsellor, and genial companion.

Ina G. Barnes was born in Washington, D. C., December 11, 1876, and died of paralysis at her sister's home in Weston, West Virginia, January 19, 1924.

Miss Barnes was the product of the public schools of West Virginia, the West Virginia Conference Seminary, West Virginia Wesleyan College and Columbia University. She was adjudged by mental equipment and

academic preparation to be one of four or five of the national leaders in rural education in her day.

She taught in the schools of Buckhannon, was a supervisor of instruction three years in the Williamson, West Virginia, schools, taught three years in the Glenville Normal, was supervisor of rural instruction in Newcastle County, Delaware, for a time and then, in August, 1923, she entered the service of the General Education Board of the Rockefeller Foundation as supervisor of rural education in LaGrange County, Indiana. Death cut short her service in Indiana and she had merely begun her work when she was taken from us. Although she had only begun her work she made a tremendous impression on her new community and made a place second to none in the hearts of the people.

In addition to her teaching and supervisory work she made a notable contribution to the literature on rural education in her *Rural School Management* (1923). The text shows a keen comprehension of the field; her method of presentation is clear, concise, concrete, and filled with a human and inspirational element that makes the book helpful to beginners and experienced teachers alike. She defines the field of rural education accurately, expresses the modern viewpoint and keeps in mind always the prospective rural teacher. Her *Rural School Methods* was unfinished at the time of her death.

Macy Campbell—The gods must have been pleased at the birth of Macy Campbell for, from the beginning, whatever he set his mind to had purpose and prospered. Then, saddest proof of all that they loved him, they claimed him at the youthful age of forty-seven. He died April 16, 1926, at Macon, Georgia, while on duty, having done a strenuous day's work on the previous day and was looking forward to the morrow filled with duties. But he was stricken and the waiting duties have never been performed. Before high noon a master mind passed from us and a world of work he intended to do was left for those of us who remain.

Macy Campbell loved nature, he loved his work, and, most of all, he loved agriculture. In this basic occupation he saw the chief sources of our material and spiritual developments. Honesty, thrift, industry, and all the cardinal moral qualities were for him products of man's working with the earth.

Macy Campbell attended Cedar Falls Normal and graduated from that institution in 1903. In 1915 he returned to his Alma Mater as head of the rural education department. For twelve years he labored incessantly for the development of his department. His success was so marked that he and his work are known from one end of the United States to the other.

Of the many associational connections he had, I name two. He was president of the Iowa State Teachers Association and chairman of the Rural Department of the National Education Association.

His *Rural Life at the Crossroads* is a classic and sounds the depths of our modern agricultural problem. It should and, no doubt, will be of fundamental assistance in solving this most irritating social problem. His book on Cooperative Marketing was left unfinished by his untimely death.

A STATE PROGRAM IN CITIZENSHIP FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

E. C. GRIFFEN, EXECUTIVE SECRETARY, YOUNG CITIZENS LEAGUE, PIERRE, S. DAK.

In June, 1924, the present plan for a state organization of grade school children for character education and practical citizenship training was presented by the speaker to the county superintendents at their annual meeting. The plan was adopted unanimously, and briefly is as follows:

1. The state superintendent is ex-officio state chairman of the organization and shall appoint, subject to the approval of the county superintendents, an executive state secretary to direct and supervise the work of the League.
2. The county superintendent is the county chairman and directs the work in the county.
3. The teacher is the adviser in the school in which a chapter is organized.
4. Each school in which a chapter is organized receives a charter; but certain definite requirements must be met before a charter is granted.

It is the simplicity of the plan that has made the organization a success. The League is beyond the experimental stage and is now a well established part of our grade school program. There has been a very rapid growth in number of chapters and in the membership since the state organization plan was adopted. The annual report shows for 1925-26, 1561 chapters with a membership of 30,000; for 1926-27, 3415 chapters with a membership of 60,092; for 1927-28, the report will show approximately 4000 chapters with about 75,000 members. The report for this year, however, is not entirely completed.

Up to the close of this school year, the boys and girls of the Young Citizens League have completed the following:

1. In 1926 two counties held conventions to outline the work of the county. In 1927 fifty-one counties held a convention, and in 1928 fifty-seven counties of the sixty-four counties of the state held similar conventions.
2. In April, 1927 the organization held its first state convention in the House of Representatives at the Capitol at which forty-five counties were represented. In April, 1928 the second annual convention was held with fifty-five counties represented by three delegates and the county chairman from each county.
3. Fifty-seven counties edit a county Young Citizens League newsletter monthly.
4. A code of ethics for young citizens has been adopted.
5. A new song, "The Y. C. L. March Song," has been secured through a contest. The music, written by Richard Broughton of Sioux Falls is very pretty and well within the range of childrens' voices. The words were written by

Major Joseph Mills Hansen of Yankton, South Dakota, and have an excellent theme that is surely appreciated by the children.

6. A state wide program for fire prevention was carried out last fall in co-operation with the state fire marshal's office.

7. Last spring the Young Citizens League in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture put over a state wide educational program on black stem rust and the common barberry through an original speaking contest in which from 6000 to 7000 grammar grade boys and girls were entered.

8. Twenty-seven thousand trees and shrubs were planted on the school grounds of the state last year by the organization.

9. Approximately \$83,000 in project work not counting labor was completed last year by the League in the purchase of library books, playground equipment, water supply, musical instruments, pictures, etc.

A completely revised manual is now being prepared on the work of the organization and will include the complete constitution and bylaws of the League. The manual will be ready for use this fall.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OTHER THAN THE SCHOOL TO THE RURAL CITIZEN—ABSTRACT

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The ideal citizen is the stuff of which democracy is made. He would not fit an autocracy, for he is not himself an autocrat, nor is he one of the dumb driven herd. He is active, constructive, using his powers to improve the world in which he lives. He is jealous in guarding his rights and generous in respecting the rights of others. His contribution to welfare may be large or small, depending on his abilities and the use which he makes of them. Moral worth as a citizen is measured by willingness and effort. Capacity as a citizen is measured by quality and quantity of contribution to human welfare. Ability to think accurately from facts to conclusions must be reinforced by sane sympathy with fellow citizens, and courage to shape action for the public good. Citizenship is an attitude of mind and will, a skill in human relationship. In the legal sense citizenship comes through nativity, or by act of court. In its largest meaning, true citizenship cannot be established by status of birth, nor can it be conferred by act of court or legislature. It is the result of growth into proper human relationship; it is an achievement.

We think of the school as developing interests and attitudes during the school years; this and much more. But the school seldom has the child-citizen under its control more than six hours each day for five days a week for three-fourths of the weeks each year, and for the rest of the time other forces—chiefly persons—are making character for good or ill. At the end of the period of responsibility divided between home and school, the majority of our youth enter adult life as wage-earners, assuming and claiming the status of adulthood and becoming contributors, by productive effort, to the

life of society. Too often this breaking away from the school and assumption of adulthood is accepted as evidence that education is completed. From the time of birth to the assumption of economic independence, the infant-citizen, child-citizen, or youth-citizen lives in an adult-made and adult-regulated world. Forces which he does not understand and cannot control bear upon him all the time. The rural school feels particularly the hand of the adult, and it is a conservative hand, as compared with that of the city. Rural youth are thus subjected to the first-hand dictation of their elders while at home, and to the second-hand dictation of their elders while in school. And when the youth in his turn becomes adult and begins to regulate his own children, the stamp which he places on them is much like that which was placed on him. If the original stamp was good, and not too obstructive to progress, this was well; if the original was poor, the perpetuation of its poorness is fairly assured. We are thus dealing with a stream of citizenship, not with isolated units.

Offsetting this tendency toward conservatism in the rural school system through which the children are led, the children themselves are surprisingly clever in making contact with the happenings of modern times. No period of the world's history has shown such bewildering and even terrifying changes as the present period. Every part of the country, every sector of society, every type of industry, every phase of the social and religious relationship, is in process of change. A citizenship adequate for the needs of a primitive and unchanging culture, in which the first years of life teach all that is ever learned and the skills of the people show no change in centuries, will not suffice here. We are swept along in the onrush of change; our hope is that as new needs and perils and opportunities arise, we can master new skills and new fields of knowledge and new capacities of planning and selfdirection so that we may in fair measure control the tide of change and shape it to wise ends. This is deliberately planning the direction of cultural change; it is conscious evolution; it challenges the best in citizenship; it can be accomplished only by persistent education.

Institutions Which Contribute to Rural Citizenship

The home was the first educational institution. Before priest or soldier or teacher appeared in the fabric of social organization to assume teaching responsibility, the child learned from his parents. The first piece of educational legislation in America, so far as I am aware, was a simple act by the Great and General Court of the Massachusetts Bay Colony that all children must be educated, and was based on the assumption that this would be done largely in the home.

The church—One cannot fail to be impressed, while reading the Old Testament, with the code for citizenship which had developed before the period of the Hebrew Kings. Worship of Jehovah held first place, but a part of the worship of Jehovah consisted in right relationship with fellow-men. Jesus made service to fellowmen the real test. "Inasmuch as ye

have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me." Many in this audience and millions in this country are unable to remember a time when they did not attend church on Sunday or when their parents did not speak reverently of the church as the embodiment of all things right and good. Insofar as the church, by fellowship and teaching and ritual, inspires men and women to desire the truly finer things of life and sends them out to better human relationships, it contributes to citizenship. However, sectarianism has waged such bitter battles, particularly in rural areas, that the effective religion of Jesus has been obscured in most un-Christian conflicts. The changed economic status of country life has left many little churches so weak that they sap more strength from their communities than they can possibly give back. Insofar as the church dulls the citizen's discernment between right and wrong by forbidding or discouraging fearless thought from evidence to conclusions, or lulls men and women to the complacent acceptance of remediable wrongs in personal life or social structure, it weakens citizenship.

The library—The last available statistics from the American Library Association report forty-two million rural people in the United States with no library service except that of the state library. One thousand one hundred thirty-five counties in the United States have no public libraries. We require, in most states, that the rural youth shall learn to read, yet leave 83 percent of our rural people without accessible library service. It may be argued that papers and periodicals make good this deficiency. We should certainly be thankful for any good literature in any homes, and the kinds of publications that reach the farm homes are, on the whole, good rather than bad. As compared with city homes they are a drab average; both the best and the worst magazines are missing from the country list. But making allowances for papers and magazines, there is still a pathetic and alarming lack in the means for intellectual growth. An uninformed and unthinking democracy is in peril. Books furnish the raw fact-material for thought, for true intellectual growth and development. Rural library service is not a luxury; it is an urgently needed insurance for the safe functioning of democracy.

The colleges—The group of collegiate institutions includes the universities, the liberal arts, the technical and normal colleges, and the professional schools, all of which give opportunity to rural youth for selfdevelopment through study. They send back to country life men and women who by reason of their training are able to make larger contributions to the enrichment of country life, and this in turn, means broader citizen consciousness.

I omit detailed mention of the contributions of the press, the radio, and the movies. These are both good and bad, but are enormous.

Voluntary organizations of many kinds make incalculable contributions to the rural citizen. They take informational material from the extension services, rework it in terms of local interest or need, and give it wide dis-

semination in the community. They give opportunity for member-activity and member-responsibility. They are not only channels through which facts may reach the attention of citizens; they are battlefields of individual opinion from which collective judgment develops and becomes articulate.

Good citizenship requires that the citizen possess character-qualifications of honesty, breadth of mind and sympathy, cooperativeness, courage and forcefulness. In addition it requires that the citizen possess intelligence and the ability to think from facts to sound conclusions. The development of character is a life-long process of education, only a part of which can occur in the school. The supplying of sound facts to the mature citizen and the encouragement of sound thought-processes are tasks that challenge all the forces and institutions of adult education, and particularly those agencies which can in the main be made effective only by the effort of the rural citizens themselves because they are, in essence, the rural citizenship in collective action.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS TO THE NATION'S CITIZENSHIP

CHLOE C. BALDRIDGE, DIRECTOR OF RURAL EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, LINCOLN, NEBR.

As educators working in the field of rural education, let us recognize our great responsibilities and opportunities and strive to add our contribution to our nation's citizenship by stressing better supervision of more efficient teaching in the best type of rural schools with better equipment secured by means of greater cooperation of home and school for better trained boys and girls.

Our responsibility is better schools for boys and girls. The public school and the educators of this country must continue to be dedicated to the great task of training for good citizenship. Character education is the primary purpose of the curriculum.

In order that we may secure the active cooperation of the parents and interest them in working for the highest advantages in mental, moral, physical, and spiritual education, the state department of public instruction is cooperating with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers in conducting a demonstration of rural parent-teacher association work. Leadership and cooperation are needed in the rural districts in order to solve the great problems of rural education. Educational progress is in direct proportion to the public opinion of the community. In order to provide better educational advantages, improved public sentiment is necessary.

Some of the definite accomplishments that have been achieved by the rural parent-teacher associations are: A better spirit of cooperation between parents and teachers in their districts; health work; health conferences; hot lunches; medical inspection and improvement of health of chil-

dren; Summer Round-Up; purchasing of school equipment; improved buildings; improved playgrounds; libraries; a community Sunday school; aiding Chatauqua; and standard and superior rural schools.

We have caught a vision this afternoon from the preceding speakers of what can be contributed and what has been contributed by the rural schools and rural leaders—of what can be accomplished by teaching citizenship in the rural schools, what can be accomplished through a county wide program in citizenship and a state wide program of Young Citizens' Leagues, and of the contributions of educational institutions other than the school. Dr. Foght has given us a vision of the new kind of school. We have the vision—and we cannot always stay on the mountain peaks at this convention. In order to accomplish worthwhile results it is necessary to return to the valleys—there is no more fertile field where there is need for actual work than in the rural schools. The most important function of the public schools of today is that of giving every American child the opportunity to develop and train himself so that he will be capable of filling his part as a citizen of the Republic and as a man of competent service in the world.

EXISTING AND POTENTIAL STATE SOURCES OF RURAL SCHOOL REVENUE

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The wording of the topic suggests that there is at least a possibility that some state school financing programs already include or contemplate finding special sources of revenue for the support of rural schools. Thirty out of thirty-two state superintendents, responding to a questionnaire as to such special sources, indicate that there are none, and two did not answer. To the question whether any such special sources were likely to be developed, twenty-three answered "No," seven did not answer, and two answered "Yes." However, further comment by these two indicated that the sources which were to be developed contemplated state school funds in general and not rural school funds alone.

To the query, "Do you think there should be any special state sources from which revenue for rural education should come?" thirteen responded "No;" three "Yes;" and sixteen did not answer.

To the question, "Do you think rural schools should share equally in all state school funds?" eighteen responded "Yes;" three of these qualifying by using "equitably" instead of "equally;" one stated that rural schools should have more; thirteen did not answer.

The net conclusion which may be drawn from these replies seems to be that there is not now nor should there be any special type of tax devoted purely to rural schools, but that the funds for rural schools should come with other state school revenues from a common source.

Many economists go even farther, and suggest that there should be no special type of tax even for all school purposes, but that schools should merely share with other public services in public revenue. Of course there is another side to this question—namely, that certain public services should derive their support from those individuals or tax sources which are most served or profited thereby, as for example, that a gasoline tax should support the roadbuilding program. By the same argument, it may well be contended that a personal and corporation income tax should support public education, since it is fairly well established that incomes both personal and corporate are profited by the educational process. Briefly, education enables individuals to increase their incomes, and also so raises their standard of living as to cause them to demand products of corporations, whose income is thus enlarged. Assuming then that school taxes should all be raised as a unit from common sources, we may turn to the question as to how they are and perhaps should be raised. Probably tax sources is a problem for the economist fundamentally, but since education takes so large a share of public funds, perhaps educators may be pardoned for showing more interest in this matter; even though their opinions may not be entirely conclusive. Hence my questionnaire contained a list of possible tax sources, with the request that they be checked to indicate three classifications—(1) Those at present used; (2) present and satisfactory; (3) highly desirable.

Under the first group general property taxes were most often checked, with corporation, inheritance, income, and gasoline having scattering mention in about the order named. Under the second group it was interesting to note that only three of the thirty-two responses indicated satisfaction with the general property taxes, with just as many votes for gasoline and tobacco taxes. Why should a tax on general property be favored? It is a relic of the days when a man's sole wealth lay in homestead and herds. With wealth made up as it is today, of stocks, bonds, mortgages, etc., and with the obvious difficulties in the way of taxing these, how can personal property be a fair basis of taxation? In the third group, those regarded by the superintendents as highly desirable, severance, corporation, income, luxury, inheritance, gasoline, production, and sales tax were mentioned in frequency about as listed.

Severance taxes seem to be gaining in popularity. They are levied on the natural resources of a state as these are depleted. Logically it would seem that their proceeds should be used to increase the capital of state permanent school funds so that at least the income from them may be available even after the natural wealth upon which they were once levied may have been removed from the state. Examples are taxes on ores, coal, forests, etc.

Corporation and income taxes are next in number of times mentioned. Corporation taxes can be shifted along the line, but personal income taxes stay put. The argument for these taxes to support education has already been made. The income tax is about as fair as any, although there should

probably be a distinction made between labor income and investment income, the latter to carry the higher rate.

Gasoline, inheritance, and luxury taxes were next in order of frequency. The first seems practically fair as a means of supporting a road program. The inheritance tax seems socially fair, since it taxes an estate in transition from the one whose ingenuity or labor or foresight, presumably, produced it, to those, presumably, and in most cases, actually, who have had no part in its accumulation. That it should be applied especially to the support of schools might be argued from the standpoint of constructive philanthropy, and by analogy with the living wish of many people of wealth to employ their means in the support of educational institutions. However, the argument does not seem so clear as that for the income tax. The tax on luxuries is really a tax on surplus funds. As such it appears to be eminently just, if ability to pay is a tax-criterion. That it should be applied to the support of education is not so clear.

A production tax was next in order of frequency of mention. It would propose to levy upon grains, fruit, dairy and poultry products, cattle, lumber, ores, etc., rather than upon the land used in the production of these commodities. Thus the producer of raw materials would pay only in proportion to his production, and would thus be relieved of the terrific strain which farmers, lumbermen, miners, fishermen, etc., now must undergo when, for one reason or another, production falls off and they must still pay taxes on property which is relatively unproductive. It has, perhaps, limitations, but, as a substitute for some of the personal property taxes on producers of raw materials, it appears to have some merit. When levied on ores and virgin timber, it is, of course, really a severance tax.

The sales tax has many points in its favor. It is universal and easily collected; the large spender pays more taxes; but, at present, at least, it appears to strike hardest the producer of raw materials. As basic taxes, measured against almost any of the criteria of good taxing plans, a combination of the sales and a rapidly graduated income tax represents almost ideal taxation.

I shall try to summarize general methods of state school fund apportionment, classify attempts at equalization adjustments, and list the various kind of special aid especially affecting rural education.

A. General Aid:

- I. Apportionment on the basis of enumeration is the most common method. Thirty of the forty-eight states employ it as a factor in apportionment. Ten of these use it as the sole plan.
- II. Apportionment on the basis of aggregate attendance. Eight states employ this plan.
- III. Apportionment on the basis of average daily attendance. Eight states use this in one form or another.
- IV. Apportionment on the basis of the district or school. Six states use this plan.
- V. Apportionment on the basis of teachers employed. This operates as a factor in ten states.

- VI. Apportionment on the basis of teachers allowed, occurs in five states.
- VII. Apportionment on the basis of a percentage of the teacher's salary occurs in three states.

B. Equalization Adjustment Classified—The reason for considering equalization aid in a separate section from other forms of general aid is, not that the other forms do not have equalizing effects under certain conditions and to a greater or less degree, but rather that all but three of the forty-eight states have felt it necessary to include special "equalization adjustments," or to extend these other forms with the specific intention of effecting more nearly complete equalization as follows:

- I. Equalization through Recognition of "Constructive" bases for granting aid.
- II. Equalization through recognition of the teacher as the major factor in school costs, and assignment of relatively large amounts on the teacher basis.
- III. Equalization through recognition of need as determined by valuation, and apportionments inversely proportional thereto.
 - a. Valuation of district or town as a whole.
 - b. Valuation per some unit of cost in the district.
- IV. Equalization through recognition of need as determined by tax rate to maintain schools.
 - a. Apportionment on graduated sliding scale.
 - b. Apportionment on failure of required tax rate to raise specified minimum required amount for maintenance.
 - c. Apportionment on failure of maximum required tax to raise unspecified required amount for maintenance.
 - 1. Budgetary determination.
 - 2. Discretionary determination.
- V. Equalization through larger administrative units.
 - a. The state.
 - b. The county.
 - 1. County budget.
 - 2. Discretionary action of the county board.
 - c. Special types of larger units.
- VI. Equalization through apportionment in inverse proportion to the number of schools in a town.

C. Special Aid for Rural Education:

- I. Special aid for the small school
- II. Special aid for consolidation of schools
- III. Special aid for transportation and board
- IV. Special aid for high schools
- V. Special aid for county high schools
- VI. Special aid for tuition of non-resident pupils
- VII. Special aid for rural supervision
- VIII. Special aid for rural and consolidated buildings
- IX. Special aid to stimulate standard rural schools

In summary, educators are not anxious, nor are they likely to be permitted to determine sources for school revenue; sources of revenue for rural schools should be one with those for schools in general; present sources of school funds have not proved entirely satisfactory; schoolmen have some ideas, but not many, regarding other desirable sources.

There must be no temporizing with this matter of equitable apportionment, since the effectiveness of rural education is so largely conditioned

thereby; since effective rural education is the brightest hope for solving the rural problem; and finally, since no nation has yet survived which has failed to maintain an independent, upstanding rural population.

FINANCING RURAL EDUCATION IN WISCONSIN

JOHN C. CALLAHAN, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
MADISON, WIS.

When Wisconsin was admitted to the Union in 1848, the framers of its constitution had a rosy dream in regard to the amount the state school fund was to furnish for the running of their schools. Section 4 of Article X provides—"Each town and city shall be required to raise by tax, annually, for the support of common schools therein a sum not less than one half the amount received by such town or city respectively for school purposes from the income of the school fund."

Carried out, that would have left the state financially back of the schools up to two-thirds of their annual cost. However, the school fund failed to reach proportions anything like the expectations of the framers of our constitution.

As a result the state never got further in their support than 9.7 percent until the later eighties, when they put on a mill tax as a result of which they reached 22.9 percent in 1890, the highest point ever reached.

They later cut the one mill tax to seven-tenths of a mill where it remained until the last session of the legislature. Owing to the increasing cost the percentage of the state's contribution kept slipping until it reached 9.5 percent in 1926.

From 1848 until 1885 every state superintendent was calling attention to the inequalities in the valuation of the various districts of the state. This probably resulted in the passage of the mill tax after which the agitation ceased until 1921.

In July, 1921, we started the agitation again and with it as a foundation a complete study of all the districts. This study culminated in the publication of a bulletin "Equalizing Educational Opportunity in Wisconsin." This proved, beyond question, that if we were going to equalize the cost some new method must be used in the distribution of the state funds and also that more funds must be provided by the state.

A constant canvass of the state for six years resulted in the passage by the legislature of Bill 432 A in the session of 1927.

This law uses as the basis of distribution the number of grade teachers needed and the valuation the district has to tax. It puts 250,000 of valuation back of each teacher (the average for the state was in 1927 about 280,000.) To illustrate how it works—take a district running a one-room school with a valuation of their own of 100,000. When they come to decide how much local tax to levy, they can figure that they will receive first \$250 from the state, which will be matched by the county. That

gives them \$500 to start with. If they decide they need \$1000 more to run their school, they will decide what rate will raise it on \$250,000. That is a four mill rate. They will then assess their own valuation a four mill rate and out of the state funds will be paid them a four mill rate on the balance of the \$250,000 or on \$150,000.

The first state aid will be figured under this law in December of this year, and every district in the state is being given now the figures on their valuation in order that they may plan for the year ahead.

STATE POLICIES IN RURAL SCHOOL FINANCE—OHIO ABSTRACT

A. G. YAWBERG, COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CUYAHOGA
COUNTY, CLEVELAND, OHIO

Originally all schools in Ohio were supported on the small district plan. Cities made the first departure. In 1899 the township unit was adopted. Then in 1914 a semi-county plan came into operation after a most hectic struggle. Under this latter plan with some modifications we now operate.

This plan provides for county control of educational matters such as courses of study and supervision. It retains local control of the school plant, material equipment, and local tax rates for schools.

The most interesting feature of this plan from the standpoint of school finances is an equalization tax rate. In the county school district which does not include cities and may not include villages with a population of three thousand, if they maintain a first grade high school there is levied a tax of 2.65 mills which is placed in a county school fund.

This Fund is distributed back to each local school district of the county school district as follows:

1. One half the costs of personal service for transportation of pupils.
2. Thirty-seven and one-half ($37\frac{1}{2}$) percent of all teachers' salaries up to a limit of \$2400 for any one teacher.
3. The remainder is distributed back to the districts so that each district gets the part which is determined by the ratio which the aggregate days of attendance in that district bears to the total aggregate attendance of the county.

This results in some districts in a large gain while others lose equally large amounts. The distribution is designed to and does encourage adequate transportation facilities, increased salaries for teachers, and a good attendance record. In addition to the county school district equalization fund we have a "State Week District Fund."

The distribution of this fund is placed in the hands of the state director of education who must set up the standards under which it may be received. Among the standards now in effect are the following:

1. The local district must provide an operating levy of at least eight mills with a total of at least $9\frac{1}{2}$ mills for all school purposes before state aid will be given.

2. At least eight months of school must be provided, but the state will not aid in providing more than eight months.

3. The following salary schedule and conditions must be adopted and used:

Experience	Elementary Teachers Training		High School Teachers Training		
	One Year	Two or More Years	Two Years	Three Years	Four Years
None.....	\$800	\$840	\$900	\$960	\$1200
One Year.....	840	900	900	1020	1280
Two Years.....	880	960	960	1080	1360
Three Years.....	920	1020	1020	1080	1400

Teachers shall not be employed at salaries in excess of the above rates except upon recommendation of the county, city or exempted village superintendent and the approval of the director of education. In adjusting salaries outside the above schedule the director of education will give consideration to attendance at summer school and long and successful classroom experience as factors in determining whether or not applications shall be approved. The amount of training recognized in the above schedule will be dependent upon the total of credits as evaluated by this department.

Principals of second, third grade, and junior high schools and principals of consolidated elementary schools may be employed at salaries fifty dollars per year in excess of the salaries provided for in the above schedule. Dependent upon required duties in such schools and by recommendation of the county superintendent and approval of the director of education more than fifty dollars may be allowed. Principals of first grade high schools may be employed at salaries in excess of the salary schedule with approval of the county superintendent and the director of education. No such principal shall receive more than \$1800. If difficulty arises in securing special teachers according to the above schedule they may be employed by the approval of the director of education at equitable salaries but in no case should salaries be requested higher than these listed for one year additional training and corresponding years of service.

The salaries of 4740 superintendents and of supervising principals of schools where the responsibility is equivalent to that of "4740" superintendents shall not exceed \$1800 except in cases of certain larger school units. In such cases by special permission of the director of education larger salaries may be paid but the salary of no such superintendent shall exceed \$2400. Salaries of superintendents and high-school principals of city, exempted village, "4740" and other school districts having three thousand or more population may be paid in excess of the schedule above indicated but only upon approval of the director of education.

State aid distribution will be made on the basis of what is a reasonable operating cost for the school term. Payment for high-school transportation will not be allowed except on recommendation of the county superintendent of schools and the approval of the director of education, in

which case a maximum allowance of eighty dollars per pupil per term may be allowed.

The total amount distributed this last year from the state fund was \$3,400,000 or about \$1.50 per pupil enrolled in the schools of the state.

It need not be said so evident is it that this fund is wholly inadequate. Many districts do not receive help that should have it. In many others teachers are from six months to nine months behind in receiving their salaries.

While it is not the purpose of this paper to suggest improved plans, yet it does not seem out of place to suggest a plan which has been widely discussed in Ohio and which seems to have much merit. Of course this plan does not go as far as some would like nor as far as logical conclusions suggest, which is that at the very least the state be made the unit for taxation for school purposes. Two chief dangers are in the way of such procedure at present:

1. There is at present no effective way in which such a large direct tax can be equitably collected and distributed.
2. People fear that such procedure would bring too much state control.

With our present governmental regulations both objections are well taken. In place of this the following is suggested:

Suggested Ohio State Aid Plan

1. The state should pay a minimum of one-third ($1/3$) of the operating cost per year per child enrolled in school. This tax should not be collected by state direct levy. It should be paid from indirect taxes, which can be much more easily and equitably collected.
2. There should be a county school district tax levy, which together with the amount paid by the state should be sufficient to pay all contingent, retirement, and tuition expenses in the several districts.
3. The local district should be required to levy such taxes as may be necessary for building and sinking fund purposes.

This recommendation has much in its favor—1. The state is in a position to pay one-third ($1/3$) the operating cost per year, per pupil enrolled, because the state unit is large enough to overcome the unequal distribution of wealth so noticeable in different districts.

2. This can be done without giving the state any greater control over the local management of schools.

3. The county school district tax for all but building and sinking fund purposes can be levied and collected without in any way interfering with the powers of local boards of education. Local boards of education generally do not now make levies for tuition, retirement or contingent expenses. They merely ask the Budget Commission for what money they need, but whether they get it or not depends upon what the budget commission can or cannot do under law.

This same process can be followed exactly as at present. The local board of education would still hire teachers, buy supplies; in fact, run

their schools exactly as they are doing now. The only difference would be that all citizens of the county district would be put on the same basis so far as paying for the cost of running the schools are concerned.

4. Each district could vote for and pay for such school buildings as it desired. If one district wishes to build a finer and larger building than some other district that can be done. If they wish to build on a more economical basis, they can do so without being required to help pay for a more expensive type of building in some other district.

In fact, this plan presents many, if not all, of the advantages of equalizing the cost of education without in any way interfering with local control. In principle, it is just to all and democratic in its operation.

STATE POLICIES IN RURAL SCHOOL FINANCE— MINNESOTA

ANNA SWENSON, DIRECTOR OF RURAL EDUCATION, STATE DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION, ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA.

In the act authorizing a state government for the state of Minnesota, passed February 26, 1857, it is provided that sections numbered 16 and 36 in every township shall be granted to the state for the use of schools.

The Constitution further provides that the proceeds of such lands shall remain in a perpetual school fund to the state and shall forever be preserved inviolate and undiminished; the income arising from the lease or sale of school lands shall be distributed to the different townships throughout the state in proportion to the number of scholars between the ages of 5 and 21 years. It can truly be said of the members of the State Constitutional Convention that they "built better than they knew." This permanent school fund has now increased to almost \$50,000,000, and a large part of it has been loaned to school districts at four percent interest for building purposes.

The State Constitution makes it the duty of the legislature also to establish a general and uniform system of public schools and to make provision, by taxation or otherwise, which, with the income from the permanent school fund, will secure an efficient system of public schools in every township of the state.

The legislature, in fulfilling this mandate, has made the schools local institutions, with some necessary state direction and some state support.

The state's contribution to this support comes from three funds:

1. The endowment fund which consists of the income from the permanent school fund, producing annually about \$1,900,000.
2. The current school fund, the amount derived from the state one-mill tax, producing annually about \$2,000,000.
3. The special state aid fund, appropriated biennially by the legislature from the general revenue fund of the state.

The first two funds are, in general, distributed together as apportionment on a per capita basis of pupils actually enrolled in public schools.

The purposes of special state aid are clearly stated in the law:

1. To assist in providing equal educational opportunities for all the school children of the state.
2. To assist in establishing certain generally accepted minimum standards for all the public schools of the state.
3. To assist school districts whose tax levies for maintenance are exceptionally high.
4. To stimulate educational progress by grants of state aid for superior efficiency and high standards and for desirable educational undertakings not yet generally established.
5. To provide for the maintenance of teacher training departments in high schools.

The last of these is specific in that it provides for the training of teachers for rural schools, supplementing the work of the teachers colleges. This amount is about \$212,000 a year, and is definitely a reimbursement to the high schools providing this training.

Two uses of state aid show the state's efforts at equalizing opportunity.

1. In order to make high-school education available to everyone, the state pays the tuition in high schools, at rates established by law, for children who live outside of high-school districts. This tuition is \$7 per month, per pupil, and amounted last year to \$1,083,400 for about 18,500 pupils.
2. To encourage larger school units for taxing areas, and better buildings and school organizations for rural people, building and transportation aid is granted to consolidated districts. This amounts to about \$860,000 a year. These consolidated districts also participate in other aids according to special work offered and the class of school to which each belongs.

The state's effort to equalize the burden of school costs is found in the Supplemental Aid law. It provides, in brief, that when a district has levied a 20 mill tax, and yet fails to raise forty dollars per pupil enrolled, the state will pay the balance to that amount. There was paid, under this law last year, from the special state aid fund, about \$1,555,000 to almost seven hundred districts, rural and urban, out of our approximate eight thousand school districts. Of this amount \$427,500 was paid to rural schools.

Between one-third and one-fourth of this special state aid fund is paid as standardizing aid. This is the oldest and most distinctive form of state aid, originating in the high-school act of 1876, and the Minnesota school system has been built up largely around this use of state funds.

The state board of education is authorized by law to set up standards which shall be met by the various types or departments of schools in order to participate in this aid. For one-room schools, the aid is one hundred fifty dollars; for schools employing more than one teacher the maximum is three hundred dollars. Schools which meet the requirements stipulated in the law for "Superior" rural schools may receive an additional \$125.

For the year 1926-27 approximately one million dollars was distributed to 7239 rural schools which qualified for standardizing or "flat" aid, and 189 received the additional "Superior" aid.

The share of school support which the state bears varies in the different states from less than one-half percent to forty percent. The per pupil cost for maintenance in Minnesota rural schools last year was \$53.97, of which the state paid \$16.83, or thirty-one percent. Of this about seven dollars is apportionment which is distributed to all schools. The rest is standardizing and supplemental aid which in a measure, at least, fulfills the purposes of stimulating educational progress, equalizing educational opportunity, and assisting where tax levies are very high.

OTHER OUTSTANDING STATE PLANS NOW IN USE OR SUGGESTED

MRS. KATHERINE M. COOK, U. S. BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

A large number of states in addition to those whose financing systems have been described this afternoon have adopted excellent plans, or included excellent features in the plans adopted, for financing schools. Among them are Massachusetts in the east, Maryland and North Carolina in the south, Utah and Arizona in the middle west; California, Washington and Oregon representing the Pacific states. It is manifestly impossible to describe these plans in the time allotted. Among the tendencies of special importance to rural education in state school financing the following seem to me worthy of special mention:

The state as a school administrative unit is assuming larger responsibility for setting up standards and financing schools. In spite of the fact that we have long been committed to the policy that public education is a state responsibility, through statutory provisions, through numerous court decisions and by commitment of public sentiment, in actual practice local systems have been relatively free to maintain as good or as poor schools as they saw fit. Within the past decade there has been a marked movement on the part of states, generally through their chief state school officers and state departments of education, to set up and enforce definite standards and to assist local systems financially and professionally through advisory and research service.

There is a strong movement toward establishing and maintaining state equalization funds through establishing new funds, securing increased appropriations, and through more scientific methods of distribution. Improvement in this direction has been marked in the last five years. At present no less than 36 states have established some form of equalizing fund. The equalization characteristic generally means that distribution considers educational need and educational ability, though the means used of measuring educational need and educational ability differ among states.

There is a tendency, not yet so widespread as that of establishing equalization funds, to secure appropriations from state funds on the basis of setting a fixed sum per capita of school population or school attendance

rather than to set a definite millage or a lump sum of a fixed amount. This improved method enables local systems to budget funds more intelligently and to look forward to a definite per capita allotment and assists them in providing for increased enrolments.

There is a very marked tendency to utilize sources of revenue other than property taxation for school support. Property taxation as the sole source of school support is more generally questioned than ever before. While its application results in hardship to all property holders, it is particularly unjust to the farmer. Rural schools therefore suffer most when this form of taxation prevails. Among the newer sources of revenue the following have gained in adoption during the last five years: Severance tax, now used for school purposes in about five states; corporation tax, utilized for school purposes in 14 states; tobacco tax, in four states; inheritance tax, in eight; income tax in six states.

A few states have recently established or added to a state loan fund, sometimes called a revolving fund, to assist districts in securing better buildings. This fund is lent to districts without interest or at a very low rate of interest and for long-time periods. Many school districts which would otherwise be unable to finance suitable school buildings have been aided through such funds.

Perhaps the most significant of all the tendencies noted is that to base new laws and regulations, or contemplated changes, on scientific studies of the state school situation before their adoption, such studies as have been referred to this afternoon. The weighted pupil as a measure of educational need in New York is an example. At least 13 states during the biennial period ended in 1926 have reported studies made under official direction for the purpose of finding intelligent methods for improving school financing.

While the program this afternoon is confined to a consideration of school finance from the state point of view, those of us interested in rural education owe a special debt of gratitude to state departments of education, particularly state school officers in many of our states, who through high-grade professional leadership have done much for the promotion of better standards all along the line in school facilities furnished for rural children. Important as money is, it is but one factor in school efficiency. Intelligent expenditure, high standards of achievement, count even more than money in evaluating progress in rural education.

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION

Boston, Massachusetts, February 26 to 28, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee of the Department of Rural Education was held at the Hotel Lenox, Boston, Massachusetts, February 26, 1928, at 3 P. M. The following members were present: Mr. Light, Miss Dunn, Mr. Muerman, Mr. Fisher, Miss Trumper, and Mrs. Cook, secretary. The minutes of the

preceding meeting were read and approved as read. The President read a report of certain activities connected with Department affairs. He stated that efforts had been made with the Department of Superintendence to avoid the type of conflict that occurred in Dallas because of duplicating programs for county superintendents. Two sessions for county superintendents were held in Boston, but with no conflict of dates.

The president explained the method he had used for deciding upon the terms of the members of the Executive Committee. Following the changes in the constitution adopted at the Dallas meeting, five members of the Executive Committee were elected by the Department without regard to term length, the Department having instructed the committee members to draw lots to decide on term length. Owing to the fact that no meeting of the new committee was held in Dallas the president himself arranged a decision, lots being drawn by his office force. The terms of the several members of the Executive Committee were then announced by letter.

The secretary, who is also chairman of the Committee on Cooperating Agencies, read the report submitted at Dallas. This committee has not undertaken any additional work since the completion of the "Bibliography on Certain Aspects of Rural Education."

The secretary also read the report of the treasurer, showing a total of \$465 to our credit in the National Education Association treasury. It was suggested by the president that the Department was now in a position to discontinue further dues unless a publication was decided upon, if this seemed desirable.

The president reported on the difficulty he had had in reviving the different sections and other matters connected with the arrangement of the program. Considerable discussion followed concerning the number of meetings which the Department should arrange for its winter programs. It was finally moved by Dr. Dunn and seconded by Mr. Fisher that the number of general meetings be reduced to two. At the suggestion of the president the motion was changed to read as follows: The Executive Committee hereby recommends to the Department of Rural Education that the number of general meetings held annually be reduced to two. The motion was carried and the secretary was instructed to present the recommendation to the Department.

The president then took up the matter of Departmental Committees. He explained that no Committee on Constructive Studies nor on Publications had been appointed this year. He explained that the official status of the Committee on Cooperative Marketing was uncertain. It was moved, seconded, and carried, that the affiliation of the Department with the former Committee on Cooperative Marketing be dropped.

It was moved by Mr. Fisher, seconded by Mr. Muerman, that the Committee of One Hundred on Rural Teacher Problems be discontinued, and that this procedure be recommended as the action of the committee to the Department. Carried.

The president reported that the Department is entitled to three members on the National Council of Education, and suggested that it be recommended to the Committee on Nomination that they nominate persons to act on the Council. It was moved by Dr. Dunn and seconded by Miss Trumper, that this recommendation be made. The motion was carried.

Dr. Dunn then read a letter to her from the editor of a publication called the *Rural School Board Journal*, in which the editor requested that the Department of Rural Education adopt the Journal at its official organ. Dr. Dunn requested the advice of the committee concerning a suitable reply. The matter was referred to a committee consisting of the incoming president, the present secretary, and Dr. Dunn.

The president read a statement in which he suggested that the Department adopt a definite program for carrying on research studies. Considerable discussion fol-

lowed, particularly concerning the advisability of the type of program suggested. There was general agreement that the Department needs a definite program. Dr. Dunn suggested that it seemed to her that the greatest need at present was for an interpretive review of progress in education in its relation to rural education problems. It was suggested also that a review of the literature available on different phases of rural education would be an excellent study and serve as a basis for a useful publication. Such a study could be made by the Department. Mr. Fisher thought the program suggested by the president was entirely too comprehensive and to this Dr. Dunn and Mrs. Cook agreed. Mr. Muerman suggested that it might be well to confine the prospective program to curriculum problems. The discussion continued for some time without definite decision.

The committee adjourned to meet at 4 P. M. the following Tuesday.

The special meeting of the Executive Committee was held on Tuesday afternoon, February 27, at 5 o'clock. The meeting was called to order. It was moved, seconded, and carried that a reading of the minutes of the preceding meeting be dispensed with since members were familiar with proceedings.

The president brought up the matter of several bills which he said he had paid in connection with the meeting of the Department. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the secretary be authorized to approve all bills and send them to the treasurer of the National Education Association for payment.

The committee then took up again the matter of suggesting a definite program to the Department, discussion of which began at the preceding meeting. After considerable discussion of possible projects and ways and means of financing research the following motion was offered by Dr. Dunn: As a definite program of action the Executive Committee recommends to the Department that a committee be appointed by the Executive Committee whose function is to analyze the factors which bring about peculiar problems of education in rural situations and formulate a means of constructive attack on these problems, the committee to be continued over a period of years; provided that the Executive Committee can discover ways and means of financing the program indicated. The motion was duly seconded and unanimously carried.

The committee then discussed the matter of membership. The President had announced at the first meeting of the Department that only paid up members would be expected to vote at the regular business meeting to be held the following day, Wednesday. The president explained that while he perhaps had no legal right to do this it seemed necessary to make some move in the direction to require fees on the part of those who partake of the privileges of the Department. The action was approved and it was recommended by unanimous vote of the committee that an organized effort be made during the year to get and keep members by requesting fees and demanding them if the privilege of voting was allowed; that this be done, in part at least, by the sending out of notices by the secretary, to those who had paid the preceding year, reminding them of their delinquency and suggesting that they become active or sustaining members.

The meeting then adjourned.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

Boston, Massachusetts, February 28, 1928

Business session—The regular annual business meeting of the Department of Rural Education was held Wednesday afternoon, February 28, at the close of the program.

The secretary read the minutes of the Dallas meeting and presented the report of the secretary and report of the treasurer, all of which were accepted as read. The report of the matter of the discontinuance of the *Journal of Rural Education* and the finances connected with it was made by Miss Carney. The secretary then

reported the recommendation of the Executive Committee concerning the reduction in the number of general meetings. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the recommendation of the Executive Committee be adopted and the number of general meetings be reduced to two.

The president then took up the matter of the several sections, explaining the difficulty he had had during the year of finding people to carry on the several sections. Several of the sections originally provided for had lapsed. Owing to the fact that these sections were provided in the constitution it seemed necessary to make a change in the constitution if any change in the number of sectional programs was to be made. It was moved, seconded, and carried that the constitution providing for the original number of sections be changed in order that the sectional programs provided at any annual meeting would be at the discretion of the Executive Committee. The motion was unanimously carried. Other recommendations of the Executive Committee: (1) As to the membership on the National Council; (2) Disposal of departmental affiliation with the Committee on Cooperative Marketing and Rural Teaching Problems; (3) Suggestions concerning extension of membership, were unanimously adopted.

The secretary then presented the recommendation of the Executive Committee concerning the carrying out of a definite program for the year through a committee appointed by the Executive Committee and responsible to the Executive Committee. The recommendation was discussed from the floor and Dr. Butterworth felt that we should emphasize as a necessity that any committee appointed be responsible to the Executive Committee in order to avoid multiplicity of committees. The motion was carried and recommendation accepted.

The meeting discussed also the possibility of providing some type of publication during the year. Considerable sentiment developed for the publication of proceedings, in case publication suggested by the Executive Committee proved impossible, or if funds permitted that proceedings be published in addition to other publications suggested. It was moved by Mr. Snyder of New York and seconded and carried that the Executive Committee investigate the printing possibilities and, if ways and means can be found, arrangements be made to publish and distribute the proceedings of the Boston meeting.

The report of the Committee on Resolutions was presented by Mr. Burr Jones of Massachusetts. One section covering the resolution, concerning the attitude of the Department toward the investigations of the matter of boys' and girls' work (4-H Club) was discussed. A resolution had been offered by Mr. Foote from the floor preceding the business meeting to the effect that the Department of Rural Education say to Dr. True and others in charge of the 4-H work that the Department offers its good offices for the formulation of a new program or the revision of the present program. It was suggested from the floor that this resolution covered about the same ground as the resolution offered by the Committee on Resolutions. The chairman of the Committee on Resolutions then suggested that he harmonize the two. The report was then accepted by the Department. The report of the Nominating Committee was then given and the officers unanimously elected.

There being no further business the meeting adjourned.

The following officers were elected: *President*—William McKinley Robinson, Director, Rural Education Department, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan; *Vicepresident*—Ada York, County Superintendent of Schools, San Diego County, California; *Executive Committee*—L. H. Barnes, County Superintendent, St. Louis County, Minnesota (5 years); *Members National Council*—N. Searle Light, Director, Rural Education, Hartford, Connecticut (2 years), Professor Norman Frost, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee (4 years), Professor Mabel Carney, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City (6 years).

RESOLUTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF RURAL EDUCATION

Boston Meeting, February 29, 1928

We, the members of the Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association, unite in re-affirming our belief in the importance of the education of country children and in re-pledging ourselves to this cause.

1. As students of general education we recognize the fundamental principles and many basic elements common to education in both rural and urban territory. This common background represents in our judgment a very large proportion of the total process. Notwithstanding the preponderance of common elements, we maintain that there is unquestioned need, particularly at present, for the partial differentiation and adaptation of education in rural areas. The justification of such differentiation in our conviction arises first from differences in the rural social environment, that is, in country life itself as compared with urban life; and second, from differences in the educative process as conditioned by the rural social environment or farm background. These differences in our experience find chief expression in the four practical fields of:

1. Rural school curriculum—both elementary and secondary
2. Rural teacher preparation
3. Rural school supervision
4. The administration of rural schools.

In the realm of curriculum adaptation, which is basic to all others, we submit that general educational objectives for rural children are substantially the same as those for city children, but that the rural environment itself demands (a) a different method of approach, (b) a different emphasis on certain phases of subjectmatter, and (c) to some extent an actual difference in content and in teaching materials.

In teacher-preparation the differentiated phases of instruction should include:

1. The study of the rural social and economic environment, usually designated as a special course in rural sociology and economics.
2. The study of the rural physical environment as provided through specialized courses in Nature Study and Agriculture for Appreciation.
3. The study of the adaptations of education in the rural environment best designated perhaps as a course in Rural Education or Rural School Teaching.
4. Enough practice teaching in one-teacher and consolidated schools to make for efficiency in the later instruction and management of such schools.
5. Membership in a rural student organization or Country Life Club where rural interests and rural social leadership may be cultivated.

In supervision and administration, the various conditioning factors of the rural social and economic environment such as comparative isolation, sparse population, marked individualism, inadequate revenues, numerous classes, meager equipment, and many others, all tend to specialize the prob-

lems of rural school direction and reveal particular phases of differentiation requiring special study and analysis.

In this connection we desire to call attention to the need for state leaders in rural education and to the desirability of having our higher institutions of nation-wide influence provide special instruction in this field. In making such provision, however, we strongly advise that this be done on a regional basis with groups of states cooperating through a single institution, thus avoiding an expensive duplication and overlapping of effort.

This whole problem of differentiation and adaptation in rural education is still largely within the province of personal opinion. For this reason we acknowledge the urgent need of research and experimentation in this field and place ourselves on record as desiring further study and investigation of the many sub-problems raised. It is our earnest hope that a nation-wide plan of research may be promoted in this field and that adequate financial aid for carrying out such a program may be found. In the meantime as immediate contributions to this end we urge the enlistment of graduate students in our various universities and colleges on rural researches as well as the more adequate representation and inclusion of the rural phase of all investigations and studies now being undertaken in general educational fields.

2. It is a well-established fact that educational opportunities are in general unequal as between rural and urban communities. This inequality exists because wealth is not distributed among local units of school support in proportion to their educational needs. Even if the wealth available for the education of each child should be equalized as between rural and urban communities, the rural children would still be at a distinct disadvantage because educational costs are greater per pupil in sparsely populated areas. The Department of Rural Education, recognizing these inequalities, places itself on record as favoring the following policies of educational support:

1. That the unit for local taxation in many states should be enlarged.
2. That the state should bear a larger share of rural school support at least fifty percent, and that the state funds should be distributed on the basis of educational need and effort.
3. That a state equalizing fund, large enough to give every community adequate educational advantages, should be provided.

3. Believing that more emphasis in rural education should be placed upon the study and promotion of parental education, we recommend that this emerging subject have the particular attention of this group and that special efforts be made to secure funds for research and experimentation along this line.

4. Recognizing the value of 4-H club work now conducted through the United States Department of Agriculture, the Department of Rural Education offers its good offices to those in charge of the work for a study of the present program with a view to effecting any revision of the pro-

gram that it may be found desirable to make in order that rural children may be most effectively served by this type of education.

5. The Department of Rural Education wishes to express to the United States Bureau of Education its hearty appreciation of the constructive efforts being made by the Bureau to raise the standards of rural school supervision through the holding of regional conferences for rural school supervisors. We most heartily endorse also the national conference on rural teacher preparation held under the auspices of the Bureau on Saturday, February 25. We believe that these are among the most fruitful undertakings of the Federal Government in behalf of rural education and we hope that they may be continued as needed in the future.

6. We believe that one of the outstanding needs of education in this country is the establishment of a Federal Department of Education charged with the duties of coordinating existing Federal undertakings in this field and of conducting research activities for the benefit of the nation's schools. In offering school officials information as to the best practices developed in the best schools of the country, in conducting continuous research so vital to the progressive development of our educational program in all schools and especially needed at this time in rural education, such a department would provide for education a service as valuable as that now provided for agriculture, commerce, and labor. We believe that the rendering of such assistance is a most important function of the national government and that it can be best carried out through the establishment of a Department of Education with a Secretary in the President's Cabinet. We, therefore, give hearty endorsement to the Curtis-Reed bill.

Respectively submitted,

BURR F. JONES (Chairman), State Supervisor of Elementary Education, Massachusetts.

MABEL CARNEY, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

A. M. HOPPER, State Supervisor of Elementary Schools, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

HATTIE PARROTT, State Rural School Supervisor, Raleigh, North Carolina.

**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 1928-29 are: *President*, James E. Rogers, Director, National Physical Education Service, 315 Fourth Ave., New York City; *Vicepresident*, Jay B. Nash, Professor of Physical Education, New York University, New York City; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Mrs. Winifred A. Hart, Director, Health Education and School Nursing, Board of Education, Bridgeport, Conn.; *Executive Committee*, Elma Rood, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. (Term expires 1929); N. P. Neilson, State Supervisor of Physical Education, Sacramento, Calif. (Term expires 1930); William Burdick, State Director of Physical Education, 7 E. Mulberry St., Baltimore, Md. (Term expires 1931); Ethel Perrin, American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Ave., New York City (Term expires 1932). 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	1916:681-699	1922:1085-1099
1895: 944-950	1903:817-847	1910: 921-949	1917:521-535	1923: 744-842
1896: 893-937	1904:803-843	1911: 905-939	1918:339-359	1924: 637-651
1897: 870-916	1905:755-781	1912:1141-1153	1919:315-323	1925: 577-598
1898: 929-959	1906:711-713	1913: 667-695	1920:311-323	1926: 600-624
1899:1064-1097	1907:925-951	1914: 683-721	1921:517-523	1927: 561-581
1901: 758-771	1908:999-1047	1915: 971-995		

CITIZENSHIP AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

JAMES E. ROGERS, NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE, NEW YORK CITY

PHYSICAL education has a direct contribution to make to citizenship building. Of all the subjects in the curriculum, physical education through its programs of plays, games and sports can do much to train for those attributes essential to good citizenship. A well directed and balanced program of physical activities can help to develop a sense of fair play, appreciation of the value of teamwork, respect for one's opponents, cooperation with one's fellows, and the need for obeying the rules.

Citizenship is not learned by lip motions. The great educational law, learning by doing, is paramount in this field of training. Physical education is motor activity. The child learns by doing. Citizenship habits are necessary to playing the game. Under a wise teacher, the child can be instructed in respecting the property of others, keeping one's temper, keeping one's nose down in victory and chin up in defeat, keeping himself fit; and the necessity of having a healthy body, a sound soul, and a clean mind. These rules are the laws of the game and must be adhered to. They are life's patterns and experiences.

The great power that physical education has in training for citizenship is that it is harnessed to the interests and emotions of youth. The lessons of citizenship are learned through the playing of their games and sports which are so essential to their growth and development. The problem is to get the trained teachers that will see to it that these activities bring forth real sportsmanship and ethical training.

What are the factors that go to make citizenship training? It is the training process that we are concerned with here. The essential qualities that are needed to make a good citizen are as follows:

1. *Good health*—Good citizenship is oftentimes a matter of good health. Much of crime, disorder, and misbehavior comes from physical disorders, defects, and degenerations. The biologist, the psychologist, and the sociologist know this to be true. The record of our courts, broken homes and sanitariums testify that good health is essential to good conduct.

2. *Vocational efficiency*—Having a job and doing well by it is essential to being a good citizen. A man or woman happy in his work, and that work essential, has a proper respect for the need of government and the integrity of law. The community and its standards mean something to him. Physical education contributes directly to vocational efficiency. Physical fitness is foundational to personal efficiency and success. A good physical capacity is also a basis for efficiency in human relationships and happiness at home.

3. *Leisure time*—The wise and wholesome use of leisure time is another important factor essential in the making of a good citizen. We make or break ourselves in our right or wrong use of our free time. Mischief is the wrong kind of play that oftentimes unfortunately leads to delinquency.

We do not misbehave during the eight hours of work or the eight hours of sleep, but most of the delinquency comes during the eight hours of leisure. The physical education teacher in creating play habits and recreational interests that can be carried on through educational life is making a real contribution to the conservation of leisure time for good citizenship.

4. *Sportsmanship*—The world needs sportsmanship. The elements of good citizenry are the same that make for good sportsmanship. Fair play, ability to lose gracefully and to win honestly, to think of the team and not oneself, are elements found in both.

5. *Teamwork and loyalty*—These are two outstanding characteristics of a good citizen. A democracy depends upon a high type of team worker, who will think of his community, state, and country first. Loyalty is a characteristic that can only be learned through practice. A boy through his scout organizations, in his camps, or the athletic field and in the gymnasium is constantly called upon to be loyal to his class, group and team. Through games and sports, physical education is constantly giving life experiences in these two essentials for good citizenship.

Industrial waste from inefficiency and illness can be substantially reduced through better physical fitness programs.

A physically fit person is more likely to be efficient, happy, and useful.

A physically fit nation is better prepared to meet any emergency either from within or without.

A SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND HEALTH EDUCATION PROGRAM IN A MINNESOTA COMMUNITY—ABSTRACT

FERDINAND J. LIPOVETZ, DIRECTOR OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND HEALTH,
CROOKSTON, MINN.

A school physical education and health education program in a Minnesota community is fundamentally similar to programs promoted in other communities. Mental and physical laws react upon the individual along definite actions and reactions governed by laws that can neither be changed, altered, nor modified. It is true that altitude, temperature, racial characteristics, individual differences and finances may to some extent determine the nature of physical education and health education activities selected for any community, nevertheless, a program successful in Minnesota can, in its basic scope of activities, be expected to show similar results elsewhere.

A school physical education and health education program must, if it is to be considered a contribution to the general program of education and community welfare, be sold to the community as a whole and in particular to the parents of the boys and girls attending the public schools. Noticeably in this respect is the business man's conception of values received in return for money invested in promotion of such a program. When re-

sults indicate the program is making boys and girls lead a happy life, is making the school an interesting center of attraction is developing normal physical body growth and is serving to inculcate such health knowledge and experiences as may be found in a progressive school and community. only then will the hearty support necessary for the promotion of such programs received the sanction of those interested in public expenditures.

The emphasis of a well-balanced physical and health education program should be stressed and receive the greatest attention in Grades I-VIII, inclusive. Figures reported in the May issue of *The Journal of the National Education Association* show that 23,000,000 children are enroled in the elementary schools in contrast to the 4,000,000 and 700,000 reported for the high schools and colleges respectively. More than 85 percent of the boys and girls discontinue their academic training before the high school is reached! To meet this situation, the grade school physical and health education program should offer a well-balanced and organized program of play participation and play leadership, should offer relief from the daily classroom academic activities, should make the school an interesting place, should show correlation with other academic subjects, should be physically developmental, should win the hearty-cooperation of both teachers and parents and serve as an after school project for the promotion of worthwhile activities that will engage the leisure play life of the boy and girl.

Efficient and welltrained leaders are essential to the promotion of an educational physical and health education program. Only when leaders have intimate knowledge of the past and present history of the school health field can they be expected to project into the future and promote such courses as will be educationally sound and be in a position to keep abreast with the ever progressing educational field as a whole. The experimental work that has been going on in Crookston, Minnesota, will serve as an additional contribution to the material available in the field of physical and health education.

HEALTH TRENDS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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NEW YORK CITY

When we open for discussion the subject of informational hygiene on the secondary school level, we have not much experience upon which to draw as there is comparatively little printed material at hand nor have there been many conferences, with their follow-up reports, nor gathering together of teachers in committee work; nor, until recently, have administrators drawn up resolutions as to what should be done about the first of the seven educational objectives, namely, Health, as set down some years ago by the Committee of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. We now have, however, in the last yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, which pub-

lication was issued last February, an outstanding report of the findings of a committee on health and physical education in secondary education, endorsed by the Department of Superintendence.

When people in general began seriously to take an interest in health, they almost began in the right spot—the elementary school child, and have been obliged to take but four steps backward, to the preschool child, the toddler, the baby, and the prenatal condition. This was doing better than much of our educational procedure which has sometimes started with the university and gradually sifted down where it belongs. Physical education is an example of this mistake. We now have fairly well standardized subjectmatter and methods in health habit formation from the beginning through the sixth grade, but after all, this is fairly easy because of home and school organization and general reasonableness and obedience of children. But with the increased freedom which begins in the junior high and becomes greater each year of school life, it is much more difficult to guide the behavior of pupils—and the end result of all health education must be behavior.

For the duration of this discussion, I will ask you to think of a school Health Program, in place of the much discussed "Health Education," and to think of it as a program reaching into every crack and corner of the school, rather than as a subject in the curriculum. With this idea well in mind, we may analyze such a program in two ways: According to its *purposes*; and according to its *administration*. If we think of its *purposes*, they are three: Protection, correction, promotion.

The first one, protection, includes medical and nursing service, all physical and mental examinations and all efforts made for safe environment. This reaches into several academic and administrative departments.

The second one, correction, includes follow-up of all health examinations and adjustments of pupil schedules, and can only be effective through co-operation of every member of the staff.

And the third one, promotion, includes every effort to give pupils a healthful daily school program and a sufficient amount of the kind of instruction to promote right attitudes and behaviors toward health problems. Again we reach into all departments.

Looked at from an *administrative* point of view we have three different divisions and again they extend in all directions:

The first one is health service. This combines the services necessary to protection and correction and sets out six divisions of the work in terms of administration:

- a. Health examinations
- b. Correction of defects
- c. Protection against communicable disease
- d. School sanitation and hygiene, including food service
- e. Hygiene of instruction
- f. Safety and first-aid provisions

The second one is health teaching and includes both specific and correlated subjectmatter courses, situations both during intra and extra school activities and home cooperation. It is impossible to find a member of the staff who is not contributing here, whether consciously or not. These indirect contributions are the ever present "concomitant learnings" so graphically presented by Dr. Kilpatrick.

And the third one is physical education. Although these activities themselves do not permeate the classrooms, still if they are to make their full contributions to the health program, every member of the staff should realize their significance and stimulate the right type of activity through interest and cooperation.

The subject of this paper, health teaching, falls into the second division of the administrative analysis of this whole program and is by far the least developed part of the present situation. Standards and procedures are set up and quite generally followed, in health service in all of its branches and in physical education, but what to teach or how to teach it, are two problems still unsolved. There are plenty of state and city outlines of hygiene, both personal and community, but most of them have the ear marks of being office desk productions, rather than having come from the laboratory—the classroom. I call your attention, however, to a piece of work straight from the laboratory, built upon the solid foundation of teacher participation. I refer to a tentative health program—junior high school, published by the Cleveland Board of Education. I particularly offer for your consideration the plan of organization for the making of this outline, or course of study or as it is called, "health program." On its title page you see a junior high school committee composed of five teachers, one from each of five high schools in Cleveland. This committee is responsible to a central committee of nine people representing administration, research, medicine, supervision, home economics, general education, physical welfare and physical education. The smaller committee is only one of a number of such teacher committees, the others having to do with elementary grades. There is one added touch to this procedure—the city employed a health consultant, who guided the committee work and acted as technical expert. Such a set-up is right from every point of view and eliminates, as far as possible, chances of going astray. At the same time, it paves the way for an interested acceptance of the finished product because of widespread participation in its making.

It is interesting to trace back to the source material for the objectives and the methods for their development as set up in this Cleveland program. We find that in 1922, at Lake Mohonk, for the first time a group of physicians, nurses, scientists and educators, met to discuss health teaching problems and the report of this conference laid the foundation stone upon which standards in health education were built.

I wish there were time to set before you the subjectmatter on the 63 pages of this junior high health program in Cleveland, for it is all interesting, but there is only time to give you the lay out, so that we may see

what these committees considered essential in teaching material. Nine objectives are offered for this comprehensive program, three of which I will mention because they are related to our topic, namely: 1, To develop or maintain specific health habits; 2, to develop health knowledge; 3, to develop proper attitudes toward health, health practices, and life situations. Then follows a statement to the effect that twelve subjects in the curriculum have definite contributions to make toward these particular three objectives—and they are listed as follows: (1) hygiene; (2) physical education; (3) home economics; (4) general science; (5) social science; (6) vocational guidance; (7) shop; (8) art; (9) music; (10) English; (11) foreign languages; (12) mathematics. Hygiene, the first one listed, is the time honored course which is usually held responsible for all health instruction in secondary schools, and is sometimes found in one department and sometimes in another. Irrespective of who gives the course, it must be built about the physical and health habit condition of the class. This depends somewhat upon the economical and social status, and more decidedly upon the previous school health experiences of the class.

The first thing to do then is to analyze the situation by having the children understand what is needed, and then work out a scheme for discovering the facts. The mistake has too often been made of taking for granted that all children need more baths, have too little sleep, eat the wrong food, do not take sufficient exercise, and, above all, that all of this business is news to them just because they have reached a new school, where, at last, they are to receive a good training. And what is a still greater mistake, exactly the same methods of going about this health training are used that have been so well developed for elementary education because no one has had time to adjust the same old story to the next, and the next, and the next, age levels. It will always be necessary in secondary and college and university levels to do something about personal hygiene, but that does not necessitate the same old checking system or poster making that we resorted to in the kindergarten. Having decided what hygienic measures need attention, the keynote of further work should be the development of responsibility among the pupils and this naturally demands scientifically correct knowledge upon which the children may base their choice of behavior for they are beyond the stage of doing thus and so because teacher asks them to, or because they will receive a reward. Much of this knowledge they should find in their science courses, but in the hygiene course this information can be definitely tied up to the behavior problems, and furthermore, if for one reason or another, all of the children are not receiving the necessary scientific informational background, it should be the care of the hygiene teacher to supply the missing information, through the cooperation of the science department. It is then necessary for the hygiene teacher to know all units of instruction contributed from the various courses listed above and to hold herself to see to it that every pupil receives his due share. This brings us to another side of the story: Administration, upon which hinges the success of a secondary school health program. The

very fact that it reaches into all departments takes it out of the so-called subjects and makes it necessary to treat it in some other way. Through a study of secondary school health programs made three years ago by the American Child Health Association, a plan was discovered and has been elaborated, whereby one member of the staff is called a health counselor and is directly responsible to the principal for the duties of a health counselor, no matter to which department she may belong. She it is (or, he it is) who has the health of the students really at heart and she makes every effort to see that all school activities are so ordered as to best promote the health interests of all pupils. This involves a co-ordinating process between the medical and nursing service, the home, the community and the whole school staff, not excepting all custodians. She needs the backing of a strong committee, as well as the principal, and will have to delegate much of the actual work, perhaps even the teaching of hygiene will fall to someone else, but with the right personality in this health counselor, health will become an underlying policy, not a fad which shows itself through spectacular stunts, but rather an inconspicuous force taken for granted by everybody and accepted as fundamental in education.

The 12 curriculum subjects which the Cleveland committee found to have contributions to make in health teaching, the first one, hygiene, is the only one devoting itself wholly to our topic. In general terms this teaching should be based upon the health status of the pupils but no matter how far down the scale this status may be, the teaching should reach the appropriate age level and be planned to carry the pupils at least one step further toward the adult health knowledge goals set up by Dr. Livingston Farrand, as follows: An educated person should

1. Know the physiological and anatomical basis for sound health habits.
2. Know the types and amounts and proportions of the various food elements essential to the proper nutrition of the body.
3. Have an acquaintance with the principles of normal mental action and the conditions underlying the more common variations from normal states of mind.
4. Have a general understanding of the sex instinct in man, the stages of its development, its normal expression, and the values and penalties attaching to the expression of that instinct.
5. Have a knowledge of the factors determining infection and resistance and of the principles of artificial immunization in the case of certain of the common infectious diseases.
6. Have enough knowledge of the causes and prevention of the degenerative diseases to offer a prospect of passing through middle life without a breakdown.
7. Know and therefore be armed against health hazards lurking in the environment.
8. Appreciate the necessity for frequent medical and dental examinations.
9. Have an intelligent basis for choosing wisely his medical advisors and for realizing that the modern practice of medicine is grounded on science and not on mystery, fancy and tradition.
10. Have a knowledge of the important public health problems facing the community, of the methods of attacking those problems, and of the results to be expected from intelligent community action in the public health field.

A course in hygiene should contribute to all of these adult goals, at some time during school progress, but the proper selection of subjectmatter at the proper time is as yet in the experimental stage.

In our list of contributory subjects, physical education is placed first as the one most often claiming the responsibility of health teaching, and yet when the analysis was made of the purposes of the physical education courses among the 53 schools in our study, health was not included in the category of the 93 different statements. Training of posture was mentioned most frequently, 37 times, and strength, vigor and cleanliness were mentioned 35 times, and these words were evidently set down to represent health. In the Cleveland outline, 4 objectives are set down for physical education: 1. To engage in big muscle activities, under wholesome conditions; 2. To develop specific skills; 3. To develop a social personality; 4. To develop positive health ideals and practices. In the fourth of these objectives, we see the definite tie up to the instructional side of the health program.

Home economics is making a large contribution to the teaching of health in many secondary schools by including boys, through offering courses in household budget-making, and cooking, in giving dietary advice to all students who seek it and by using the school lunchroom as a project for every student. We often talk of linking our teaching to life situations and yet we neglect the most obvious ones at hand. In its direct teaching, this department uses health as one of its main objectives and is essentially a health teaching unit, but the small number of students reached by home economics is unfortunate and limits the place of this subject in the health program.

General science was considered a basic subject to health teaching in 25 of the 53 schools studied. The following units of instruction are offered by the Cleveland science teachers as contributing to health knowledge: Air, water, weather, the solar family, elements and compounds, energy and force, machines, heat, light, sound, electricity, rocks and soils, plants, animals, foods, and sanitation. It is perfectly obvious that a certain portion of the instruction on these subjects can readily be associated with health problems and still the unity of the course be adhered to. Social science has been analyzed in the same careful way and through the interdependence between groups of people through the study of economic and industrial conditions, and of the relation of mental attitude to governmental problems we see again a direct contribution made easy by association.

Vocational guidance, through its discussions on success, habits, personality, etc., is a large factor to be taken into account.

Shopwork is either consciously or unconsciously demonstrating many health problems and art and music contribute to mental health through appreciation of the beautiful and they both have concrete contributions to specific health projects. English and foreign languages, through biographies and the use of topics for discussion or writing, have endless opportunities, while mathematics is full of resources in all sorts of health prob-

lems of an investigating nature, with the formation of telling graphs as the climax. But just fancy a correlating mass of subjectmatter such as I have hinted at, without an all-powerful correlator to harness it together, and make it a unified block of instruction. We would have even a worse situation without a guiding hand, than we have when none of the subject teachers are at work trying to correlate. The danger of duplication *ad nauseum* and of contradictions *ad liberatum*, spring to mind. A health counselor needs to be very wise indeed to steer these many forces in the right direction. In the high school, if such a thorough teaching program has already been carried out during the junior high period, we still have the personal health problems to solve, but increasingly, as the age level grows higher, should these problems be handled as personal rather than as class problems; which means that more of the time of the health counselor must be given to case work for which she needs to know social service methods. And class work can center more around Dr. Farrand's 3rd, 4th, 6th, 9th, and 10th health knowledges, which have a bearing on mental health, on sex problems, on prevention of degenerative diseases, on basis for choice of medical advice, and of community action in the public health field.

The special subjects cannot afford to lessen their contributions but they must be kept informed by the health counselor of the *status quo* of the pupils and build accordingly. If anyone here wishes to know what a cross section of the secondary schools of this country have done in their work to solve this problem of a comprehensive program, they may read it in the report of the study already referred to—*Health Trends in Secondary Education* is its name and it may be purchased from the American Child Health Association for \$1. This publication is more than a report because experts in the various phases of a school health program have contributed their opinions in the light of their experience.

This paper has only dealt with the instructional side and has not even discussed methods, all of which points to the fact that having health as the first objective in secondary education is not to be lightly treated, but that on the contrary, we need further studies, investigations and research before we can point with pride to our achievements.

PROBLEMS IN A SCHOOL HEALTH SERVICE

CORA T. HELGESEN, SUPERVISOR OF SCHOOL NURSES, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

Education gives to the individual that most precious of all possessions—skill in the art of living. If we would have those entrusted to our care, live most abundantly, greater emphasis must be given to that most important objective of education—health.

Health service means not alone health supervision but health protection, health promotion and health education. If the health of those attending our schools is to be maintained so that they may receive the greatest benefit from the schools and be prepared to live fuller, richer lives, more at-

tention must be given to this phase of education. I believe that the keynote to a successful health program is cooperation. Departments of hygiene, teachers, parents, and boards of education all have a responsibility, a duty, a moral obligation which they dare not shirk. Only the combined efforts of all of them will make for efficiency. No personal belief, whether it be religious or cultism, should be allowed to become a factor or enter as a factor in the appreciation or control of material things. Medical supervision should be considered just as much a part of the curriculum as any other activity and should therefore receive the same careful consideration that is given to courses of study in geography, mathematics, history, etc. Let us now consider the problems which face those whose primary interest is the school child.

The classroom teachers have a most important function to perform in any health program since they observe the pupils more frequently and for longer periods than other members of the school personnel. For this reason it is essential that teachers have or secure a suitable background of information on which to base observations and actions if they are to protect and preserve the health of their pupils. The teacher's opportunity to render effective aid in school health service does not end in her ability to detect those physically and mentally unable to continue successfully in the schools. She must be a teacher of health as well; she must help her pupils by sound example and skillful guidance to acquire health habits and wholesome attitudes toward health. She must provide and lead them into experiences which favorably influence habits, attitudes and knowledges relating to individual, community, and racial health.

It is not my intention to discuss the teacher's technic in arousing interest in health, but this I would say, that the child should be provided with a program which observes the subject used in correlation with health. To be effective, teaching should be positive rather than negative and it should be done directly rather than through devices. Every teacher a health teacher—a health example is a good slogan.

The problem of providing the child with healthful school environment is an important one. It is the duty of the school authorities to see that buildings are properly constructed and equipped and that playgrounds and toilet facilities are provided according to up-to-date and approved standards. The hygienic maintenance and management of grounds, plant and supplies is of primary importance. This is not generally a problem in city schools but in small towns and rural communities it is often not given proper consideration.

Parents must be made to realize that only when body as well as mind is sound and healthy does one live the fullest and richest life. It is an obligation of parents to keep their children well. The school has the right to expect healthy products to educate. Today they are not realizing that expectation for it is said that 90 percent of the six year olds who enter school are defective—bundles of parental neglect. The school is now proposing the setting up of standards of what a healthy child should be. Parents must be educated to appreciate these standards and taught

how to attain them. They must be taught how to recognize signs of health in the growing child; they must learn how to preserve his good health. They must learn how and be willing to cooperate with the school in the correction of remedial defects and a control of communicable disease and the effectiveness of immunization.

Prejudice is a tool of the ignorant and a very difficult tool to supplant, but through intelligent and accurate information by means of conferences, home visits, bulletins, the press and radio, we are seeing the light.

One of the objectives of a health service is to maintain at a high standard of excellence the health of those attending the schools. This is vitally necessary if children are to receive, without handicap, the greatest benefit from the schools, and go forth into life with health and strength. To accomplish this objective, it is necessary to discover those pupils who are physically or mentally handicapped and therefore unable to successfully complete the educational program offered. The detection of defects is but the beginning. More important is the remedial work which should rightly follow. It is not the defects discovered that count but the defects corrected. Medical supervision is of small benefit if there are no worthy results from its findings.

Therefore there should be for every school child a continuous health record. It should be identified with the record of general school progress. I believe that the consciousness of the close correlation between good health and high scholastic standing would stimulate parents' interest in health more than any other one factor.

The physician is sometimes a most serious problem. He holds a most strategic position in the education of the community if he would but use it. The school nurse is often accused of usurping the functions of the physician. This is due, no doubt, to a traditional prejudice which has devastating reactions on enthusiasm and endeavor.

Then again the cost of medical care is a serious economic consideration. The poor and the rich are the only ones who can receive proper medical attention without jeopardizing the family budget. The great middle class, those of moderate means, are less fortunate. A five-year program has just been launched on the cost of medical care. This committee will endeavor to analyze the present intricate and confused situation in the field of medicine, to execute studies which will point the way to more efficient service for all the people, and to formulate wise recommendations on the basis of facts revealed. All who are in public service will look forward to this solution, as this cost of proper medical care often prevents the experiencing of the joy of positive health.

If you have a school nurse she will bring to light many of these problems and assume the responsibility of attempted solution. She is the ambassador of health, with courage, perseverance, patience and a will to do, and success is bound to follow her efforts. She is the "lady with the lamp," bringing illumination from the profession of nursing to the field of education.

PRINCIPLES IN HEALTH EDUCATION TRAINING

MABEL C. BRAGG, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS,
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It is probably in the minds and hearts of all of us who work with the children, to help them to find each day a better life than we have ever known—a finer spiritual life, a keener mental life, and a stronger, more effective physical life.

We know today that to the traditional knowledge and skills, there must be added habits, attitudes, and character training that will influence behavior, if we believe that education means in addition to its former content desirable changes in behavior.

It is probable that the schools are doing their work better today than ever before, and everywhere trained men and women are seeking help for the improvement of their results. The schools can be trusted to continue to train the children along academic lines, while every teacher worthy of the name is now, as always, concerned with the character development of her pupils. She wants to learn better how to do it.

Because of the great expenditure of money that is now required for the present day education of so many more children in the United States, and because of the consequent cry of economy in many quarters, we must seek better and better ways for carrying on our work. We must make our teaching as valuable, as effective, as possible.

Out of this necessity has come the study of the individual child in order that we may better understand his mental, physical, and emotional life, and as a result of this study must come the adjustment of our teaching to his needs and the necessary help toward the removal of all obstacles to the best educational and economic results. We are all desirous that attitudes shall be better, that interest shall be more keen, that absences shall be less frequent, that schoolroom conditions shall be right, that the school day shall be planned for the health and happiness and successful achievement of the children and the teachers.

One great help toward these results is Health Education in the schools. Health is now generally believed to be one of the most important objectives of education. The Great War showed its need. We were shocked when we learned that about 33 1/3 percent of the children of the country were not growing as they should grow and were more than 10 percent below an accepted standard of weight. We had taken the children as they came and never dreamed that much could be done about it. Indeed we did not believe it could be true of *our* own communities. We could not accept the fact that such obstacles to the increased happiness, efficient vigorous living, and social progress of *our* children existed.

The Child Health Organization, which has since become the American Child Health Association, sent forth a slogan—*Scales in every school*—and, helped by the government, provided charts, standards, and materials for teaching health through which they sought to arouse the teachers and

parents of the country to study the growth of the children and improve their health habits.

When people began to object and experts protested in print against weighing and measuring the children in the schools, saying that the work of the teachers was not sufficiently accurate for scientific research, it was Dr. L. Emmet Holt, one of the early powers in health training in the schools, who said, "The purpose of weighing and measuring children is not to collect statistics but to interest the children themselves in health and growth—and this it is found to do. Not only does it interest the children, but it means a new point of contact for helpfulness on the part of the teacher and interested cooperation from the parents."

In all my experience of sending home the weight cards each month, I know of only one mother who informed the principal that she was not interested in the weight of her boy. This wise principal in return answered, "I am, he may bring his report card to me each month and I will sign it." That mother allowed the principal to sign her child's card for three months. After that she attended to it herself and has never since failed to cooperate.

Too much importance must not be attached to weighing and measuring. There are other criteria. This one, however, can be used as a valuable educational influence to interest the people in health education activities in the schools. The health of all the children had formerly been trusted almost entirely to other agencies, but results proved that much still remained to be done—and judging by the conditions of many of the children discovered in our schools, here was another opportunity for the teacher to help in the physical as well as the intellectual achievements of her children.

All kinds of excellent beginnings were made. None of us knew how to do it and we have learned much by the trial and error method. Work was begun intensively in some places with the undernourished children and special classes were formed. Much good work was accomplished but the rest of the children continued with no attention and no changes in their health behavior.

Then in some places the responsibility was placed on the physical education departments. They rallied well to the new demands made upon them but they were among the first to know that theirs is not the real responsibility for health education, generously as they contribute through plays and games, corrective work, outdoor mindedness, and posture. Some of us school people still enjoy the word—posture.

The history of the movement through the last ten years reveals also the increasing interest and valuable contributions of the nutrition worker, the home economics teacher, the general science and civics teacher. Much traditional school subjectmatter has been illuminated by this new hope of trying to teach children and oftentimes through them the adults, better how to live and work and play. As through learning and experience they

know the meaning of honesty, industry, and judgment so they grow into more desirable behavior as the result of choice.

Health education means not only better care of the delicate child and special attention to the one with physical defects, but it means a higher standard of health for all children. If we are hoping to change the health habits of a people we must train the children. This is one great opportunity of the future, as yet scarcely touched. We who care much about establishing this work in the schools wish to promote and establish fundamental habits of healthful living, to develop satisfactory attitudes toward all health practices, to stimulate the acquisition of health knowledge, and to arouse enthusiasm for the higher standard of individual and community well-being. We wish to help the children to a sense of personal responsibility. All this means increased happiness, efficient, vigorous living, and social progress.

Since the new education necessitates that the teacher know her children mentally, physically, and emotionally, fortunately to the schools came the opportunity of working with the home in the health education of the children who come to school expecting to be taught. In the communities which have already organized physical education, health examinations and nursing service, the teachers have a very desirable setting for an ideal health education program. Lacking these, the important factors—the teacher and the children—are still present. In every classroom there is necessity and abundant opportunity for effective health teaching. Simple beginnings may lead in time to the development of a relatively complete health program by interesting the children, training them in their choices, securing the cooperation of the parents, and arousing the interest of the community.

In order to accomplish their purposes all interested teachers will make full use of the physical education activities as an aid and incentive to mental and physical health, arrange as far as possible for healthful classroom conditions, cooperate with the parents and help them to understand the school health program, help in the control of communicable diseases, encourage and help to secure the correction of physical defects and use the educational possibilities of all health services and social agencies. It is often a revelation to the teacher to discover all the agencies in her community that are ready to help her.

This means a far look into the future as well as the removal of hindrances to the work of the day. It means vision and understanding and adjustment. It does not mean the introduction of an entirely new subject, but it does mean the carrying on of the familiar activities with a new emphasis and the cordial acceptance of the new activities. Throughout the school day the life situations and the various school subjects provide many opportunities for the emphasis of health education. It is most encouraging when we consider it carefully, to discover how much principals and teachers have always done for the health of the children. Incidental teaching it has been, but often very effective results have been se-

cured. These same principals and teachers working with the nurse and the school doctor, the parents, the dentist and now with the children themselves can accomplish wonderful results in direct health teaching. Many a teacher has found herself, widened her interests, enriched her teaching, and grown steadily toward a finer and higher level of living through her work in health education. It has resulted in higher standards of health for herself and greatly improved physical and mental condition with much greater emotional stability.

It may be that through our health work with our children we may learn to take better care of ourselves, to obey the health rules we preach and so become the radiant happy creatures we now so often fail to be because we offer ourselves a sacrifice on so many altars in our devotion to the over-work we so often vainly consider efficiency.

There are two wellknown ways in which a school health education program can be begun and carried on. Health education teachers can be employed and upon them will rest the responsibility of developing the course of study, furnishing and material, teaching classes regularly, winning the teachers and all the special health services—medical, nursing, dental, school sanitation, and physical education—and working out a harmonious procedure. This looks almost impossible unless he or she has much administrative authority and has all the characteristics of a saint. Such people are rare!

In universities and normal schools in answer to the demands made upon them, teachers are being trained for health education positions. In many places grade teachers are also being prepared as never before to care for the physical and emotional life of their children in order that all teaching may be more effective.

In those communities where the school administrators have been roused to the value of the work, it may be approached from two points of view. A program can be worked out and presented to the teachers and as it is supervised more or less closely the results will be influenced. It seems often only one more thing to do in an already full day. Another point of attack may be made under the direction of some administrator—superintendent, assistant superintendent, or principal—when the teachers are carefully chosen and helped to work out certain health education experiences with their children. Their attitude, their enthusiasm and cooperation are obviously assured. They can be given summer school scholarships to secure training and helped in every way with such material and direction as will greatly improve the quality of their results. So much good material is free that the expense need not be heavy. Good textbooks for the children to serve as basal books in hygiene or as supplementary readers are available.

At this point it is important that the plans be interpreted to the parents, the family physicians and dentists. The principal can be of great help in such interpretation because of his influential position in his community. It may sometimes be necessary for some one from the central office to

carry on a campaign of education for parents wherever opportunity occurs. When people begin to be interested, many invitations come. Getting along with people, all kinds of people, is a very valuable part of a health education program.

While these units of work are being carried on in the schools and the community, gradually certain definite activities may be extended into all the schools and thereby the interest of all the teachers and children be enlisted.

After a time the program will come to include the following activities:

1. Regular measuring twice a year and weighing once a month by each room teacher.
2. Mid-morning milk luncheon, served by ten o'clock, that the noon meal may not be interfered with.
3. Development of health habits, attitudes, and knowledge according to the age level of the children.

The simplest habits yet suggested are "The Rules of the Game," dealing with sleep, food, play, and cleanliness.

4. Physical education especially in its relation to outdoor mindedness, play and games, posture, and corrective work.
5. Health examinations once a year when possible, and follow-up work by nurses and teachers for the removal of defects.
6. Reasonable correlation with other school subjects. Opportunities are many in drawing and hand work, arithmetic, language, reading, and social studies. Health like character training has many opportunities.
7. Controlling the hygienic conditions in the building and on the playground. This includes help from the janitor and helping the janitor.
8. Daily inspection or appreciation as check-up work. A mirror in every school-room is a great help in this as well as in speech teaching.
9. Teachers establishing and maintaining their own health, often the keynote of it all.
10. Celebrating Child Health Day as Health Recognition Day, recognition of the splendid work done by the children, the teachers, and the parents with the help of the whole community. The badges and banners are greatly desired. They mean achievement and become precious possessions.

All the activities can seldom be safely established at once. We must grow into them as new needs arise. The plans must be flexible according to the conditions in different districts and the needs of individual children. New teachers coming into a system must be trained to an understanding of the program. Such timely help is of great value.

The physical education teacher as well as the nurse and subject supervisors also are invaluable as they go into the schools as influences in the health program as people who appreciate achievement and give it due recognition. They rejoice with the children when they weigh about what they should weigh and even more, for insurance—"money in the health bank" they call the extra pounds, within limitations of course. They are delighted when the sleep, vegetable, fruit, and cereal charts indicate real accomplishment. These all invite approval and commendation as do cleanliness scores and all other health achievement recognitions.

For those children who have not yet succeeded, sympathetic understanding of the situation and continued encouragement, even sometimes financial help, are necessary. The Junior Red Cross, Tuberculosis League, local agencies, and generous individuals will always help the children. Just a suggestion that "Here is something you can do for a child" is all that is needed.

The health examination each year, sometimes called the thorough medical examination, is recommended for us all. The children can be taught to believe that the doctors are coming to find as many perfect children as possible. It can be made a great educational influence. One teacher got her children ready for it last fall instead of waiting until afterward to urge in cooperation with the nurse the correction of all known defects, with the result that it was necessary to send home no notice concerning any child in that room. That idea was so contagious there will be many teachers who will get the children ready for the doctors next fall. It is a revelation of the power of the teacher to discover how much she can help in follow-up work by listing in a conspicuous place the corrections of defects as they are taken care of, especially those of teeth, tonsils and adenoids, eyes, and posture. In some rooms 100 percent of the defects have been corrected, and this is the ambition of many splendid teachers. School work can be much better done, much less of our teaching of the children is wasted, everyone is much happier, the behavior problem is greatly reduced—when the defects of both teacher and children are corrected and these hindrances to learning and adjustment are removed. This combined with the establishment of health habits, the enjoyment of health knowledge, and the continuation of health practices, promise us all an improved quality of life, and thereby a hope for a keener mental life, a more efficient, vigorous physical life and a finer spiritual life. We are all in need of guidance in living. Health in education and education in health is a significant slogan.

CONTRIBUTIONS OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION TO GENERAL EDUCATION

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Physical education is one of the administrative arms of education, one of the channels through which educational objectives are obtained. No one of the administrative arms of education can have objectives which are bigger or beyond the aims of general education, thus physical education, commercial education, music education, and so forth, merely refer to types of activities through which educational objectives are obtained.

Physical education has labored under a handicap, because in the minds of many people, physical education has been looked upon as education for the physical rather than education through the physical. Many of the old philosophies attempted to separate the mental from the physical, or the body from the soul, or the intellect from the reason. In many of the

philosophies the body was the dead weight which held down the mental and constantly impaired the finer qualities of the spiritual. In spite of ourselves this confusion still exists, and physical activities are looked upon as distinct from mental activities. Herbert S. Jennings of Johns Hopkins University, forcefully calls our attention to the fact that "physical and mental are bound together in their development—they are diverse aspects of one and the same thing. If you change one you change the other, if you blight one you blight the other."

The physical side of the child is visible, you can watch it grow, or you can watch it blight. The mental or the spiritual is invisible and it may or it may not leave its marks upon the physical. The two, however, condition each other. All willed activity must have its mental counterpart and all mental activity has its physical reactions.

What types of socially desirable educational changes can be best made through the medium of physical education activities? It cannot be assumed that any of the objectives of education will be contributed to solely by one administrative arm of education, but it may be that one administrative arm has more contributions in one phase than others. In that light let us discuss physical education.

Health as a major objective—There will probably be few of you to dissent from the statement that health is one of the major objectives of all education. Care must be taken not to claim too much for physical education as there are certain elements which determine the health of the individual which are beyond the control of any of the arms of education. Physical education should not be looked upon as a curative measure. You cannot prescribe an exercise for typhoid, tonsillitis or chicken pox, and it is questionable whether physical education sets up any general immunity to these diseases—at least in this article none is claimed.

Members of the physical education profession and members of the medical profession have claimed that physical education has no relationship to health, but are willing to concede that it has a real contribution in connection with physical fitness. I am willing to accept this distinction, although to my mind it is a distinction without a difference. If health is to be defined as that condition of the organism whereby the maximum amount of physical efficiency will be available in performance of certain tasks, then health is a scale extending from zero to infinity and the place on this particular scale will vary from hour to hour, day to day, and year to year. The place of health on this scale will be partly determined by heredity, partly by environment, and partly by the self-direction of the individual.

Elements which determine the place on the scale:

1. *Heredity*—This element in the situation cannot be changed—it must be accepted.

2. *Building of capacity*—In the light of hereditary possibilities each individual has a maximum capacity which can be built up through activity in properly selected exercises.

How does exercise build capacity? This is an important matter for the physical educator to understand. It involves the problem of training and the same problem is present in the training of a "filly" or the training of an athlete. Observation will show us many types of localized capacity—take for example, the typist who is able to spend day after day at the machine, having built up capacity in the muscles of the fingers and the arms, or take the localized capacity of the player of a wind instrument. A more general type of organic capacity is seen in the postman who is able to cover his twenty-five miles daily with little sign of strain. All these types of capacity have been built up little by little through physical activity.

This capacity must be built in youth and it is applicable where one has to resist long hours of fatigue in connection with executive management of big business, or if he becomes a mountain climber, an arctic explorer, a college professor or a laborer. There is no royal road to the building of capacity—it must be built through exercise.

From the standpoint of the child the following of health rules means sacrifices. The abstaining from the piece of candy between meals is a sacrifice, likewise going to bed early. Even though every act of the child is supervised by parents and teacher, the time will come when this supervision will be at an end and the child will have to be on his own.

The simple conclusion is that the child will follow health rules if he wants to, and he will want to only if he realizes that they have something to give him, namely, that they will be an asset in doing the thing he wants to do. This for years has been the principle of the training table in colleges.

Visualize the college junior—you can always tell him, but you cannot tell him much. In his own eyes he represents the apex of all the civilization of past centuries—the point of departure for all hope of the future. He steps carefully about the campus for fear of crushing the large buildings and freely expresses his opinions of everyone, including "dad and the traffic cop." Imagine this young man presenting himself to the training squad and saying, "I want to play football." The coach looks him over and says "all right, bring your suitcase down. From now on until the end of the season I am going to tell you how many hours you sleep, when to go to bed, when to get up, what to eat for breakfast, lunch, and dinner, how many rides to take in automobiles, how many dances to attend, and if you violate one of these rules out you go," and this young man with the exalted ego, salutes and says, "Yes, sir." Why does he do it? Why doesn't he talk back to him like he does to the traffic officer? Because the coach has control of something that young man wants to do. He submerges his personality and the things that he generally wants to do and that the other boys are doing, because he wants to do something else more.

This principle must eventually be the principle for the establishing of health habits. The child must see the relationship between the thing that he has to do in the way of a health habit and the thing he wants to do.

Now what do children want to do? A canvass of thousands of children show that they want the satisfaction which comes from approval of the group, just as adults do, and at this age approval is given largely because of physical prowess. The child wants to run faster, jump higher, climb quicker, hit farther, and so forth. They want to be Babe Ruth's and Charlie Paddock's. If you can help them to be the thing they want to be they will follow any rule you set down, and the more severe it is the greater will be their joy in following.

Physical education then has a definite contribution to make in the field of the establishment of wholesome health habits because it is in the field of physical education that children want to achieve and in that field health habits can be established.

The relationship of joy to health—We are just beginning to realize that health, bodily health, cannot exist except in the presence of joy. Jennings reminds us: "When the organism is taken up with intense emotion, particularly painful emotion, digestion stops, excretion stops, growth stops, respiration almost stops."

The emotions of fear, worry, lonesomeness, homesickness, anger, etc., have a similar effect. The positive side of this picture is the absence of these emotions, which is represented by just old-fashioned happiness. The one way to rid the organism of these emotions is to promote joy. It is of little use to say to the person who is worried "Don't worry," or to the person who is lonesome "Don't be lonesome," but both of these can be eliminated by the promotion of joy. Hence, physical education through its promotion of play activities has a big contribution to make in connection with the promotion of joy which alone can insure the absence of intense emotion which hinders growth and stops development.

Impulsive development—In addition to making a real contribution to health through the development of organic capacity, the stimulation of health habits in the lives of children, and the promotion of joy, physical education has a real contribution to make in connection with the training of the impulses.

In the games of childhood and youth the most powerful impulse tendencies of human nature are exercised. Character traits are developed. In the social situation surrounding the game the temptation may be strong to be unsportsmanlike and violate the rules for the sake of winning, if good leadership is lacking. Probably the first time a child distinguishes right from wrong is when other children point at him and say, "You didn't play fair." Playground activities offer a tremendous range of opportunities for guiding the development of the impulses in an approved direction.

It will not be possible for me to go into the contribution which physical education has made to intelligent training, but I will merely hint at the fact that it is in the child's play activities that the basis is laid for his interpretive thinking. Might I remind you that words never carry meanings? That is readily realized when you think of listening to a foreign

language. In order for the words to mean anything to you they must stir meanings in your own life. Words, then, don't carry meanings, they stir meanings and those meanings must be built up by experience. It is in early play life that many of these experiences are built up.

The directors of physical education of this country must determine whether or not we are to be merely an exercise group of people, as we have been too largely in the past, or whether we are to be a group of educators taking our place in the great field of education, striving to make socially desirable changes in the lives of children, so that they may not only take their places physically strong, but with an emotional "want" to give to their groups, the communities in which they live, a little more than they expect from them.

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*, 1894:951. It was first known as the Department of Natural Science Instruction.

The officers of the Department for the year 1928-29 are: *President*, Francis D. Curtis, Associate Professor of Secondary Education, University of Michigan, Ann Harbor, Mich.; *Secretary*, E. Lawrence Palmer, Professor of Natural Science, Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y. This Department meets once each year, in July. 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	1916:699-751	1922:1239-1267
1896: 937-968	1903:847-897	1910: 949-969	1917:535-557	1923: 843-861
1897: 916-959	1904:843-897	1911: 939-993	1918:295	1924: 753-775
1898: 959-985	1905:781-827	1912:1153-1195	1919:289	1925: 598-609
1899:1097-1118	1906:719	1913: 695-717	1920:305-309	1926: 624-636
1900: 592-609	1907:951-959	1914: 721-773	1921: 663-667	1927 583-597
1901: 771-803	1908:965-999	1915: 995-1029		

THE RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF THE BIOLOGICAL AND THE PHYSICAL PHASES OF SCIENCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

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SOMEONE has well said that the purpose of education is to prepare for living. Biology defines living as adaptation to environment. A changing environment demands a changing adaptation. Our scientific environment has changed so rapidly in recent years as to be bewildering. Hence, constant adaptation and change are necessary in science instruction to enable it to fulfill its purpose. A perfect adjustment today may be quite unsuitable tomorrow.

In years past at a time when our population was largely rural, elementary science in the grades, under the name of nature study, was limited largely to the study of wild plants and animals. Whatever may be said about the advisability of such instruction in those days, modern environment today requires a very different type of material. Many changes that have been taking place all point in this direction.

In the first place, we are becoming less and less a rural nation and more and more an urban one. The modern large city offers little opportunity for the study of wild plants and animals. In the second place, many inventions, such as the automobile and the radio, have become a vital part of the life of the entire nation, rural as well as urban. Radio interests a much larger number of people than do wild flowers.

The influence of these and many other inventions reaches even to the youngest child. There is something about each of these that is within his comprehension. It is the task of the teacher who knows children to find what these phases are.

Still another important viewpoint to consider is the child's response to the topics under consideration. The pioneering that has been done in teaching the physical phases of science shows that children are greatly interested in these topics when they are properly presented. Therefore, these considerations lead to the conclusion that in teaching elementary science in the grades, less stress should be placed on the biological phases and more on the physical phases than has been done in the past.

THE LARGER ASPECT OF NATURE STUDY—ABSTRACT

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There are nine points which would be valuable for us to consider if we are interested in making nature study teaching more scientific from the pedagogical point of view.

For many years nature study teachers have been teaching their subject each in his own way. In some schools excellent results have been obtained. After the same fashion the programs of our annual meetings

have been arranged. Each program maker has selected some topics and given them to various people of ability to discuss. Many of these papers have been inspirational but they have led us nowhere.

This is an age of organization. If nature study teaching is to be as effective as we can make it our efforts must be organized. The American Nature Study Society and the National Supervisors of Nature Study and Gardening must work hand in hand trying to solve some of our national problems in nature study.

The necessity of this coordination of effort is evident when we study the various books on nature study that are being published now and the many courses of study that are being used in some of our schools.

How to reach this goal of teaching the child an appreciation of his environment no two books and no two courses of study agree. Our two national organizations should tackle this problem and work together until we solve the problem of how nature study should be taught.

Our two national organizations—The American Nature Study Society and the National Supervisors of Nature Study and Gardening—should appoint a joint committee to work with the professors of nature study to make a common nomenclature to be used in titles of nature courses and in catalog descriptions of the content of these courses. Results from this work will be a start in putting us all on the same road so that we can understand each other better and so we shall be able to work together to better advantage.

The next big labor of these two national organizations should be to determine the major goals to be achieved in our nature work and to decide what the most important objectives are in these various goals.

Another problem which our two national organizations should solve is that of the nature study tests. Other subjects of the curriculum such as arithmetic, language, reading, etc. have achievement and appreciation tests. These tests are not considered satisfactory, it is true, but still the research workers have made enough of a beginning to have these tests used in many schools throughout the United States. Each year the tests are improved and some of them now are quite satisfactory.

Our two national organizations should appoint a joint committee to study the subject of nature tests. This committee should have copies of all the tests in nature study that have been made up to this time. These tests should be studied and a report should be made on the results of the investigation at the next meeting of each society.

A joint committee of six members from our two organizations should be appointed for three years. The personnel of this committee should be composed of representatives from the early, later elementary, junior high and senior high schools and teacher's colleges. This committee should report before each of our organizations next year. Results of the investigations of this committee should be sent to each nature study supervisor in sufficient time before the meeting so that an intelligent discussion from all angles can be made.

The second year this committee should use the basis of their investigation and the results of the discussion at the meetings to produce a series of nature tests.

The third year this committee should improve the tests after they have been tested by the teachers.

Just as soon as superintendents learn that there is a nature test prepared by specialists in the national organizations they will use it and their eyes will be opened to the weaknesses in their systems.

Another joint committee should be appointed to arrange a course of study. We have very excellent courses of study, but each one is biased by the point of view of the author. We should have a course of study which is not the product of any one mind.

Another big problem which our two organizations should solve is the education of superintendents and supervisors to the nature study point of view.

It is the duty and the privilege of our national organizations to concern themselves with the preparation of nature study teachers. A joint committee should be appointed to investigate the methods and contents of nature study courses in the various training schools of our nation. This committee should find out who are the good teachers of our training schools and who are the poor teachers who are sending out our young teachers into the schools. This committee should have a scientifically prepared score card by which to rate teachers. There is a very good reason to believe that our nature study situation would be improved if the teachers' college supervisors were rated as to their ability in teaching nature study. These ratings should be annual and should be made public just as the teachers in the public schools are rated by their supervisors and these ratings are made annually and are made public. The elementary supervisors should also have this rating.

We should have a recording secretary common to both of our organizations who would keep an up-to-date list of nature study teachers.

Another problem that the two organizations should solve is impossible of solution at least for the next few years. Each nature study supervisor should be held responsible for a report each year on the kind of teaching each student is doing. The supervisor should get suggestions from the student teachers on changes in the nature courses in the teacher's colleges so that the young teacher would have better preparation. The young teacher should let her supervisor know the problems that she is meeting and in what ways she has been successful in her teaching.

A joint committee should be appointed to report on the results already obtained from this student teacher report. At our next meeting we should have a report on this piece of research. The professors making the research should explain how it is being done and what difficulties are being met in acquiring the material.

Another important problem is giving the supervisors of early elementary, later elementary, junior high and senior high some nature information and

the nature study point of view, so that they can also function as nature supervisors.

Our organizations should bring influence to bear on the superintendents in having them insist upon their supervisors going to a summer camp for nature teachers every third year. These supervisors should receive a bonus for going to camp just as other teachers receive a bonus for going to summer school. Every teacher of young children should go to a summer camp every other year. Before we can start our propaganda along this line of nature camp work we must have a joint committee appointed to find out which camps give good nature study instruction suitable for teachers.

The last problem which is suggested that we solve is the most important of all and the most difficult of all the problems that we should solve, because it is a question of teaching ideals. In no book of nature study and in no course of study is the spiritual side of nature education mentioned. It is the consensus of opinion of all thinking people that we need spiritual education today more than anything else.

The present generation of intelligent people now coming into their majority does not feel the need of a religion based on dogma. They resent the narrow restrictions made by the religious teachers of the past. There is nothing yet to take the place of these places of religious worship.

Nature study can develop a child spiritually more effectively than any other subject in the curriculum. If properly taught nature study can teach the child the laws of nature, the vastness of God's universes and the delicate nicety of balance of everything in the cosmos. Just as soon as we can get a breadth of view in a generation of young people it will help to solve some of these spiritual problems.

Most of us have lost sight of what education really is. We have become so engrossed with the miraculous facts which are being discovered that we have forgotten what is the most important part of education—the spiritual side of education.

It is not possible—so to vitalize ourselves as to become artistic teachers of the evolving human being by means of a scientific spirit which on the one hand has gradually become convinced that the human heart is a pump and the human body a mechanical engine—this cannot be done on the basis of the feeling and emotions flowing from such a science. It is impossible to evolve a living art of education from the very thing that makes our age so great in the mastery of dead technic.

Here a new spirit must intervene in human evolution—the spirit that leads us away from looking upon man as the embodiment of pumps and wind instruments; a mechanism capable of being understood only by natural-scientific methods. There must enter into man's conception of the spirit the conviction that there is living spirit in all the existence of nature and that it is possible to know this spirit.

Is there any subject in the curriculum which is as vital, which is as free from the deadening domination of a poor teacher, which is as uni-

versal in its appeal to children, which gives to children as broad and clean an idea of life, which gives a lasting pleasure through nature hobbies, which keeps people out of narrow ruts and gives them a breadth of view as good nature teaching does?

We all believe the wonderful power for the good of the child and the future citizen in the effective teaching of nature study. Then let us act. Let us put nature study on a sound basis. Let us make this thing which we know is so beneficial for humanity a reality in the schools.

SCIENCE IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS OF MINNEAPOLIS—ABSTRACT

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Science was introduced in the elementary schools of Minneapolis as nature study in the school year of 1923-1924.

It was planned to include the subjectmatter as an integral part of geography, language, and reading work of each grade and not as a special subject. This plan necessitated the development of a course of study consisting of activities so definitely planned that the room teacher could handle the work without difficulty. The course of study was to be developed and organized through experimentation.

It has been found through five years of experimentation that science occupies a very important place in elementary school. It leads boys and girls to books for verification of their own results, for information which they are unable to get by observation and experimentation, and for satisfaction of interests which their experiments and observations have aroused.

The child in search for solution of his own problems is stimulated to learn by doing. In experimentation he learns to recognize defects and errors, and discovers what constitutes proof. He becomes accustomed to expressing his observations and results of his experiments in accurate English statements. He also learns to cooperate with others and to direct and control himself in specific undertakings.

Through acquaintance with the scientific developments of the times, the child gains an appreciation of the dependence of man upon other life and upon the work of other men.

Science in the elementary schools also gives the child valuable tools for life and citizenship. It makes him alert in observation, develops habits of intelligent inquiry, and trains him in power of judgment. It affords him exercise in challenging statements for accuracy. These are all very desirable characteristics of citizenship.

Science also offers the child wide interests for his leisure hours. Through all the experiences which come from such studies life takes on new meaning and significance to the child. His emotional nature is aroused and developed normally. He grows in learning to see, feel, and act with reason.

THE CONTRACT PLAN OF INSTRUCTION IN SCIENCE

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One of the most vital problems in the instructional field is that of handling individual differences. The educational world recognizes that they exist even after pupils have been classified in accordance with the best mental testing programs. Throughout the country, experimental schools have been putting forth their efforts to meet these differences effectively. The plans that have perhaps received most mention up to the present time are the Dalton, the Winnetka, the Morrison, and the Wisconsin plans.

The system which is generally known as the contract plan, will be explained as developed in the science department.

I. What is a contract?

"A contract is a comprehensive and creative unit of learning in which a genuine and fruitful recognition of individual differences may be realized."¹

A brief interpretation of the definition will be necessary at this point. In the first place, what is meant by a unit of learning in science? What determines its content?

We feel that significant and socially worthwhile principles should serve as the central ideas or guide-lines of each unit. As to what principles are significant and socially worthwhile should be determined by scientific educational investigations along these lines.

After the principles have been decided upon, such subject matter should be used as is necessary to develop and clarify the principles. We do not hesitate to step outside of the content and boundaries of existing school subjects to secure our illustrative and explanatory materials.

The unit becomes "comprehensive" when the pupil understands the principle to such a degree of proficiency that he recognizes it under new and varied circumstances; for example, the principle of pasteurization begins to take on meaning for him when he can interpret its operation and significance in our milk supply stations, condensaries, creameries, etc.

The unit becomes "creative" when the pupil understands the principle so clearly and feels its significance so strongly, that he can and will independently apply it in new situations. For example, to continue the same illustration, if an epidemic of typhoid fever breaks out in his community, his knowledge of the principle of pasteurization should cause him to treat the milk used in his household in accordance with it, until the definite source of infection has been established by health authorities. Again, if he goes camping, uncertainty as to the source of his milk and water supplies should cause him to take necessary precautions by applying his knowl-

¹ Miller, H. L., *Creative Learning and Teaching*, p. 28.

edge of pasteurization until he has had sufficient time to investigate the sources.

The second part of the definition states that a contract is a unit of learning "in which a genuine and fruitful recognition of individual differences may be realized." The individual differences in our system are provided for by the differentiated assignment, which may be called the indeterminate assignment, the three or four level assignment, the A, B, and C, or excellent, good and fair assignments, or levels. The last terminology will be used in this discussion.

In brief, in the "fair" level the underlying principle is developed far enough to afford an understanding of the entire unit. This understanding will be extended and enriched in the "good" and "excellent" levels. It is not necessary nor desirable to draw sharp lines between the levels of work. Mastery of the principle, as outlined in the "fair" level, on the part of every pupil in the class, will supply unity; differentials secured through extension and enrichment of the principle in the "good" and "excellent" levels, will supply variety.

In the contract plan, an attempt is made to challenge every pupil to work up to his capacity. The term "contract" stresses the mutual understanding between the teacher and pupil. The teacher offers the pupil an opportunity to work up to his ability, and promises to grade him according to his achievements; the pupil accepts the challenge and, if successful in his attempts, knows definitely what reward is in store for him.

II. Significant Phases of Directing Study In A Contract.

Three movements manifest themselves throughout a contract, all of which need to be carefully directed by the teacher. They are the problem-raising, the problem-solving, and the organizing and unifying movements.

Problem-raising movement—The question of raising problems necessarily is very prevalent during the first day's work. Teacher and pupils working together forecast the major problems of the unit. If the pupils are given freedom in this movement, and the teacher permits flexibility as to the type and range of problems raised, the pupil's interest and initiative will be greatly stimulated, and the challenge for independent thinking will be fostered.

Although the main problems should be raised early in the "fair" level, others will be suggested as the contract progresses in the higher levels. Interesting and worthwhile problems will serve as the main source of motivation throughout the unit.

Problem-solving movement—The problem-solving movement naturally follows the problem-raising movement. Pupil activity during this movement will manifest itself, in the form of laboratory observations, experimentation, intensive readings, and socialized discussion work.

The teacher becomes the consulting or directing "expert" during the second movement. There are matters of laboratory technic, use of ref-

erence materials, habits of study, scientific reasoning, etc.; all of which need special attention. She must check on the progress of every pupil in the class. This movement is mainly one of individualization. Pupils progress at different rates of speed according to their capacity. They are gradually grouping themselves, however, and the work of the teacher is being transformed into group direction.

Group and class discussion will also give a distinct socialized character to this movement. Many phases of problem solution can be profitably worked out together by pupils and teacher. Strong pupil leaders often can direct some of the work.

Testing for mastery, individually and in groups, begins during the problem-solving movement.

Organizing, unifying movement—The organizing and unifying movement overlaps the second movement. Organization is going on progressively in the notebooks, and in group or classroom discussions. Examinations may be given during this movement to determine mastery, but often the character of organization as worked out in such forms as comparative outlines, extensive problems or projects, will furnish a better and more interesting means of testing a pupil's understanding than can be obtained through objective information tests. By mastery we mean an understanding of the principle so that the pupil can see and interpret it in all its significant aspects or relations; so that he can recognize circumstances under which it would be applicable; and so that he can intelligently apply it when the occasion demands.

The organizing movement can be developed so as to result in a most profitable socialization period. The reports of the solutions of the specific problems or projects should be made to all the members of the class, who will be able to understand and discuss the same because of the common vital essentials mastered by all during the earlier movements. Mutual interest will cause all to participate in a phase of the unit of learning that has been the common goal from the start. It gives the successful, capable pupil much satisfaction and selfconfidence when he realizes that he is in a position to interpret life situations by means of principles discovered and explained by his own efforts; he has accomplished "comprehensive and creative" work on a high plane. In the eyes of the class, he has become the "expert" in the solution of his particular problem.

As is the case in the other two movements, the organizing movement also needs to be carefully directed by the teacher. The goal is always to make the pupil selfactive and selfdirective; yet expert guidance is needed by the most capable pupil in order to develop his skills and understandings and scientific thinking on a progressively higher plane. He is being trained to become a leader, and fully as much time on the part of the teacher should be devoted to his development as to that of the less capable pupil.

III. Use of the Three Movements in Building Up a Contract.

All three movements are integrated in setting up a contract. They are not arranged in steps, but frequently overlap.

In the early part of the "fair" level, the problem-raising movement is prevalent, although it features in the higher levels as well. The problem-solving movement is begun in the "fair" level and continued throughout the unit. Organization may begin at the end of the "fair" level, and is emphasized strongly in the other two levels. Testing for mastery is progressive on the three levels as pupils gain in capacity and attitude. Individualization predominates in the "fair" work; socialization increases as the work progresses on the higher planes. The entire procedure needs to be directed by the teacher.

Perhaps the main difference between the three levels of a contract lies in the nature of the problems offered for solution. We feel that it is the problem that challenges a pupil to think. If the nature of the unit is such that the underlying principles can be discovered (re-discovered) by the pupil himself by means of problems, the results are far more impressive. This type of problem is placed in the "fair" level. Their solution provides the pupil with an understanding that is to become the "pulsating core" of the entire contract.

In the "good" and "excellent" levels the problems become progressively more difficult and involving. The original principle should be interpreted under various and more complicated circumstances; it should be put to use, preferably by applying it in life situations. By means of these problems, a richly diversified curriculum is projected; and "every pupil is expected to work in the integrating contract at these points where energizing is most productively exemplified."¹

Flexibility is most essential in this type of work. We can and perhaps should agree as to the general principles which are to be developed in any science course; but the problems to be raised in connection with each, and their methods of solution should be left to the ingenuity of the teacher and the interests of the pupils. The availability of subject-matter will also greatly influence the character of the problems.

CLASSROOM PLANS FOR THE TEACHING OF SCIENCE IN THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL—ABSTRACT

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One of the outstanding needs of the small high school is a combined laboratory and classroom which will adequately provide for the sciences offered in these schools and at the same time be so arranged that it may be used for other classwork such as mathematics, history, etc. In searching for a type of installation adapted to the needs of the small high school,

¹ Miller, H. L., *Creative Learning and Teaching*, p. 106.

the authors concluded after extensive investigation to use a T type of installation.

Briefly summarized the combination laboratory and classroom as proposed in this paper offers the following advantages: (1) It provides a flexible arrangement of the science room to take care of classes from six pupils up to twenty-four pupils in a given science. (2) It meets the needs of the small classes and also makes adequate provision for economical expansion in the future. (3) It furnishes a plan for high schools without water, sewer, or gas connections such that these connections may be added later. (4) It offers a science room for the small high school that can teach only one science and provide a room that may be used for other classes as mathematics, history, etc. (5) It provides for a greater percentage of use of the floor space than is now possible in the usual science installation. (6) It makes possible the installation of the necessary furniture for a class of six pupils and also makes provision for increasing the room capacity up to a maximum of twenty-four pupils. (7) It can be used for any teaching combination that the science instructor may be called upon to handle in the small high school. (8) It provides such an arrangement that the pupils may work in groups of four, two, or individually, depending upon the equipment available or the requirement of a particular experiment. (9) It provides a room for a three-year or four-year science sequence with ample storage space for the items commonly used in these subjects. (10) It is possible to shift from class to laboratory work with the least confusion and loss of time. It furnishes a plan whereby the essential furniture for the classroom and stockroom may be installed with provisions made to add the desirable or necessary equipment as the science work expands. (11) It furnishes an ideal arrangement for supervised study, or for work in science based on the contract plan or unit plan. (12) It provides a common storeroom for all science equipment.

THE PRESENT STATUS OF LECTURE-DEMONSTRATION VERSUS THE LABORATORY—ABSTRACT

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There have been more than a dozen experimental studies made on this particular matter of determining whether or not the extensive and expensive use of the laboratory in secondary school science was justified. The use of the lecture-demonstration has been thought by a good many to be equal to, if not superior to individual laboratory work, besides being much more economical of time and expense.

The gist of the findings from these experimental studies seem to support these contentions. Measurements by means of tests of information about experiments performed by both methods agree quite well in showing the lecture-demonstration equal in immediate recall. There seems on the whole, however, to be some advantage for the individual laboratory method in the

measurement of retained information, though this is not wholly exclusive, nor the difference great.

Many teachers of science, however, are not convinced and are unwilling to admit that the main stay of instruction in science as opposed to other fields, the laboratory method, should be done away with.

The main contention seems to be that the tests used so far do not measure certain very desirable abilities gained from the pursuance of laboratory work. These teachers still claim that skill in manipulation and real acquaintance with scientific instruments and methods, will come only through actual individual work in the laboratory.

There seems to be very little evidence on either side of this latter controversy. The question of the objectives of laboratory work in relation to the course is raised. What are the objectives of the courses in science and is the laboratory essential to the accomplishment of these objectives? For what purpose should a pupil learn to use the devices formed in our laboratories? Why should he learn to manipulate these devices? Are there some devices he should know how to manipulate? Can he not get fairly well acquainted with scientific instruments by seeing an expert manipulate them? Such questions must be answered conclusively. More evidence must be procured. Many more controlled experiments must be performed in order to get the necessary data.

If the progress of natural science has been due largely to knowledge gained through controlled experimentation, so we may look confidently to such methods for the discovery of knowledge in the field of educational procedures.

THE SCIENCE PROBLEMS OF AN EDITOR

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The first problem of an editor is to keep informed on what is being done in the educational world—and this little job keeps him stepping from the dance hall to the pulpit and from the center of the earth to the rim of a neighboring galaxy some nine hundred thousand light years away. His next problem is to find those who know about these things and who can tell them interestingly, correctly and briefly. Teachers want to know the latest developments in subjectmatter, in methods of presenting it, in testing results, and in educational theory, but they do not have time to go through the long process the investigator followed in order to learn his findings. It often happens that those who know really new things cannot tell them in the manner prescribed. This may not be due to any deficiency in ability in English composition but rather in failure to understand the audience. Being a research worker he writes to satisfy the critical minds of other investigators, hence his investigation is told in detail with all the contributing factors discussed and weighed so that his work can be verified by others. His report should be available in this form, but in this

form it will never be read by many teachers. For use in the teacher's journal the complete report should be boiled down to a bare statement of the problem and results obtained, giving reference to the complete report. The average teacher does not have the time to verify the conclusion hence must accept the results through faith in the author or publication, just as most of us take the medicine our chosen doctor prescribes. He prefers to accept the conclusion reached if indorsed by a publication in which he has confidence rather than to worry through a mass of details to determine its reliability.

This is unfortunate for some types of research, because publication in the educational journals is in many cases the only possible means of getting research reports in permanent form. There should be funds available for publishing all such reports in monograph form, and distributing them free to libraries and institutions where similar investigations are in progress. This would make it possible to abstract these reports for use in the teachers' journals, thus promoting rapid distribution of the results and correlating the work in separate institutions. Moreover, by this method more teachers and administrators would be able to keep up with the progress of research and we would not have the unfortunate condition that frequently results in whole school systems carrying out theories and determining procedures by methods and devices that have been discarded for a decade by their original proponents.

Some of the societies for promoting research have solved their problem by establishing journals for their reports but these go only to those engaged in this work who must have the reports and hence are willing to pay the price. Now and then a teacher is a member of such an organization but in general his journals remain in their wrappers from one month to the next. Such journals are not for the public and publications of a different type must disseminate the information they contain. This work of preparing the information for distribution requires a particular type of ability which, unfortunately, has not been recognized by the research workers, and hence anyone who attempts to do it sacrifices his reputation as a scientist whether he attempts to disseminate knowledge by publication or by good teaching. The editor of a teacher's journal must find men and women with this ability and stimulate them to exercise it. Here is one of the most important of educational opportunities. Colleges should recognize this ability by granting professional advancement for good teaching both in the classroom and through publications for teachers and for the public, as well as for research activities and publication. At the present time practically the only incentive for such writing is the pleasure in writing and the satisfaction of having done something of value even though the value is not widely recognized.

There is a decided need for literature of this type. It must contain the news in such an attractive form that it will be sure to reach even the mummies of the profession. It is not difficult to find complacent teachers who have been going along serenely for years, far from the disturbing

influence of any university. They are not members of any professional organization, seldom attend a scientific lecture and find little to interest them in the literature of their subject. But even today class follows class through this same chaos with never a ray of reason shed by a living teacher who can show that there is now well-established theory which has made chemistry a science through which students may travel guided by the compass of reason. Has the editor of a journal for science teachers a problem? Help him correct this condition and you will have changed the study of chemistry for many a boy and girl from a year of agony to a delightful recreation for life. The science journal may do much for the teacher in the rut but mental telepathy will not work. The journal must reach him and to do so the articles must entertain him and stimulate him to read on. This may be jazz to the high brow but even the saxophone is now accorded a place in the symphony orchestra.

Another type of article for which there is always room is one which explains in understandable language some rather difficult phase of old subjectmatter. The difficult parts of any subject must be repeated time and again if one is to arrive at anything like complete comprehension. This is especially true of those principles of science which have a mathematical basis. In college courses students are rushed through one course after another, being merely exposed to the more difficult things. This means that the young teacher—and in this respect some of us stay young a long time—meets many things in his special subject that are at best only barely visible through a dense cloud or probably completely obscured.

Every subject has difficulties of this type and brief discussions of such topics are suitable material for the science teacher's journal, when written in such manner that the teacher will see the topic in a new light or that it will give him a new method of presenting the topic to his pupils.

This brings us to the next type of article which should have a prominent place in the teacher's journal. In it the emphasis is on presentation rather than on subjectmatter. Here the teacher by a long process or a series of sieges has completely mastered the subjectmatter but cannot prepare a method of presentation that will enable his pupils to arrive at mastery by any shorter or more economical route than the one he has followed. Here is the place where classroom teachers can be of great value to each other. Who has not hit upon some recitation plan that has proved highly successful in presenting a particular topic? Often the entire plan seems so simple and easy that you wonder why you never thought of it before and assume that it must be in use by thousands of others. My advice is, do not make this assumption but write up your plan and send it to your journal. This is the type of article most in demand and one of the hardest to get.

In the laboratory subjects the success or failure of a demonstration may depend entirely upon some very little point in technic.

The United States has always been behind in its support of research. We vote taxes for the things we think we need, or that will be of value

to us, but taxpayers in general do not understand the value of research. In state institutions the schools or departments of pure science have in many cases been forced to ally themselves with the technical and agricultural schools in order to secure any appropriation for pure science from the state legislatures. The administrative officers of these technical schools have usually been quite willing to form such alliances because their progress depends upon the progress of pure science, but the public through their legislators will not support pure science because they do not see its value. Popular education in this respect is the cure and research workers who do not encourage such education are crippling their own industry. The colleges and universities must give more attention to popular education, a very important phase of which is the publication of books and periodicals for teachers and pupils in the elementary and secondary schools.

NEEDED RESEARCH IN SCIENCE TEACHING

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It seems platitudinous to remark that the need for research in science education is in the first place to determine what people need to know about science and in the second place to determine how the people (children in particular) may most economically and effectively learn what they need to know. Yet for purposes of this discussion it is convenient to organize our thoughts around these two questions. In other words, the major problems are in the fields of the curriculum and learning. And these two fields are by no means mutually exclusive for the curriculum must set forth the major goals for learning, and it must in some measure array the learning elements which are essential to the accomplishment of these goals.

The findings from scientific study has enormously enlarged our mental horizon. Factual knowledge has supplanted erroneous beliefs and mythological explanations. There is need for systematic research which shall be directed toward the determination of other large conceptions and generalizations which are and which may wholesomely influence our social and mental adjustments. There is need for careful analytical study to determine the major conceptions and generalizations which science has contributed and there is need for an evaluation of these which shall determine the ones that are of most consequence to general training. It is not sufficient for us to say that science has completely transformed our manner of living. Curriculum workers must state as their objectives the conceptions and generalizations which are the background of this transformation, and they must array learning experiences which will contribute the largest possible understanding of them.

The curriculum study must recognize the principles of educational psychology which relate to the question of how children learn. With the objectives of science stated in terms of large conceptions and generalizations which have been adequately tested for their educative value we may next study the means whereby children may come to the largest possible understanding of them. It seems safe to say that however broad and com-

plete our understanding of a scientific principle or conception is, we have come to that understanding as a result of a variety of educational experiences ranging from very simple ones toward those which are more complex. For a program of experimental teaching it would seem proper for the experimenter to analyze the large concept into the learning experiences by means of which he himself came to an understanding of the concept and then to set his teaching experiment so that the learning experiences revealed by his analysis may be tested for their effectiveness for building up a similar understanding of the concept in the mind of the learner.

How shall we teach the scientific attitudes and the scientific methods? It must be clear that one cannot teach a scientific attitude until the attitude has been objectified by a clear definition. May we say for example that a scientific attitude is developed from appreciation of the fact that man's conception of truth changes? If this definition is acceptable it would seem that the most effective way to develop this attitude is by taking the learner through a variety of learning experiences which illustrate how man's conception of the truth respecting some particular thing (the age of the earth for example) has changed. There is need for research which will reveal clearer definitions of the scientific attitudes and for research which will reveal the teaching situations by means of which the learner may come to a functional understanding of them.

With this brief analysis, which, it seems, suggests some of the ultimate ends of science education, it is appropriate to turn our attention to the teaching devices. Some of these have had so much attention of recent years that there has been some tendency to look upon them as ends of education. One is led to wonder if some research isn't needed to establish or deny what seems to be an assumption on the part of many teachers of physics and chemistry, that a major objective of their courses is to make a laboratory notebook. But this objective is at once denied when the issue is faced squarely and this as well as laboratory teaching, directed study, field trips, etc., are recognized as means and not as ends. If the major premise of this paper is established then it must follow that the studies of methods of laboratory instruction must be resolved into studies which will determine the learning experiences and which will evaluate the learning which may be derived therefrom. There can be no acceptable general statement of which method of laboratory instruction is best. The fundamental question is, how may we set learning situations which are best for the accomplishment of definable objectives.

The problems pertaining to the laboratory notebook are similar to those which relate to the laboratory itself. It must be true, if the notebook has any place in science teaching, that its place is justified by the fact that it contributes learning experiences which are helpful for accomplishment of definable objectives. There is need for research which will determine what the possible learning experiences are and for research that will show how these experiences may be made real for the learner.

Similar questions relate to the problems of directed study, the contract plan, etc. These are to be recommended provided they incorporate de-

vices whereby the teacher may most effectively provide the richest learning experiences. Textbooks, tests, and the library readings should all be evaluated in terms of the same general principle, what learning experiences may each contribute which will result in more complete accomplishment of definable objectives. Extension of such study will result not only in evaluation of experiences but in the definition of new ones.

The relation of learning experiences and objectives is such a fundamental consideration that it seems as if those reports of investigations in which this relationship is not clarified are almost in vain. Education must be directed toward the accomplishment of worthy objectives. The fundamental educational research is that which is directed toward definition of these objectives. After these have been defined the research which is then most fundamental is that which will discover and set forth the learning experiences which will result in functional understanding of the objectives. In my opinion, all research in the field of science teaching must be subservient to these two considerations.

It must be evident that research which has been referred to as fundamental to the field of science teaching cannot be carried on by untrained workers. The worker must be a student of present day problems of civilization for he must determine whether or not and in what way science may contribute to the problems of the day. He must be a student of science in order that he may know what there is in the field that may have this functional value and he must be a student of psychology in order that he may define the learning experiences by means of which the learner may come to an understanding of the important science concepts and to an understanding of how these concepts from science may be related to the larger social problems. Accomplishment of such a program of research will require the services of many trained individuals. The program lends itself to analysis and the analysis shows divisions of the problem to which individual workers may apply themselves.

THE SCIENCE YOUNG FOLKS WANT

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The editor of a science classroom paper is exceedingly anxious to find out what young people really want to know in science. His first aim is to interest them, although to instruct them ranks an exceedingly close second. The science of yesterday and today, combined, covers an immeasurable area, and selection of topics for presentation is imperative. It would seem most reasonable to let the children aid in the choice of topics that should interest and instruct them. In fact, it seems more than reasonable; it seems wise. Perhaps it is more than reasonable and wise; it is honest—a "square deal" to the young folks.

Our young people look to the stars! They are eager for stories of the heavens! They thrill to the tales of comets (no joke is intended), and of the meteors! The moon has her moods and the sun his mysteries; they

seeks figuratively to add to literal light. No subject appeals to the young folks like astronomy.

Next in their choice comes the marvels of communication, and third, the thrills of transportation. No doubt the radio presented the main appeal in the former, and aviation in the latter, although railroad locomotives have not lost their appeal to the youthful mind.

May we point out a few adolescent aversions before passing on. High-school students do not love their physiology. We hope that teachers in the earlier grades have not made this subject an unhappy reminiscence. The students do not beg for more information of a geographical nature, yet surely no one has purposely blighted their curiosity along this line. They do not crave physics—a vain dislike for a large proportion of their general science texts will present them a diet richer in physics than in any other ingredient.

The students' own selections in science—There is a distinct difference between originating, and simply choosing; between nominating, or merely voting. It is not enough that children have ranked a list of science topics which we have ourselves suggested to them. What fields of science, we wonder, would they pick for themselves?

During the past several months it has been possible to persuade students in junior high-school science classes to send their own choice under the heading, "The Things in Science That Interest Me Most." Their letters, postmarked from coast to coast, as a rule came singly, and thus are believed to be the fruit of spontaneous interest rather than teachers' assignments. The students were not the same that participated in the previous test. One thousand twenty-eight suggestions were made to us, a median of five per pupil. From boys, there were 526 suggestions; from girls, 502. Suggestions from pupils living east of the Mississippi numbered 443; from west of the river, 585. This distribution, both by sex and by section, was pleasing to us.

Only topics proposed by more than ten students are included in the accompanying tables. The miscellaneous group of suggestions, however, is but 11 percent of the whole.

TABLE I.—HOW JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS RANK SCIENCE TOPICS OF THEIR OWN SELECTIONS

Topic	Suggestions	Topic	Suggestions
Astronomy	114	Industry	26
Aviation	91	Geography	28
Inventions	70	Agriculture	23
Biography	27	Discovery	22
Animals	54	Home science	17
Health	44	Science questions	17
Radio	44	Short science items	17
Nature	41	Ocean	14
Plants	37	Insects	12
Chemistry	36	Science jokes	12
Electricity	36	Foods	11
Travel	35	Physics	11
Birds	33	Miscellaneous	123

We learn that young folks seek the lore of the heavens. This seems to be their spontaneous desire. Though offered the stones of more formal science, they cry for the bread of astronomy with which to feed and fire their souls. After this, they ask for news of aviation. Lindbergh, Byrd, Chamberlain, and other daring spirits are responsible for this. Our youngsters are hero-worshippers; this we have known, if we have even an elementary understanding of the adolescent child. Yet what capital have science teachers actually made of this great emotion? The calls next in number were for inventions—any inventions (for the type was rarely specified) that would show the ingenuity of man. Then, most appropriately, there comes in fourth rank the requests for biographies, the human sides of science and invention, representing a further call of the instinct of hero-worship.

It should also be pointed out that animate nature ranks high in the desires of young people for more knowledge. If we combine all the separate calls for topics concerning living creatures, we will have the highest rank-

TABLE II.—HOW BOYS AND GIRLS SELECTED AND RANKED SCIENCE TOPICS

Boys—526		Girls—502	
Topic	Suggestions	Topic	Suggestions
Aviation.....	56	Astronomy.....	63
Astronomy.....	51	Aviation.....	35
Inventions.....	40	Biography.....	33
Radio.....	32	Animals.....	31
Electricity.....	29	Inventions.....	30
Biography.....	27	Health.....	26
Travel.....	24	Plants.....	23
Animals.....	23	Nature.....	21
Nature.....	20	Birds.....	19
Chemistry.....	17	Chemistry.....	19
Agriculture.....	18	Industry.....	15
Health.....	18	Discovery.....	12
Geography.....	15	Radio.....	12
Birds.....	14	Geography.....	11
Plants.....	14	Ocean.....	11
Industry.....	13	Travel.....	11
Discovery.....	10	Home Science.....	9
Short science items.....	9	Science questions.....	9
Home Science.....	8	Foods.....	9
Science questions.....	8	Science jokes.....	8
Insects.....	5	Physics.....	8
Science jokes.....	4	Short science items.....	8
Foods.....	3	Electricity.....	7
Ocean.....	3	Insects.....	7
Physics.....	3	Agriculture.....	5
Miscellaneous.....	62	Miscellaneous.....	61

ing for the composite field of nature in general. There can be no doubt whatever as to the strong interest of the adolescent in plant and animal life. The young people, however, ask for these aspects of nature separately, just as they consider electricity and radio to be separate matters which are not uniformly interesting.

Let us again consider the aversions of these young people as complements of their preferences. While we are not justified in counting no vote as a vote "No," yet there is a striking lack of interest in physics as

a subject, this title ranking lower even than science jokes in the table. The topic "foods" is also held in low esteem; obviously the liking which these youngsters have for food is strictly concrete, never abstract.

Is there a boy's science, and a girl's science?—It might be expected that boys and girls of this age would have distinctive preferences as to science topics. The tabulation of ranks for each sex has been made so that these differences might be studied. About the only change of consequence concerns the topic "Electricity," which most girls frankly do not care to study further. The mathematical computation for the coefficient of correlation¹ shows that the agreement between the sexes is really very marked.

The wise science teacher may minimize any suggestion that boys and girls of this age have distinctly separate interests in science.

Interests in science change—A few years hence there will be many substitutions in this list of interesting fields which the young folks have selected. This is inevitable; only if science ceased its advance would their interests become crystallized. The greatest truth in this entire study is that young people of high-school age ardently desire to keep up with the newest of science happenings, and those which will possibly have the most influence upon civilized life as they expect to live it in the days to come. It is obvious that they seek to go much farther than their books. Alert science teachers will heed their calls. There is much material in science that begins where the textbook ends. Conscientious science teachers will find it, and use it.

¹ Computed according to Pearson's formula, which takes account of both the rank and size of each item in the lists compared.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, J. Stevens Kadesch, Headmaster, Senior High School, Medford, Mass.; *First Vicepresident*, Truman G. Reed, Principal, Central Intermediate High School, Wichita, Kans.; *Second Vicepresident*, William Ferdinand Ewing, Assistant Superintendent, Principal of Schools, Oakland, Calif.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, H. V. Church, 3129 Wenonah Ave., Berwyn, Ill. (or Superintendent of Morton Secondary Schools, Cicero, Ill.); *Executive Committee*, Galem Jones, Principal, High School, Port Arthur, Texas; E. H. Kemper McComb, Principal, Emmerich Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Ind. 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
				1927: 599-677

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF SOVIET RUSSIA

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THE history of education offers no parallel to the transformation which has been worked in the educational system of Russia since the 'October revolution. As a direct consequence of this great upheaval the control of education was at once shifted to a new social class, the purpose of education was fundamentally altered, and the very conception of education was greatly widened. In obedience to these changes and within the brief space of ten years the entire educational program has been reconstructed, the administrative organization has been made to assume a new form, the system of schools has been profoundly modified, many new educational institutions have been created, the materials of instruction have been overhauled, and the methods of teaching have been reformulated. In a word, an altogether new turn has been given the evolution of education in Russia. This fact is indisputable. What of good or ill it may hold for either the Russian people or the world at large, only the passing years can reveal. But it is an event of such magnitude that it can be neither ignored nor forgotten.

The purpose of education—The most significant change which has been effected by the Revolution is of course the change in the purpose of education. Under the old régime the school was an instrument for the support of the House of Romanoff, the Greek Church, and, in general, the social and political status quo. Under the new régime the school is an instrument in the hands of a dominant minority engaged in the creation of a socialistic and cooperative commonwealth. To be sure, according to official pronouncements, education in Soviet Russia embraces the three-fold purpose of fostering the development of an efficient economic system, of promoting the organization of the political life of the union, and of furthering the evolution of national cultures. But achievement in each of these three realms is appraised in terms of a collectivistic social ideal. The present rulers of Russia, knowing that their own vision of a more perfect society is neither understood nor shared by the great majority of the population, are seeking through every agency available to transmit that vision to the coming generation. From top to bottom the entire educational structure is dominated by the urgent need of rearing a valiant and militant generation imbued with the ideals of socialism and eager to defend the Revolution before the world. The school in Russia today is dedicated to the twofold task of guarding and maturing the new social order born in the years of war. It is for this reason that the present educational experiment merits the attention of the world. Never before in history has the school been pointed so completely and purposefully towards a great social objective.

The control of education—If the foregoing purposes of education are to be achieved, the question of the control of education takes precedence

over all other considerations. Absolute control must be secured by that selfconscious minority which is committed to the creation of the new order. Since this minority is the Communist Party and since the state is ruled by the Party, the desired result is secured by making education a function of the state. Practically all education in Russia today, therefore, is in the hands of the government. In the field of special and technical education limited opportunities are extended to private enterprise; but, with a few unimportant exceptions, all institutions engaged in the promotion of general education are controlled by the state.

The reason for the differential treatment of general and special education is patent. The present government is primarily concerned in organizing those phases of education which shape social attitudes and ideals. Since the ordinary forms of technical education, such as instruction in type-writing, surveying, or foreign language, can have but little influence on the economic and political philosophy of the student, the state may safely entrust this type of education to other agencies. On the other hand, if diverse interests were permitted to teach history, civics, economics, morals, philosophy, or even the natural sciences, the state might find itself hampered in its efforts to create a pre-conceived order of society. The present government regards the school, as it regards the army, as an instrument for achieving predetermined ends. For this reason the entire field of general education, or social education, as it is very appropriately called in Russia, is monopolized by the state.

The fact that education in the Soviet Union is almost exclusively a state function does not mean that education is controlled by the central government. As a matter of fact, in the formation of educational policy and in the administration of the program, complete autonomy is granted each of the six republics which comprise the union. Except for the conferences of the several commissars of education, which are commonly held three times a year, each republic is apparently allowed to go its own way. However, an examination of policies, programs and institutions in four republics suggests the conclusion that this autonomy is largely illusory. Everywhere policies, programs and institutions are much the same. The explanation of this apparent contradiction is to be found in the influence of the Communist party. Since the more important questions are decided by this organization, and since the area of its dominance is coterminous with the boundaries of the union, educational theories and practices are everywhere in fundamental harmony. Under present conditions it could not be otherwise.

With respect to the education of the national minorities, Russia has pursued a policy of unusual interest. The cultural composition of the union is extraordinarily complex. Within its borders and within the boundaries of each of the more important republics will be found many minority groups, each possessing its own language and institutions. And the complexities of the problem are increased because these various groups differ enormously in both the content and the level of their social attain-

ments. There exists in Russia today every stage of culture from semi-nomadism to the highest type of western civilization. Thus, in addition to Russians, Ukrainians, Poles, Germans, Jews, and Greeks there are Kurds, Tartars, Uzbeks, Bashkirs, Kirghiz, Turkomans, Kalmucks, Buriats, and Votyaks.

To each of these cultural minorities is given some measure of control over the education of its children. In this respect the present government has departed radically from the policy pursued under the Tsar. Each minority is allowed to organize its own schools under its own teachers and in its own language. Moreover, it is permitted to introduce into the program its own literature and art. How complicated a system of schools may become under such a policy is well illustrated by the little republic of Georgia. With a population but slightly in excess of two million inhabitants, schools are now organized in which instruction is given in the Georgian, Armenian, Turkish, Russian, Greek, Ossetin, German, Hebrew, Assyrian, Polish, and Kurdish languages. But this freedom is confined strictly to the field of cultural interests. In the realm of economics and politics rigid adherence to the generally accepted policies of the union is required. Thus, while refusing to follow the precedent of the Empire in an effort to make Russians of all these diverse races and peoples, the rulers of Russia today are endeavoring earnestly to make good Communists of them all. As a price for a certain cultural autonomy they hope to exact a steadfast loyalty to the Revolution. In this they would seem to be building more wisely than their predecessors.

The system of education—The revolutionary government, having made certain of the control of education at all vital points, has created a new system of education. There are institutions of social, professional, and political education. While such an organization of schools may appear at first glance to differ radically from that to which we are accustomed in America, it resembles our system much more closely than it does the traditional systems of Europe. The familiar divisions of elementary, secondary, and higher are not immediately apparent. Moreover, the division of political education is set off by itself and sustains no organic connection with either of the other two divisions. But these differences are traceable, for the most part, to differences in the classification of institutions rather than to any fundamental disagreements in the general organization of education. A survey of the content of each of the three divisions will show this to be the case.

Social education—The basic division of education in Russia is that of social education. It embraces what in America is known as general education. The task of the institutions of social education is to transmit to the rising generation that body of knowledges, habits, attitudes, and dispositions which is regarded as an essential part of the equipment of every citizen of the republic.

On this foundation are erected the institutions to provide those forms of special education which the complexity and diversification of life make

necessary or desirable. If the collateral institutions, such as schools for adolescents, schools for peasant youth, and factory and mill schools be disregarded, the system of social education will be seen to be composed of institutions of three levels. At the bottom of the system are various types of preschool institutions which, though existing today only in very limited numbers, are designed to enrol children during the ages of three to seven years inclusive. Above these institutions is the unified activity school, as it is called, which is divided into primary and secondary divisions. The former, known as the school of first grade, is a four-year institution and normally enrolls children from eight to eleven years of age. The school of second grade then takes the pupil for another five-year period or to the age of seventeen years. This institution, however, is broken into a first division of three years and a second division of two years. A total of fourteen years of social education is thus provided, but as the chart indicates, for a particular individual this form of education may end on the completion of the school of first grade or on the completion of either division of the second grade school. The practice of cutting short the years of social education, according to the authorities, represents necessary but temporary concessions to the economic poverty of the country. They are agreed that the universal extension of the period of social education to seventeen years of age is highly desirable.

In its broader outlines the curriculum content of the schools of social education is not unlike that of our institutions of similar grade. In the preschools emphasis is placed on free activity, habit formation, supervised play, and health; in the school of first grade chief attention is devoted to the acquisition of command over the tools of learning; and in the school of second grade major consideration is given to science, history, mathematics and practical studies.

Throughout the course of social education both the natural and social sciences receive consistent emphasis. The great object of the instruction in the natural sciences is to combat religious influence and to develop in the coming generation a definitely materialistic outlook. That the instruction in the schools is positively anti-religious perhaps could hardly be maintained. Yet in Russia today the notion is current among teachers that faith in either God or the church is a superstition whose survival is a product of ignorance.

The emphasis on history and the social studies is designed apparently to indoctrinate children with the ideals and attitudes of collectivism. In the teaching of history the class struggle is made prominent throughout and an extraordinary amount of time is devoted to the revolutionary movements of the 19th and 20th centuries. Moreover, the story of man's earthly adventures is made to culminate in the Bolshevik revolution of 1917. The heroes of the whole revolutionary movement are made the object of careful study and extreme veneration. And in its consideration of the relations of nations, the school seeks to substitute for the sentiments of nationalism and patriotism the sentiments of proletarian solidarity and

working class loyalty throughout the world. Let any event or movement touching the welfare or fortunes of the workers show itself anywhere in either hemisphere, from the revolution in China to the execution of Sacco and Vanzetti in Massachusetts, and the attention of the children in the schools will be focused upon it. The all controlling purpose of social education in Russia would, therefore, seem to be that of making the coming generation friendly to the revolution, hostile to all counter-revolutionary forces, and eager to further the development of a socialistic and materialistic civilization.

Professional education—Based upon the institutions of social education and articulating with them at various points are the professional and higher schools. Professional education, it should be observed, embraces all forms of vocational and special training and is therefore much wider in scope in Russia than in America. Under the present organization an individual may proceed to the special schools from any one of three levels of social education, depending on the nature of the specialty toward which he is aiming. And corresponding with the three points of departure from the system of social education are three levels of institutions for professional education. To enter the schools, which prepare for the skilled occupations of industry, the student need only to have completed the school of first grade. Above these lower vocational schools, in point of general preparation demanded, are the technicums. These schools may be entered from either the first or the second division of the second grade school. In them are trained the elementary teachers and many other workers who might be regarded as pursuing occupations at the semi-professional level. Of a higher grade than the technicums and articulating only with the second division of the secondary school or with the worker's faculty are the universities. In these institutions are trained the teachers of secondary schools, agronomists, physicians, surgeons, engineers, linguists, historians, mathematicians, and pure and applied scientists of all kind. Above the universities and articulating with them are numerous and varied agencies devoted to scientific research. These institutions may be said to form the capstone of the educational system of Russia.

A consideration of the many points of interest in the system of professional education cannot be attempted here. There is, however, one question of such fundamental importance with respect to the extension of the opportunities of higher education that it merits brief examination. This is the question of admission to the universities. Immediately after the revolution all academic standards were abolished and the doors of the higher schools were opened to members of the working classes regardless of their qualifications. Circumstances gradually forced the abandonment of this extreme position. Today entrance to the universities, even for graduates of the secondary school, is by examination only. Nevertheless, discrimination in favor of the working classes continues. Since the facilities for higher education are inadequate to meet the demand, selection must be made from those who pass the entrance examinations. In this

selection the children of workers and peasants are favored. But the authorities have gone even further and adopted a positive policy with regard to the extension of higher educational opportunities to these classes. Every encouragement, both tangible and intangible in character, is given them to attend the universities. A special institution, the worker's faculty, has been created to prepare them to pass the entrance examinations, and maintenance allowances have been provided for those whose economic condition would otherwise keep them from the higher schools. According to the Commissariat of Public Education, approximately one-half of the students attending the universities today receive monthly stipends for maintenance. Clearly the present government wishes to make absolutely certain that the technicians, intelligentsia, and leaders of the coming generation will be sympathetic towards the ideals of the revolution and the aspirations of the working classes. That this may involve some sacrifice of academic standards and a certain measure of injustice to individuals is fully recognized, but such sacrifice and injustice are regarded as the price which must be paid to insure the safety of the revolution.

Political education—The division of political education has no articulation with the divisions of social and professional education. It lies outside the bounds of the conventional system and is almost completely a product of the revolution. Its great object is that of promoting political education among adults; but since the promotion of political education is practically impossible in an illiterate population, and since the present regime inherited from the Empire an evil legacy of illiteracy, the first charge upon this division of the system is the teaching of reading and writing. The attack on this problem has been undertaken on a large scale and through the instrumentality of many new institutions created for the purpose. Hand in hand with the war on illiteracy has gone the program of political education which has sought to alter the political ideas and philosophies of the entire adult population.

The inclusion of the division of political education within the formal scheme of education constitutes one of the most interesting features of the new program in Russia. In the effort on the part of the government to control and utilize the various social agencies which have educational possibilities nothing has been overlooked, nothing has been left to chance. In its endeavor to reach the population all available channels have been used. The long list of institutions thus brought under the supervision of the Commissariat of Education reveals the thoroughness with which the job has been done. There are the museums, libraries, cottage reading rooms, people's homes, clubs, correspondence courses, and the numerous schools for adults of a more formal type. And to this list might be added many other institutions, some of which, such as the theater, the cinema and the Red army, are as important as those included. In its scope the conception of education which prevails in Russia exceeds that found in any other great country. For this condition the development of the division of political education is largely responsible.

The administrative organization—For the administration of this vast network of educational institutions a correspondingly comprehensive administrative organization has been set up. In harmony with the principles of republic autonomy in the field of education the union as a whole possesses no organization for the administration of education. In this respect the Soviet Union is following a policy not unlike that pursued by the United States. In our country the administration of education is left, for the most part, to the several states. This apparent similarity, however, should not blind us to the fact that whereas the United States, with a population of 120,000,000, is divided into forty-eight states and the District of Columbia, the U. S. S. R., with a population of 145,000,000, embraces but six republics and one of them, the R. S. F. S. R., contains approximately seventy percent of the total population of the union.

Within the R. S. F. S. R. the administrative organization assumes an elaborate form. At its center is the people's Commissariat of Education with offices in Moscow. Radiating from this center are numerous lines of influence which reach into the provinces, the districts, the volosts, and finally the peasant villages. On the whole, the system may be regarded as a highly centralized one. However, each of these local political units, except the village, maintains some organic connection with the institutions of public education and in an informal way even the village may play a part in the management of the primary schools. For the most part policies and programs are formulated by the central authorities and the adaptation of these policies and programs to local conditions is the responsibility of the local officials. An examination of the Commissariat of Education will reveal the more significant features of the administrative organization.

The nucleus of the People's Commissariat of Education, or Narkompros, the abbreviated form commonly employed in Russia, is the Collegium. This body, which is a sort of educational cabinet, is composed of eight members. Presiding over the Collegium, and the official head of public education in the R. S. F. S. R., is the People's Commissar of Education. The members of the Collegium derive their powers directly from the government and are responsible to the government. The People's Commissar is appointed by the Central Executive Committee and the other seven members by the Soviet of People's Commissars. Although a member may hold some other position in the Commissariat of Education at the time he is serving in the Collegium, no member serves *ex officio*. The function of the Collegium is that of any central agency in an administrative organization. It deals with the larger problems, formulates the more general policies, and coordinates the work of the various departments and bureaus. Its conclusions, however, are not final. The court of last resort in such matters, to which all decisions must be submitted for approval, is the Soviet of People's Commissars. The latter may refuse to confirm the action of the Collegium, but in actual practice confirmation is the normal procedure.

Below the Collegium the Commissariat of Education is organized into eight great departments. For the most part these departments are co-ordinate in authority and function, although their importance must vary with the importance of the work performed. In their organization they usually follow the pattern of Narkompros. In general charge of a department is a collegium with a president at its head appointed by the Soviet of People's Commissars and with a number of other members appointed by the Collegium of Narkompros. In addition to these eight departments the Commissariat of Education embraces another institution or agency of great significance—the state publishing house. A brief description of the function of each of the departments will reveal the breadth of the educational program in Russia.

1. *The Department of Literature and Publishing*—This department discharges a broadly social as well as a crucial educational responsibility. Its function is to plan, control and censor all publishing within the Republic. Its influence therefore is felt not only in the schools but in every walk of life. No field of interest escapes its supervision. In every realm it passes judgment on both the number and content of publication. But its authority does not stop here. It is made responsible for the character of theatrical productions and is empowered to censor both the cinema and the legitimate stage. As one contemplates such a concentration of power in the hands of a single agency, one can only hope that those to whom the power is given will have sufficient wisdom to use it aright.

2. *The Council for the Education of National Minorities*—The Russian Republic is a land of diverse races and cultures. This fact greatly complicates the task of formal education and makes necessary extensive modifications and adaptations of general policies and programs to the needs and conditions of numerous national minorities. No single formulation of procedure could possibly meet such dissimilar situations as the cultural diversity creates. To make the necessary adjustments and concessions is the task of this department of the Commissariat of Education. And to insure a sympathetic attitude on the side of the department toward the task, its personnel is made to represent these minorities. The Collegium of the Council today is composed altogether of persons chosen by the minorities.

3. *The Department of Science, Art, and Museum Institutions*—The functions of this department are rather clearly indicated by its title. An examination of the present system of education in Russia showed it to include a great number of scientific institutions, art galleries, and museums. Through this department the administration of all of these institutions is brought under the jurisdiction of the Commissariat of Education and their activities are coordinated with the work of other educational agencies. This department also has control over the exportation of objects of art to foreign countries.

4. *Department of Organization and Administration*—In its organization this department is somewhat different from the other departments.

It possesses no collegium but the coordinating and integrating functions are discharged by a central staff consisting of a president, an assistant, and two inspectors. The major responsibility of the department is that of perfecting the administrative organization of the system of public education. Subsidiary functions performed include the gathering of statistics and information regarding education, the calculation of the social need in the Republic for workers requiring different types of special training, and the financing of all educational institutions supported out of the state budget.

5. *The State Council of Education*—This department is perhaps the most important of the eight departments of Narkompros. It carries the heavy responsibility of working into a single unified program the diverse plans and suggestions emanating from the other departments. It is a sort of educational clearinghouse for ideas and programs. It is also responsible for the appointment of all professors and instructors in the higher institutions. For the performance of these important functions it has an organization much like that of the other departments except that it is a bit more complicated and possesses a somewhat larger staff.

6. *The Department of Social Education*—The major function of this department, as the title suggests, is the development and supervision of the institutions of social education. It shapes programs, develops textbooks, and formulates methods of instruction for these institutions. Under its general supervision fall the preschool institutions, the schools of first grade, and the schools of second grade, as well as various other forms of educational enterprise which are commonly associated with these institutions. The latter would include pioneer exercises, local programs, and certain outside activities of a cultural nature.

7. *The Department of Professional Education*—Under the jurisdiction of this department are placed all forms of vocational, professional, and higher education except those types which are classified under adult education. It is immediately responsible for the curricula and the methods employed in workers' schools, technicums, workers faculties, polytechnics, and universities.

8. *The Department of Political Education*—This department has general charge of the division of political or adult education. It bears the major responsibility for the liquidation of illiteracy and for the political education of workers. It organizes correspondence courses and prepares bibliographies; it supervises libraries and cottage reading rooms; it is responsible for the organization of young people's clubs, it establishes points for the liquidation of illiteracy and outlines courses for selfeducation; and it develops curricula and methods for the schools for political literacy. This department is the most powerful arm of the government in its efforts to reach the adult population in city and village.

The foregoing analysis of the People's Commissariat of Education invites one general comment—a comment which was also suggested by an examination of the system of education. Perhaps the most striking feature

of the Soviet educational program is its breadth and comprehensiveness. Many interests and institutions which in other countries customarily fall outside the field of educational administration have been brought within the province of the Commissariat of Education. Of particular interest in this connection are the Department of Literature and Publishing, the Council for the Education of National Minorities, the Department of Science, Art and Museum Institutions, and the Department of Political Education. Practically all the educational agencies of society, except the home and the church, have been coordinated and made to work toward the same end. Moreover, no age or social group is overlooked; all are embraced in this gigantic program for remoulding the very character of a people.

What the future will bring in the development of educational institutions in Soviet Russia is in the lap of the gods. He would be a rash man indeed who today would mark out the lines of change which will unfold themselves there in the coming years. So vast and varied is the geography, so complex is the cultural pattern, so fluid is the social life, so unknown is the Russian nature, and so many are the variables in the situation that the most astute observer must refrain from prophecy. Whatever may be said therefore regarding the future of education in the Soviet Union must be highly conditional. During the ten years since the Revolution much has been achieved. Today the educational system seems to be developing rapidly and comprehensive plans for further growth have been formulated. However, it must be confessed that the program which the present government has outlined is far from fulfilment, that the material basis of education is very inadequate, and that large developments must wait upon the successful organization of the economic life. Yet, if the Russian people are successful in the solution of their economic problems, if the support of education is provided on a scale as generous as the program adopted, if the country is blessed with peace for half a generation, and if the present government remains in power, the current educational experiment should prove to be one of the greatest educational experiments of history.

PROBLEMS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

PROFESSOR RAJAREM V. GOGATE, CHAIRMAN OF EDUCATION COMMITTEE
OF THE HINDUSTHAN ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA

I consider it a happy privilege indeed to be asked to speak on behalf of my motherland, India. I also wish to express my gratitude to those who have shown this breadth of vision and sympathy of interest in inviting India to participate in this opening session of the national convention of the principals of American secondary schools.

India is a country which occupies a space of about two million square miles with a population comprising one-fifth of the human race. India held a venerable position among the countries that laid the foundation of

human civilization in the early days of recorded history, and she had made amazing progress in industry, commerce, science, politics, art, and philosophy. An unbiased evaluation of the culture and history of India will yield a record worthy of any people.

One-sided picture—Unfortunately, however, due to certain unrestrained, selfseeking, arrogantly selfrighteous forces that have been let loose since the industrial advancement of Western peoples and that have been running amuck, particularly since the institution of nation worship and flag symbolism among the Occidentals, many uncritical, unreliable and totally unsympathetic studies have been made public. According to these studies India is described as a land of teeming population of diverse castes and creeds, a country of contending religions and races where life is still uncertain because of the freedom enjoyed by the snakes and tigers, and where the elephants roam at large. Add to these other beliefs that the entire people of India are given to a sort of religious pessimism, that fantastic doctrines of life sway the passions of men, that ignorance and superstition are the order of the day, that every Hindu is a hand-reader, and that the dear mothers of India cheerfully throw their babies into the Ganges so that the "holy" crocodiles may not miss their usual breakfast.

Mischief of vested interests—Those who either had little or no interest in the peoples of India beyond proselytizing them and those who looked upon the Orient as a free gaming ground for the economic gamblers of the West through their talks and writings prided themselves in their triumphs in exploiting these peace loving peoples of the Orient. Records of Western missions will reveal that, until very recently, their chief criterion for judging the work done by them among the Asiatic peoples was in terms of numerical conversions of the natives to any one of the 57 varieties of the Christian faith.

Christianity under the growing impact of industrialization of the Western nations was becoming a worn out fabric of creeds, dogmas and rituals unable to clothe the ever increasing spiritual nakedness of its professed followers. Its attention, therefore, was naturally diverted from home to distant lands from where its missionaries could bring such tales of woe, misery, and ignorance, and thus cause the spiritually gullible men and women of their respective lands to open their purses wide to save the souls of the so-called "heathens."

Due to such abnormal approaches to the study of distant countries a serious damage has been done to the minds of the Western peoples and of late both the Occidentals and Orientals are realizing the gravity of the situation which, if not carefully attended to, is calculated to lead to the building of unwholesome, indecent, and inhuman attitudes toward the life, ideals, and aspirations of one another. This, of course, will be mutually diastrous.

India is not what the Western Indologists, save a few, would have you imagine. As a son of India who has had years of contact with the West

and who is keenly awake to the true greatness of Occidental civilization, and who owes a debt of gratitude to the institutions of higher learning of this great republic for his higher training and education I wish to present to you, this afternoon, the case of modern India, with special reference to her educational problems.

New era in education of India—We stand today, in my opinion, at the threshold of a new era in the history of Indian education. The British system of education has had its heyday, but today it stands condemned on all sides because of the results it has produced, and particularly because of the changed outlook on life on the part of Young India.

For some seventy years Britain has ruled India's educational destiny, and as at home she naturally was able to give India a type of education that is neither practical nor efficient. British education in India may be characterized, without fear of contradiction, as "a system of education offering training in the so-called liberal arts and sciences for the benefit of the 'classes' of the Indian population." All the courses in the curricula were theoretical whether pertaining to the arts or sciences. The medium of instruction was English which successfully contributed to retard more than to accelerate the advancement of education among the people of India. Those who were blessed with a rich inheritance of *mind and money* were able to survive through the educational nurseries of India, going beyond the secondary school and on through the colleges and universities. These nurseries, however, have been mostly replete with records of shocking educational mortality from the very early stages of the primary grades and especially at the matriculation examinations which come at the end of the secondary-school program. Of course the apologists of British education have not been slow in offering excuses and inventing reasons for the high educational mortality by referring to India's social and economic problems. We Indians, however, and those few Americans who have of late returned from India, after having made a truthful study of the real difficulties in the way of education in India, feel that there are three chief factors which are responsible for the slackness and retardation of education in India.

Causes of educational retardation—First, the medium of instruction being a foreign tongue, it creates all those difficulties and attitudes of indifference which your own boys and girls would not endure if they were made to study through German or Japanese while their own language at home and in their community remained English.

Secondly, Indian education as exported from England is merely cultural in its old-fashioned sense. It does not train character as you Americans say. It does not prepare for the battle of life. It fails to awaken potentialities of the child which will make him creative in his own way. Above all it is non-vocational, and as such useless for the many who in all countries, and especially in a country of India's magnitude, must work and produce in order to make a decent living.

Thirdly, it is not free and compulsory even in its primary stages. I know of no nation that has made education to serve as an instrument for evolving and sustaining democratic ways of living where primary education is not compulsory. India cannot be an exception. Eighty-two per cent of India's population lives in villages and depends on one or another phase of agricultural activity for its sustenance. A farmer in India is not anxious to send his child to school to get instruction in the three R's and to forego the economic returns of his services at home and on the farm any more than is an American farmer in California. You know what difficulties attendance officers in the rural districts of the United States face in keeping the children in the schools. In spite of the compulsory education laws all through the United States this country has still far to go to be free from illiteracy. Had it not been for the vocational, part-time and continuation schools provided for the children of the masses of this republic, you would face the same situation as most European countries do, and that situation is highly accentuated in India by the fact that India is not yet industrialized.

Problems of education in India—I. So the first and foremost of our educational problems in India is that of organizing mass education as distinguished from class education of today. This education for the masses must provide for the minimum essentials of learning which, in my opinion, should consist of the three R's plus training in some vocation which will fit the child to engage in a profitable and productive pursuit. Rural reconstruction is our pressing need. Besides giving our prospective farmers and farm laborers the essential minimum, as mentioned above, it is necessary that technological and vocational schools must be brought into existence to teach scientific methods of improving agriculture and its attendant industries. These technical schools will prepare workers who can lead and initiate movements for improving means of public utilities. Material comfort and convenience is badly wanting, and its possession will aid greatly to better the outlook on life on the part of our potential citizens.

Industrialization—Whether one likes it or not the impact of Western industrialization is being seriously felt on our life in India. Bombay and Calcutta are no longer representative of the Orient, but they present all those numerous problems that modern capitalistic industries create. Our farmers do not possess any special gift of farsightedness not possessed by the farmers of the West. They are easily attracted to the centers of industry because of the immediate rise in their monetary earning capacities. They fail to see the inevitable price they and their children must pay, in the course of time, in point of health dissipation, and drink. When a man works on the farm he sings and practises human hospitality toward all, but when he gets under the influence of exploitative factory life he spits and swears. His love for the family plays out and he is gradually on the path of becoming a soulless machine. This does not mean that we in India object to developing industries and thus to improve our pro-

ductivity. Our natural resources are enormous, and though greatly exploited by the Western capitalists for over a century everyone who knows India will concede that she still holds enormous subsoil resources which are as yet untapped. Scientific methods, moreover, will help to increase the production of our raw materials, and if a system of cottage industries is built up, it will save our population from the evils of highly centralized and mechanized factory system as at present in vogue, and at the same time improve the economic and consequently the social life of our masses.

Hence the importance of rural reconstruction and of facing the problems of rural economy by providing that type of educational facilities which can solve the problems without calling for unavailable monetary aid and other facilities.

Whose responsibility?—Since India is a country of villages and the uttermost poverty of her masses does not enable them to finance the education of their children, the task will have to be shouldered by the Government of India. Instead of providing small one-room schools for every village, in most cases the plan of consolidated schools as operated in the rural regions of the United States would seem highly advisable. This plan will enable the provision for fewer schools with better equipment and properly trained teachers. Indian children can walk the same distance to their schools that American boys and girls in rural districts do, and it will not be difficult under capable and loyal management to establish transportation facilities according to the nature of the place in question.

Eight to ten years of educational career including the primary and vocational schooling should quite suffice for the present to revolutionize the outlook as well as the understanding of the immediate prospects of a village boy or girl.

The program of rural reconstruction, of course, will call for the introduction of modern methods of organizing economic and social life in villages such as the system of cooperative societies, community, hygiene, fostering of associated industries, such as poultry, farming, dairies, horticultural improvements, etc.

A solution to this problem of mass education presupposes the presence of leaders who will be able to initiate and conduct the various agencies that are necessary for bringing about rural reconstruction. These rural leaders will have to come from the institutions at present financed and run for the children of the upper and middle class city population. Unless the education given to these sons and daughters of city dwellers is reformed and redirected, it is hopeless to expect the products of our present schools and colleges efficiently to shoulder the responsibilities of improving the lot of their rural brethren.

Reform of present "Class Education"—II. Hence the second problem that calls our attention is in regard to the reformation of the education that is being given today in our schools and colleges. Instead of turning out clerks for government jobs or those who cannot do anything with

their acquired knowledge except teach it to others, we must face the problem differently. Education should be so organized that it will be a paying concern to those who receive it. It should, as you Americans put it, prepare a product that will not be difficult to sell. I do not suggest that our present education should be completely thrown overboard. We must teach subjects that are conducive to the preparation of scholars, scientists, politicians, and so on, but our educational institutions, particularly our middle schools and high schools, must not be allowed to cater so much to the requirements of our colleges and universities. Courses in practical arts, general science, industrial chemistry, food chemistry, designing, need to be introduced to shift students' interests in wider field of choice than is possible at present. The curriculum instead of being ridden by the needs of the higher institutions should be worked out in terms of the needs of the society *that we wish to create and in which the child is to grow and to serve*. If India's masses are to be lifted up from their present condition of illiteracy and poverty, her classes must, in the general interest of the nation as a whole, give up some of the false values of rank and prospects and agree to train their children for work in *rural leadership*.

If a ten-year experiment is made to turn out from our high schools boys and girls trained in studies that will enable them to work for the mass education movement, it will, besides doing good to the rural population, help to emancipate the city children from the clutches of narrow, circumscribed, interests and avenues of activity that have become more or less traditional today. When such a movement is well under way our masses will become intelligent enough to understand our national aspirations and to appreciate the sacrifices of our leaders for the cause of India's political, economic, and social regeneration. It is the middle class and the intelligentsia in every country that is responsible for the general staggering apathy of the masses toward national ideals of prosperity and progress.

III. *Our third important problem is that of medical education. Our colleges and universities should become transformed into institutions for the training of mid-wives, pharmacists, and doctors.* India will hold her own much better when she will have more bachelors of medicine and fewer bachelors of arts and science. I include in my criticism of the degree holders even the students of science because they are no better able to "do" things in their lines than are the students of arts. Our higher education is "all theory." A few of our great universities have gone to another extreme; they have instituted highly specialized practical courses which result in the production of the research laboratory type of scholarship. These high grade research scholars may discover things and thus earn a reputation in the world of science, bringing a proud feeling of self-approbation to our land; but their discoveries and researches are calculated to be helpful only to the Occidental scientists and will be of little avail to India until Indian conditions in general are so improved as to make

these discoveries applicable to the problems of our people. Individuals and private institutions may indulge in these high grade researches, but we cannot complacently view our state-supported universities spending our national funds on such endeavors when these are more urgently needed for other pressing and more important "national projects" of education.

Here again the government must take the lead. Until the Indian Government becomes truly democratic and India has lived a steady existence for a few decades at least, as a democracy, it passes one's imagination to understand the logic of the ruling power in expecting "local-initiative" on the part of the public. You had and you still have to force education upon your citizens by law and until your commercial and industrial organizations came forward, your states had given freely for the practical education of your potential citizens. Your states, even to this day, when as a democracy you have lived over a century, spend enormous sums of money to encourage vocational education and your federal government has been largely responsible for keeping up this policy on the part of your states. All this I say because one often hears apologists of the government of India accusing the public of that country of lack of initiative, and argue that by this policy of the government, viz., "wait till they wake up and demand," India will be benefited. This to me is sheer sophistry and wrong reading of the history of education.

Need of social hygiene—India has made an enormous advance in regard to what is called "personal hygiene" but she has utterly neglected the problem of social hygiene. The first kind of hygiene, viz., personal hygiene, however, has been in vogue in the upper castes of the Hindu society. Now that national consciousness has been awakened and all solutions are to be worked out from the national standpoint, greater attention will have to be paid to the study of the numerous problems of social hygiene. In order that the future of our national stock be ensured a general provision for a good system of health correction for our people will be necessary.

Preservation of indigenous culture—IV. Our fourth problem is concerned with the preservation of the indigenous arts, literature, and philosophy. In short our Indian culture which is a combined product of the Hindu and the Moslem contributions, is in danger of being degenerated due to the unwholesome competition of the European culture which has been imposed upon our children in schools and colleges for the past hundred years. No people can afford to lose the good things in their social and national heritage.

I. *Arts*—Long before Europeans emerged out of barbarism and learned to clothe their physical nakedness we in the Orient had developed arts and crafts to a very high level. The silk of China and the muslin of India were the marvels in the history of textile products. Without the use of machinery Indian artists had developed the art of manufacturing all kinds of cotton, silk and wool goods, metal works, ivory products, sculp-

ture, and architecture. Our Kashmir shawls, hammered brass, silver, and gold, engraved products, our beautiful temples with their images and mosques and mausoleums like the famous Tajmahal are to this day unsurpassed by any western creation. These and numerous other arts of India have been carried on from father to son in the different vocational castes of that country but owing to severe competition of the machine made goods and the general poverty of the people of India, these indigenous arts and industries are in a very precarious state. The famous arts of India will die out if not attended to and it will be a great loss to the world.

The arts are at present in the hands of poor, ignorant artisans whose ranks are becoming thinner and thinner every day. Our schools therefore must take up these arts and preserve them by making them a part of the program for vocational and industrial education. This particular field has great potentialities for international commerce because under normal and carefully managed trade relations India's art goods and curios can successfully compete in the western markets and help to improve the artistic tastes and appreciations of the Occidental peoples.

2. *Indian literature*—Indian literature demands its rightful place in the curriculum of our schools and colleges. India has never ceased to produce, especially in the field of literature in spite of lack of state recognition or support. Dr. Tagore is one of many Indian creative writers and poets. He translated his works into English and even what he gave to the West in translation proved worthy of admiration and respect. He was consequently made a Nobel-prize man for literature. Of late our universities are introducing the literary contributions of our writers in the various languages of India for the study of our advanced students. This needs to be done on a larger scale and our high school and primary school pupils should be given to read and study books written by Indian writers. There will not be a lack of appropriate material for use in the lower grades of our schools if sufficient encouragement is forthcoming. Of course such a policy will prove a bit detrimental to the trade of western publishers and writers whose books are at present used in the most of our schools and colleges.

3. *Indian philosophy*—The most astounding and almost incredible fact concerning higher education in India is that India's own philosophy is not taught even up to the B.A. degree. Universities like Oxford and Cambridge, or those of Germany such as Leipzig, Heidelberg, etc., and even your beloved Harvard consider Indian philosophy rich enough for a Ph.D. candidate and permit doctorate dissertations on the profound speculations in the Upanishads. Our Indian scholars, those who have attained scholarship through British colleges and universities have to go out of India to England, United States or Germany to further their critical studies in Indology because there is no provision, whatsoever, in Indian universities for such studies. You may judge for yourself what it means for an Indian boy to study Sanskrit language and literature, the heritage

that his forefathers have left him, through the medium of English. I have studied Sanskrit but I cannot give one rule in grammar of that language except in English. All the beautiful and profound writings of our master poets like Kālidās, Bhavabhūti, are taught us through English. Nothing more ridiculous and more vicious could be found in the educational system of any country. As I have already made clear I am not very enthusiastic over the studies in liberal arts at the present juncture in our program for nation building. I prefer the introduction of scientific education instead, in practical arts, vocations, and professions. But I cannot see how one could resist protesting while discussing the place of the so-called cultural studies in the curriculum of our schools and colleges if he sees such glaring fallacies and uneducational practices undoubtedly aimed at throwing into neglect and thus destroying the heritage of a civilized people. Indian literature, philosophy, and languages should be given their rightful place side by side with the contributions of Europe in those fields and not treated with criminal neglect as hitherto.

V. *Our fifth problem is that of the medium of instruction in Indian schools*—At present the instruction for the first four years of the primary education is carried on through the mother tongue of the child. Then in the middle schools or anglo-vernacular schools as they are often called, the study of English is introduced and it is compulsory although the rest of the studies are more or less carried on through the medium of the vernacular. This period lasts from two to three years. By this time a student comes to acquire, though not without a good deal of heartache and other troubles, due to the most "scientific" nature of the English language with which all of you are more or less familiar, a good working knowledge of English. Thereafter, for the coming six years of high school all his studies are carried on through the medium of English. As said elsewhere, a student studies his lessons even in Sanskrit or Arabic or Persian through books which give grammatical rules and exercises for composition work in English.

I must admit, however, in fairness to the study of English which is carried on with typical English strictness, and as such which does lead, in the case of those who successfully go through our colleges and universities to an admirable mastery of the King's English. Knowledge of English on the part of most of our educated men and women has also helped substantially in the development of interprovincial exchange of ideas and the building up of a national consciousness. Our Indian National Congress, for instance, which is our chief representative organization in politics has since its very inception carried on its activities and annual convention work for the past 42 years through the medium of English. As every province in India is like every nation in Europe, we have so many different languages, and as we are forced by the logic of our political predicament to give up the idea of living as the little European countries do, each separate by itself, we must make the best of our adventitious need and

accept a federated nationhood as our ideal. The English language no doubt has helped much in the understanding and realization of this ideal on the part of our educated men and women.

However, India cannot continue with English as the *lingua franca* of India for all time, as she cannot do what is expected of the South African or Philippino peoples by their English speaking masters, because in contrast with the above mentioned peoples, India has in her provincial languages a rich and remarkable literature, and most of these provincial languages have attained a high degree of development the same as the European languages. As such it is difficult and certainly not probable that India would ever think of giving up her languages and agree to become an *English speaking land*.

There is, moreover, no such need either, when one sees the situation more sympathetically and with deeper appreciation of the claims of the Indian languages.

Tri-lingual plan—Most nationalists and nationally minded educators of India seem to agree that a tri-lingual plan will suit our needs and prove satisfactory both from the provincial, national and international points of view. This tri-lingual plan is as follows:

1. All primary instruction should be given through the mother tongue of the child for the first two years of his school work.

2. Then the study of Hindusthānee should be introduced as a compulsory second language. This bi-lingual plan should continue until the end of the middle school period, i.e. for four or five years. As in other countries a large majority of our students will discontinue their school attendance around this stage in their education, and by this plan will have not only acquired the knowledge of the elementary subjects, but also a working knowledge of Hindusthānee which even today is and we wish to make it more universally so, the *Lingua-Indica*. The large majority of Indians speak Hindusthānee in one form or another. It is the commercial language of the people. It is also the street language in the majority of the provinces. This insistence upon making Hindusthānee more universally known than it is at present, is due to the sad realization of the fact, that in spite of the compulsory study of English for over 75 years, the gulf between the linguistic intercourse among the masses of people has remained shockingly wide. It is not enough to have only the educated classes understand one another. A real sense of unity and fraternity cannot be invoked until our masses can communicate one with another.

3. It is not proposed that the study of English should be neglected. It should be made optional in the middle school curriculum and should be strongly recommended for those who intend going to the high school. The policy will save the boys and girls who are not likely to continue after completing their elementary grades, from wasting time on getting a smattering knowledge of English which is naturally and inevitably lost, within a year or so. At the same time it will give them a working knowledge of

Hindusthanees which they, in most cases, will need in their inter-provincial intercourse and which they will not have to pick up on the side as it is done today.

English should be the compulsory second language all through our secondary education. I am one of those Indians who are not opposed to English on any sentimental ground. We must and do recognize the cultural as well as commercial value of the English language. India, and for that matter any other country, cannot afford to lose the advantages that must accrue from the study of a language so rich in literature and so full of up-to-date information on science, art and philosophy. Moreover our present relationship, even though it is only political in nature, with the British people, is sure to develop into other channels. With the gradual but unmistakable change in India's political and economic fortunes that is quite obvious to those who can see, my people will be drawn commercially and industrially, into the wide markets of the world and since the emergence of the United States as the greatest financial power on earth, the English language is already coming to be recognized as the universal lingo in the business world.

In fact, in making English a compulsory second language in the curriculum of India, we have in mind the intention of perpetuating our relations with the western nations, but as in Japan and Turkey, by this policy we hope to succeed, on the one hand, in building up a universal language for India out of one of India's own largely spoken dialects, and on the other hand to open doors for the study of foreign languages, particularly those of European origin. English will be our first preference, but according to the needs of a student, he may be encouraged to study German or French as well if those languages are better fitted for the field of his special interest. In short, in due time, and it may take a few generations possibly, one European foreign language, according to this plan, will be required as a compulsory second language of all Indians going in for higher education. This appears to me a natural as well as a progressive solution to the most knotty and confounding problem of the medium instruction.

VI. Our sixth and the last one of the most important problems in re-organization and modernization of India's education that I propose to discuss with you concerns the need of civic education.

A great deal has been said and written on the question of civic education in this country. Its place and significance in the training of the young is well known to you. It is the very life of that particular aim which all coherent and comprehensive plans of education set before themselves to accomplish, viz, turning out efficient citizens of the nation. Education may be and is defined in various ways, but to me its greatest significance lies in the fact that it is an instrument for building community life that is ever widening and deepening human understanding, worldly relations and spiritual values of life. So conceived then, it behooves us in India,

as elsewhere, to introduce civic education both in our primary and secondary schools. It is painfully absent today from our curriculum. The situation and the mischief wrought by it must be remedied without delay. No government or public leaders can be trusted in their professions and promises with regard to their efforts to build a nationhood for India in the modern sense of that term, unless and until their plans and schemes for education provide for the training in citizenship.

In conclusion, ladies and gentlemen, kindly permit me to bring to your attention more specifically and emphatically some of the dangers and difficulties that beset us in our present efforts for cultivating in our people a better understanding of modern civilization.

In our efforts to solve our problems we are like any other people, beset with numerous difficulties, the financial difficulty being of the first magnitude. India, moreover, since the close of the World War has attained a peculiar status in the world of politics. She was admitted to the membership of the League of Nations as an equal partner in the British Empire. This position has, as yet, brought us little practical advantage as a people, although our financial responsibilities have been increased. India pays for the upkeep of the League of Nations more than Japan does. It is fair, however, to say that in spite of all political and financial handicaps, the reformed constitution of India has put the portfolio of education in the hands of the Indians, and today although without any real control over the budget, Indian ministers are in charge of India's education. This is of great significance, especially in view of our political dependence upon England. But of late a new and highly sinister form of propaganda has been set afoot to make out that Indians are unfit for political freedom.

In 1929, if all goes well, India is supposed to get the dominion status like that of Australia in the British Commonwealth of Nations. Hence those opposed to India's political emancipation have already started to fabricate all sorts of myths, the same as was done during 1916-17 to villify Germany. These propagandists hope to make you, in the Occident, believe that we in India are uncivilized, that our social life is barbarous, that we are nothing better than the savages in Africa or in the South Sea Islands.

India's physical life needs to be attended to as much as the physical life of the peoples elsewhere. Her infant mortality, her backwardness in community hygiene, recurrence of epidemics that carry away a toll of lives that is shocking, are all problems that cannot be explained away. Western tourists have often done us great harm by their injudicious study of these problems and particularly by their criminal interpretations of the causes of these problems. What is necessary is human and scientific understanding, for that alone will move one to give a helping hand or encourage the Indians to seek advice and accept help from all who can give it. Attempts of the foreigners to abuse our courtesy and hospitality by turning the studies of our social conditions into novels of morbid attraction and vicious

propaganda, in order to spread inhuman and untrue scandals to defeat our efforts for national development and international service will foster ill-will, and an attitude of retaliation will be generated in the minds of our young men and women who have seen and known the West at closer range. Will not this inevitably result in the spreading of hatred and contempt between peoples and peoples?

Dangers of propaganda—No Indian will deny that our social institutions need reforming in terms of modern life, but when our statements describing our social evils become mutilated and criminally falsified in the hands of a foreigner, then no matter whether the writer be a lady or an American, or even a direct descendant of those who came on the *Mayflower*, it will be difficult for us, as human beings, to pass her on unheeded. Miss Mayo is the American woman I have particularly in mind at this juncture. She is an American citizen and claims direct lineage from one of the *Mayflower* emigrants. She has abused the courtesy and hospitality of our people and of the leaders in India's public life, and has at present unfortunately busied herself is spreading the venom of her morbid gospel among the American people. India is undefended, and in the face of the cheap, sensational journalism of this land, she must go undefended; but I plead in the name of my motherland and appeal to your sense of honor as educators of this great republic to raise your voice and to let India and the Orient know before it becomes too late, that you are friends of all peoples who are struggling for freedom and progress, that you are our well-wishers, and that you are not willing to be represented by international scandalmongers of Miss Mayo's type. You, as a people, are living in glass houses, most of humanity is doing so. Shall the American practical genius espouse the leadership of the world in launching a campaign to eradicate the evils from which mankind is suffering, or will it wantonly indulge in mudslinging sport, setting a very deplorable and dangerous standard for the writing of travel literature and international social studies?

Missionaries have already realized the gravity of their misguided policy of the past. Their work is becoming more of service through education and medical help.

India has become keenly aware, more than ever, of her matter of fact situation and she realizes that her communal differences must go, that her provincial consciousness must widen into a national view if she wishes to get her place in the sisterhood of nations.

It is time that the Occidentals, whether of Europe or of America, whether Nordics, imperialists, or democrats come to understand that China and India are not South Africa or the South Sea Islands where they may send clothes and Bibles to cover the physical nakedness or spiritual bankruptcy of the natives. We still produce enough in both fields under normal conditions to meet our wants, and even more, to offer to others elsewhere. It is no impudence when Indians warn the Americans to rise above their illiteracy and become educated by understanding human history

critically and correctly. It is not out of rancor that India deplores the colossal superficiality and unthinking naive attitude of the American people concerning the culture and civilization of India.

Our problems are not easy; we hope to solve them as fast and as best as we can. Give us a helping hand, your moral support at any rate. If not, at least do not impede our efforts by thoughtless criticisms or mischievous interpretations of our affairs. That will do you no good, but it may do us harm.

I thank you for your kind attention and in the name of the ancient people, whom it is my proud privilege to represent at this gathering, I bring you a message of goodwill and fellowship that brotherhood may prevail.

REPORT OF THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Allow me at the outset to speak my personal appreciation as well as that of the National Committee on Research in Secondary Education for the opportunity extended of participation in your program.

Ever since the National Committee learned to talk it has been advocating coordination in research activities. We have been and are a coordinating, not a duplicating, committee. To the end that there may not be duplication it is desirable that we be informed of the activities of other agencies and that we acquaint these other organizations with our undertakings. Accordingly, I appear before you this afternoon to give a brief report of the work of our committee.

Preliminary organization of the National Committee on Research took place in Cincinnati three years ago when in response to invitation from Commissioner Tigert, a small group of men came together to form an agency for research in the field of secondary education. The following June permanent organization was effected and the National Committee began to function actively under the chairmanship of Dr. J. B. Edmonson of the University of Michigan. From modest beginnings the Committee has come to have cooperating with it at the present time 18 organizations. Nine of these 18 are regional agencies interested in the accrediting of secondary schools throughout various sections of the United States; the remaining nine are national organizations operating in the secondary-school field. Each cooperating organization appoints one representative on the Committee; these 18 representatives and 11 members at large constitute the present personnel of the National Committee on Research.

There has been placed in your hands a list of enterprises which have been carried forward since last February. I shall not attempt to go into detail with regard to these activities. May I be permitted, however, to summarize the accomplishments of the last 12 months:

1. Four of the Committee's investigations have been published by the United States Bureau of Education and the N. E. A.

2. Two other studies have been completed and their publication arranged for with the United States Bureau of Education.

3. Ten longer articles sponsored by the Committee have appeared in *School Life*.

4. Eight major investigations of the Committee are in progress.

As members of the Department of Secondary School Principals you will be especially interested in noting that your own worthy representative, Dr. Wetzel, contributed two of the articles to *School Life* and is now chairman of the special committee studying the problems of the large high school.

At our meeting yesterday morning another enterprise was launched. This contemplates a cooperative study of member schools in 1930 by the five regional accrediting associations. Since these associations operate in 46 of the 48 states it is felt that a study made in the same year and on a comparable basis will approximate, giving a national view of secondary education.

The Committee has been exceedingly fortunate in its relationships with the National Association of Secondary School Principals. You have favored us by assigning Dr. Wetzel as your representative; you have helped support us by appropriations from your association funds; and individuals in your organization have encouraged us by responding with information when asked, by giving time to committee work when called upon, and by performing from time to time those "little nameless unremembered acts" which in their spontaneous doing reveal so much regarding attitudes. For all these courtesies we say, "Thanks." And we hope you may see in the accomplishments of this last year prediction of greater attainments which we believe lie just over the horizon.

THE PLACE OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER IN CURRICULUM REVISION

A. L. THRELKELD, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, DENVER, COLO.

The teacher-pupil situation should be the focal point for any program of curriculum revision. Curriculum revision should begin and end here. In other words, curriculum construction is the problem of the teacher as he faces the pupil who is to learn. From the point of view of the schools it is primarily the teacher's problem. This is a problem made up in terms of pupil nature, social inheritance, and the needs of present life. Around this problem centers all which can actually be called a curriculum revision program.

Principal, supervisor, research expert, all must participate if the best possible pupil-learning situation is to be created. They are essential, but they should be thought of as extensions of the teacher. The teacher must reach out to the principal, to the supervisor, to various specialists for the contributions which they severally can make to the problem which he faces. No modern teacher can be sufficient unto himself. He must rely upon what has been contributed by research investigations wherever they may

have occurred; he must rely upon the expert study of method which principal and supervisor have made; he must rely upon the social service of the attendance department; the visiting teacher; the health service of the medical and physical education departments; and various other special agencies which in a modern school system are now at the command of the teacher who knows how to use them. In a school system having a department of curriculum revision the teacher must rely upon the director of this department for assistance in the procuring of curriculum materials for the classroom situation, such a director working through and with teacher committees and all others involved. Whether these materials are furnished in a printed course of study, in several such courses, or in any other way are details which may be changed from time to time as conditions warrant. The essential point of view here being presented is that the teacher facing the pupil who is to learn is the center of the process. Curriculum revision begins and ends right here.

Obviously this point of view demands that all who are in a position to contribute to the learning process of the pupil participate in the construction of the curriculum. This participation begins when the classroom teacher is actively interested in contributing to the growth of his pupils. This interest reaches out in various directions as indicated above. To the extent that it does reach out we have a sound basis for the very important contributions which the experts of various types referred to above are in a position to make. Their insights and knowledges cannot be forced into this learning process. They must come in response to a felt need. Coming in response to such a need, they serve their true purpose. In this situation, that which they have to contribute actually functions.

Looking at it from this point of view it is clear that a curriculum revision program cannot be measured in terms of what is found between the covers of printed courses of study. Such an examination would tell only part of the story. The most vital thing would be left out of consideration; namely, to what extent is this course of study genuinely accepted by the teacher as an important help in his teaching? In the first place, does he understand what is in the course of study and does he accept it as being appropriate to his task? No course of study, from a practical point of view, is worth any more to a school system than the extent to which it actually results in growth on the part of the pupils. It cannot be judged apart from this.

Then quite aside from what may have been worked out in research laboratories, quite aside from what may now be the best theory which students of education possess, no curriculum revision program can succeed if it is limited to a consideration of these sources of material. If the active participation of the classroom teacher is left out of the plan, the whole structure is superficial and will amount to nothing.

The purpose of this brief paper is not to make the impression that supervisors, principals, curriculum experts, research investigators are not im-

portant as compared to the teacher. To repeat, they are essential. The conception here being presented is that their functionings are the reachings out for help of the teacher. Without the intelligent reachings out of the teacher, they are impotent. All are part of one process which centers in the teacher-pupil situation.

Practical ways by which this point of view may be worked out in a school system involve a discussion of teacher committees, when and how they shall work, how they shall be related to principal, supervisor, curriculum specialist, and the like, but the topic of this paper is the place of the teacher in a curriculum revision program. Therefore nothing more than a mere statement of this place is here attempted.

GREETINGS FROM THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

J. W. CRABTREE, SECRETARY

It is a great honor to be called upon to extend the greetings of the National Education Association to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, yesterday a noted national organization cooperating with the National Education Association—today an integral part of the National Education Association itself with power and prestige almost on a par with that of the Department of Superintendence. What could mean more to the National Education Association than for this outstanding organization to come in with its history rich in achievements, and with a complete leadership and control of policies in secondary education and administration! This is one of the greatest acquisitions of strength in the history of the Association. It is equally great for your own group. It adds to efficiency and professional success as those mergers in industry, such as that of the General Motors adds to business success. The previous cooperative relations were cordial and effective, but now the organization becomes like the Department of Superintendence, a powerful link in the chain of strength of the greater association.

What an opportunity the larger National Education Association has before it! The fullest cooperation and support of all levels in the profession. The confidence of other leading professions. The ear of the public as no other association could have. No other organization of teachers in all history in this or any other nation has had the opportunity which these relationships and conditions make possible for the National Education Association.

That which has given the association this unparalleled opportunity is the fact that it works to promote great causes rather than to promote selfish ends. Its work and ideals are set forth in the following which is printed again and again in its publication:

It works for the youth of the nation.

It advocates better salaries for better teachers.

It brings to the spotlight worthy school activities.

It broadcasts progress and worthy achievements.

It is a clearinghouse for local and state associations.

It is the voice of those in the service.

It shapes the ideals of the profession.

It is the power plant of educational progress.

Its goal has been for a decade "A stabilized, all-inclusive membership and the entire profession at work on its problems."

Your group has been guided by these same high ideals but it now pledges itself anew and will cooperate in a more effective way than in the past. Of course the general association through its secretary greets you and welcomes you into these larger opportunities. It has unlimited confidence in your department. It hopes you may center your efforts more than ever before on certain vital problems which you naturally desire to promote:

1. Organizing to study the problems of the profession and of the schools in every high school in the land.

2. Giving particular attention to the questions growing out of the proposal to permit only potential leaders to attend college.

3. Striving to offset the influence of the propaganda sent out recently by the Manufacturers' Association which advocates releasing for employment all pupils in the upper grades and high school who are not doing satisfactory work.

4. Doing investigational and research work better to adapt the high-school organization in its curriculum, and in its appliances and equipment to meet the actual needs of young men and women, carrying out the principle of providing all with an opportunity for coming into their own, and making a more intimate connection between the work of the high school and the work and needs of the home and community.

5. Taking into account the fact that adjustments in education are necessary in all nations as in our own, and that other nations are depending on us to work out plans of fundamental importance. It is your great privilege and your special responsibility to show wise leadership in the entire field of secondary education.

6. Carrying out in short the ideals of your department and the Association in every way possible.

The educational world is moving forward. Industry is setting a challenging pace, but with the profession united as it is educational progress of today is not so far behind. Our biggest problems are still ahead. The greatest value of the work of your association together with that of the general association during the last decade is to prepare for meeting the larger responsibilities just ahead.

Greetings and congratulations.

REPORT OF COMMISSION ON STANDARD BLANKS

R. R. COOK, PRINCIPAL OF ROOSEVELT HIGH SCHOOL, DES MOINES, IOWA
CHAIRMAN

Your commission desires to submit the following report of its work on the development of a standard record form for secondary schools:

A year ago the commission reported the details of an analysis of about two hundred fifty permanent record forms gathered from representative secondary schools in different parts of the country.

After the meeting a year ago we submitted to a number of the members of this association the list of items found in the analysis of these blanks and asked them to evaluate the various items. By a combination of the weightings thus secured we were able to determine the relative values of the items according to the judgments of a good-sized group of judges. Evaluations were received from sixty judges. Included in the list were thirty-four principals of senior and four-year high schools, nine principals of junior high schools, four principals of junior-senior high schools and thirteen specialists in secondary education who are teaching in institutions of higher learning.

We are further indebted to B. Lamar Johnson, a graduate student at the University of Minnesota, working under the direction of Dr. L. V. Koos, a member of this commission, for the labor involved in sending out the lists of items and preparing the tables of values.

The five uses of permanent record cards were ranked by the sixty judges as follows:

1. To assist in guidance of pupils (including classification and placement).
2. To improve classroom teaching methods by giving the teacher access to information regarding the individual differences of pupils.
3. To assist in research.
4. To meet requirements of and provide basis for reports to state, county, and local authorities.
5. To motivate pupil's work.

The sixty judges ranked the importance of certain mechanical features of permanent record forms as follows:

1. Permanent record card should provide space for records beyond time ordinarily required to complete high school course.
2. One year's space should be provided.
3. Junior and senior high-school permanent records should be included on one form.
4. List of all required subjects should be printed.
5. List of all subjects taught should be printed on the permanent record.
6. Blank spaces should be left for writing in names of all subjects.

Upon receiving Mr. Johnson's report on the rankings of the items by the cooperating judges, the commission met and determined the general form of the blank to be submitted, including the first forty items most heavily weighed by the judges and certain scattered ones below that point.

It was decided to submit to the judges who had cooperated in this project, two tentative forms, one 5" x 8" and the other 8½" x 11" inasmuch as these two sizes are standard and are most frequently suited to the filing systems now in use in high-school offices.

Forms I and II on the following pages show the fronts and backs of the two tentative forms.

[illegible][illegible]

1

PUPIL'S PERMANENT RECORD																			
Name: _____				Sex _____ Race _____				Birth Place _____				Date: Mo. _____ Day _____ Year _____							
Parent or Guardian _____				Latest address (a) _____ (L) _____				(C) _____											
Entered from _____				Date _____				Age _____				Curriculum chosen _____							
Credits from other schools (a) _____				(b) _____				(c) _____				Advisor _____							
Sem. ending _____																			
No. of weeks _____																			
Length of period _____																			
Group _____				Subj. _____				Subj. _____				Subj. _____							
English _____				Social Science _____				Mathematics _____				Physical Edu. _____							
Industrial Arts _____				Home Economics _____				Commercial _____				Music _____							
Art _____				Physical Edu. _____															
Semester Total _____																			
TOTAL _____																			

Dropped: Date _____ Reason _____ Re-entered: Date _____ Transferred to _____ Date _____ Graduated: Date _____ Rank in class _____ No. in class _____ Credits sent to _____ Date _____	Explanation of symbols and marks _____ _____ Name of School and City _____
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(Back)

EXTRA-CURRICULUM RECORD						ATTENDANCE SUMMARY										
Activity	Dates	Credits	Honors or Offices	Dates	Prereq	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
						Days present										
						Days absent										
						Times tardy										
						PERSONAL TRAITS										
						Symbols: 1, high; 2, above av.; 3, av.; 4, below av.; 5, low										
						1st yr. 2nd yr. 3rd yr. 4th yr.										
						Accuracy										
						Cooperation										
						Industry										
						Leadership										
						Personal appearance										
						Reliability										
INTELLIGENCE-TEST RECORD																
Date	Name of Test	Form	Score	PR	MA	CA	IQ									
VACATION AND OTHER EMPLOYMENT																
Date	Type of employment										Time employed					
ACHIEVEMENT-TEST RECORD																
Date	Name of Test	Form	Score	Class Norm	PR	Subject										
General health																
Physical defects																
Is Father living? Nationality Birthplace																
Is Mother living? Nationality Birthplace																
No. brothers older No. younger No. sisters older No. younger																
Language of the home Father's occupation																
Home conditions																
Intend to graduate? Reason if not																
Vocational preferences Parents' preference																
Intend to enter college?																
College preparing for Curriculum																
College entered Date																
College record first year																
Work entered Position																
Married: date To																
Date of death																
Remarks:																

ATTENDANCE SUMMARY

INTELLIGENCE-TEST RECORD

VACATION AND OTHER EMPLOYMENT

ACHIEVEMENT-TEST RECORD

General health

Physical defect.

Is Father living

Is Mother living

No. brothers older
[unclear] of 16

Language of the
Home condition

Intend to graduate

Vocational prof

Intend to enter

Collego preparari

College entered

College record

Works entered

Married: date

Date of death

Remarks:

100

These forms were printed from zinc etchings, made from original drawings, so do not have the lettering in quite the same sizes and positions that they will have on regular printed forms. If these forms were set up and printed from type it would be possible to economize on the amount of space needed for the titles and thus leave more room for writing. These tentative forms were made merely to obtain critical comments on the general form and position of the various items.

At the time this report was written, thirty replies with comments and criticisms had been received from the men to whom the tentative forms were submitted. There has been no time in which to revise the blanks since receiving these criticisms so the most significant of them are here listed with comments by the chairman of the committee:

1. I should call attention first to the size of the blanks. They are larger than the final forms for the reason that they were printed from the engravings which were the exact size of the forms planned. This matter would be corrected if the forms were set up in type as they should be in case the Association goes into the record-card business.

2. There are a number of requests for "smaller type." It will of course be possible to use smaller type in setting up the form. Hand lettering, from which the zinc etchings were made, must be larger in order to reproduce well. Smaller type will give more space for entries.

3. We were guilty of an oversight in omitting the "Science" or "Natural Science" group from the large form.

4. More spaces for subjects will be provided on the small form—probably not less than seven. The increase will be possible from space saved by smaller type at top and bottom.

5. There should be provision for a middle name.

6. "Group" or "Group number" should be placed somewhere on the large card. It is already on the small one.

7. Perhaps "Periods per week" would be better than "Days per week."

8. We need the length of period inserted at some point on the smaller form. It is now on the larger one.

9. There should be at least one more "Latest address" on the small card.

Certain comments relate to organization of the forms. Of those I think the following most pertinent:

1. On small card "General health" and "Physical defects" should be placed at the top of the division in which it appears.

2. "Industrial Arts" and "Home Economics" can be provided for under the single heading, "Practical Arts," on the large card, thus saving space for additional subjects and subject groups.

Other suggestions that seem to be worth considering are, the heavy vertical lines separating each pair of semesters on the large card and the provision on the large form of a wide margin suitable for punching, should the school use a book or binder instead of a drawer file. This would need to be an option in ordering. One principal object to too much

writing in making entries. It would, of course, be out of the question for us to attempt to print in the specific courses or extracurriculum activities provided in particular schools. Many of the comments will be displaced by the directions for use which should accompany the form. For example, one principal would like to insert "conduct." The users can be told in a pamphlet that such additional qualities may be cared for in blank spaces under "personal traits." Another commented that the space for writing in the name of each subject was too short. It was the intention of the committee that symbols rather than full names of subjects be used. For example: the various semester of English could be designated as E1, E2, etc.

Space was provided on both forms for the records of ten semesters as a majority of the high schools of the country are four-year schools and a majority of the judges cooperating in this project recommended space for one year more than the regular course.

Many minor criticisms with reference to the amount of space and location of items on the two blanks will be considered when these blanks are given their final revision. Lack of space on a 5" x 8" or even on an 8½" x 11" made it impossible to include all items desired by critics of the blank, so the committee had to leave out some bulky items even though weighed by the judges more heavily than others, that were included but required less space.

When this project was undertaken it was understood by the committee that its chief purpose was that of bringing about a standardization of the kinds of records kept in high-school offices so that transcripts from one high school to another or from high schools to colleges would contain data comparable to that kept by the school receiving the record. Therefore, your committee has attempted to make this a cooperative project participated in by a large group of principals and a group of university specialists in secondary education. In reaching this objective it is not necessary that all schools use exactly the same forms. It might be quite desirable in some cases that schools print their own forms with adaptations to suit some local needs. However, it does seem very desirable that all shall include in their records those items which, it has been found, are desired by a large number of schools.

If, the forms that we are developing, when finally completed, seem to fit the needs and meet the approval of the members of this Association, the Association might well arrange to print them in large quantities and sell them to the member schools at cost.

Within the next few weeks we hope to complete our task of revising the tentative forms herewith submitted, in accordance with many of the excellent criticisms received, and have them put in printed form for final inspection. In the meantime it might be well for this Association to decide whether it desires to go into the business of printing these forms as it has been doing with the transcript blanks.

THE ARTICULATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS WITH HIGHER EDUCATION

J. B. JOHNSTON, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

WHEN the high schools were organized in the seventies and eighties of the last century they were primarily preparatory schools. There soon arose demands that they should take into account the needs of the majority of their pupils who did not go to college. The high schools came to be thought of as the people's colleges, serving their local communities. In the nineties the schools revolted against the domination of the universities in matters of curriculum. In the twentieth century the high schools, in the enjoyment of their freedom, have continued to concern themselves chiefly with academic or general cultural studies and there has been adequate articulation neither with the institutions which carry on these same studies at higher levels nor with the practical world in which high-school graduates will live and work.

At each stage in the public schools the pupil is under the guidance of a continuing, well-organized staff of teachers who act as advisers in matters of promotion, selection of studies, etc. At the end of high school there is a sudden break. No continuing system of advising bridges the gap between high school and college. Public sentiment has been opposed to anyone raising the question whether it is well or wise for a given boy or girl to go to college, and the individual student has often resented any interference with his choice of a college or of a professional course of study. For the past thirty years we have lived in an age of mysticism during which it was devoutly believed that any child could have a college education if he wanted it badly enough, or any boy could become a physician through fasting and prayer. God knows there has been enough self-support, enough fasting and enough cloistered study to make of the Americans a nation of saints if their mysticism about the subject of education had been well founded.

From the experience of our colleges, however, there have come forth certain realities which young people of today must face and which educators in high school and college must take into account. In order to profit by the training for a physician a boy must have the type of mind capable of mastering natural sciences, especially chemistry and biology and their applications in his technical field. A boy to become an engineer must first of all be a mathematician. A girl to become a high-school teacher must be a successful student in some branch of learning and must demonstrate her aptness in communicating her knowledge and in stimulating young minds. The choice of a profession depends not on whether one likes that profession but whether one is fitted to study and practice it. We have learned that not only poets but all specialists are born and that the making is only accessory. Not only that, but in this age of specialization every man holds his job because he is believed to be better fitted for that particular work than anyone else who is readily available. In view of these facts the public has become realistic enough to support vocational high schools in the cities and commercial, mechanical, homemaking and

other departments in the larger high schools everywhere. It is coming to be recognized that it is the business of the high school to train the child for some job for which nature has already fitted him. Naturally I use the word job to include writing a poem, directing a symphony or moulding a piece of sculpture as well as being a governor or a policeman, riveting a boiler or digging a ditch.

Some children are fitted by nature for certain services in society for which training must be completed in higher institutions of learning. The problem of articulation is the problem of the selection and guidance of these children so that they may be given the training which they deserve. High-school graduates may go to a large variety of higher institutions: the state university, the state teachers' colleges, the privately endowed or denominational colleges located in the state or neighboring states, the small endowed colleges of the east from which many of their parents graduated, or the endowed universities of the east, the middle west, or the far west.

So far as the endowed universities and the older eastern colleges are concerned, admission tends more and more to be limited to those whom each college thinks are fitted to carry on the tradition of the particular institution. The means of articulation consist of College Entrance Board examinations, and the advice of principals, clergymen or others, preferably alumni of the particular institution. These means of judging student fitness have never been experimentally tested. The examinations rest on the dogmatic assumption that they measure aptitude for the kind of thing which the higher institution aims to have its students do. Those who fall below certain marks in the examinations have never been admitted in order to see whether they do the college work better than some of those who attain the requisite marks. This would have been scientific procedure and in all probability would enable the colleges to improve their selection. The growing use of psychological tests, the admission of some students on their high-school records and the continued discussions of policy by the examination board are indications so far as they go of a desire for improvement of their methods on the part of the authorities of these colleges.

The better hope for helpful cooperation and coordination is to be found in the relations of the high schools to the higher institutions away from the Atlantic seaboard. Through the accrediting system begun by the University of Michigan in the seventies and now generally prevailing throughout the middle west, far west and south, any student may go from an accredited high school to the state university, teachers' colleges or endowed colleges of his own state. And through the system of reciprocity most colleges throughout all the states of these regions will accept a student who would be accepted by his own state university.

Now if you go into a town which is the seat of a state teachers' college, the high-school principal will tell you that most of the high-school graduates go to the local teachers' college; and the faculty of the teachers' college will complain bitterly that they get many students who are not

fitted at all to become teachers. The state university draws most of the students from the local high schools who go to college anywhere, and if it be located in population centers gets half of its students from within a radius of fifty miles. The state university generally draws few students from towns which are seats of teachers' colleges or endowed colleges. Each college draws largely from its immediate neighborhood and in a town which has a higher institution of any kind, most parents send their children to this institution. The selection of a school for the student is made on the basis of location, of financial considerations, or of religious affiliation, not in consideration of the student's own talents, interests, and needs. So infatuated have the American people been with the idea of schooling that any old school will do, provided it does not cost too much or provided the boy may be kept under the parental roof. The attention of parents and educators should be directed to the natural endowments of the individual child to the end that each child may be given the kind of training that will develop his powers and that he be helped to select the kind of job which his powers so cultivated will enable him to perform to the satisfaction of his employer and to his own content and happiness. More important than keeping the boy under the parental roof is to put him in a school where he will find studies so interesting and the outlook for a satisfactory life work so alluring that problems of character and conduct do not arise. I know from my experience as you do from yours that this is not an idle dream.

Out of a hundred pupils in any large town who are sent to the local teachers' college, arbitrarily and blindly, at least eighty have something less than that splendid zeal and aptitude which our children have the right to expect in the teachers whom we provide for them. In other towns throughout the state this and that individual pupil—in very small numbers in any community—have just those qualities which go to make the successful teacher. These students should be sent to the teachers' college and those in the town where the teachers' college is located should be sent somewhere else to get the kind of training which their peculiar native endowments demand. What is true of candidates for the teaching profession is true of those who would enter any other profession and of those who seek a general cultural training. When the people of any state become intelligent with regard to higher education they will work out a system under which students will be selected who are fitted by nature and previous education for the work of a given college; and a college or technical school will be selected for each student which is fit to train him in full recognition of his individual talents, interests, and potentialities for service. A chief agency for bringing this about is the body of high-school teachers and administrators.

Such a system would require sufficient higher institutions of different types to provide for those young people whose intellectual capabilities justify school training at a level above the high school. Attention should be called to the need of much better provision of technical or trade schools

which shall keep up with tendencies and new conditions in the industrial and business world.

Without waiting for the establishment of an ideal assortment of higher institutions, the people of a state or region can proceed at once to create the facilities which will enable each student to go where he will fit best. This will involve the selection of young people for education with respect to the services which each one can perform and not with reference to the successful operation of any institution.

There are two bases for the selection of any individual for education, one his general intellectual capability, the other his peculiar traits and specific skills. Pupils of high intellectual ability should be given corresponding opportunities. The public schools have had no means of offering the brilliant pupil all the work he could do. The most that can be offered is rapid promotion up the grades and even that has been offered only in recent years. But rapid dashing forward through a narrowly limited list of studies does not secure the child a full life. The child should have the fullest possible cultivation of all his interests. This is not provided merely by promoting a child of ten years to the same classes with children of fourteen years although he may read Latin and study history better than they. The child of greatest intellectual capability should be given the widest possible opportunity in the direction of knowledge and the most varied training and experience, and these opportunities and experiences should be organized with reference to the stage of development of his personality from year to year. Up through the period of adolescence all round development, breadth of interests, wide knowledge, and varied experience should prevail over mere pushing forward in the line of academic studies. This broad training in the early years lays the foundation for great achievement in adult life, through the symmetrical development of the individual's powers, through giving balance and poise to the nervous system in its reactions, and by fortifying the individual with that appreciation of the various functions and services demanded by society which comes from personal experience. No sacrifice in ultimate achievement is involved in this early breadth of training but only gain. The breadth of base determines the height to which a pyramid or shaft can be built. The child whose head is too much thrust forward is likely to stumble in his race; the leaders run with heads high, eyes alert, and with chest, knees, and feet well forward.

When peculiar traits or special abilities exist together with intellectual brilliance we have genius and when the special traits predominate the general broad training will be limited earlier in order to allow the child to follow his bent. In those who have not outstanding intellectual strength the peculiar ability should be sought out early. These children should then be trained to follow a vocation in which their special ability is needed.

The picture which I wish to suggest stands in contrast to that of the guild system in which the child followed the craft of his father. The object of modern universal education is to enable each child to enter that

occupation for which his native endowments best fit him. The idea is prevalent that attendance at a college of liberal arts is the finest thing possible for any boy. Going to college is an attempt to break into a guild more desirable than that to which one is born. Parents have been erroneously led to believe that a college education ensures social prestige and industrial power. In reality, college training only helps those who are already fitted by nature. The desire of parents and teachers alike should be to find the work which the child can do best and then help him to become highly successful in it. The resulting social and industrial system will be not like the guild system in which each form of service was the monopoly of a closed group but one in which each kind of service is performed by those who have been trained to be expert in it and in which the training for each of these services is open to all who demonstrate their fitness for it. This is the meaning and goal of universal education.

If this be accepted then it is obvious that the study of individual endowments and characteristic traits should begin as early as possible. The child study institutes are telling us that individuality can be studied in early infancy and that the shaping and molding of character goes on rapidly in those early months and years. I have long been convinced that those parents are very foolish who expect the college to mold the character of their sons or daughters, or to correct habits or abuses in their conduct. Little of the kind is done or can be done. The high school can do a little more but even there it is too late for fundamental character building. Character in the rough is inborn. In minor ways it is shaped and polished or roughened in the child by the tone of the home, by the behavior of parents, brothers, sisters and playmates toward one another and him, and by his reactions to these things. The business of the school in early years includes a real contribution to this character-shaping process but in later years becomes increasingly that of recognizing abilities and traits, selecting the child for his place and designing the training of the child for that place. Half consciously and imperfectly these things are being done in the grade schools and high schools. In the clearest cases constantly children are being shunted into the conditions or work which best fits their natures. It is discouraging that so large a body are drifting on in the general course of academic studies without finding their proper places. Just now this driftwood is threatening disaster to the higher education whose function is to train people for the most difficult and important services in a highly complex industrial and political world.

The high school is the great sorting ground. From it go out the largest body of those who are to carry on the industrial and social processes which require intelligence, knowledge and skill. The colleges and the professional and technical schools train those who are to carry on the learned professions and those who lead and direct the intelligent workers in all fields of industry and politics. How is the high school to help its pupils choose wisely between industry, teacher's college, liberal arts college, professional school or technical or trade school? Partly by its own efforts and partly by the help of the various higher institutions.

The high school can study the traits and abilities of its individual pupils. This will be recognized as the chief, outstanding function of the high school. The studies are the means used, not ends in themselves. Having discovered the traits and the strengths and weaknesses of the pupil, the high school must turn to the world of bustling, surging human life to find a place where the boy or girl can join in and play a part. For this service the high school must have the help of the management in industry and in higher educational institutions. Industry is making its contribution with some intelligent interest. Vocational advisers in high schools are enabled to tell pupils the kind of work to be done and the kinds of skill required in many lines of manufacturing and business. The higher schools are far less helpful. Few attempts have been made to tell the high school adviser just what particular skills are required for success in engineering, medicine, law, or liberal arts and how the adviser is to detect and measure these with the instruments at his command. To furnish the high school with this information is now the imperative and the most pressing duty of the higher institutions.

One reason that the colleges have not done more for the guidance of high-school pupils is that the colleges assume that everyone should know that high intellectual ability is necessary for college work. They have assumed furthermore that it must remain difficult to tell in advance the specific field for which a given student will show aptitude and that it is desirable for the student to spend some time in his higher studies before deciding on his final choice. That is all very well but in the last thirty years there has developed a tendency for every high-school graduate to go to college and it is necessary to furnish some basis for wiser decisions.

Of all the freshmen in colleges of liberal arts more than ninety percent are admitted under the certification plan. Any student who has graduated from a high school which is accredited by its state university or by one of the accrediting agencies such as the North Central Association may enter most colleges. There is no principle of selection present in the consciousness of the people and the high-school authorities are powerless to enforce their judgment. Students who have barely passed in high school go blithely on to attempt the more difficult work of a higher school. The college with which I am connected receives nearly a random sampling of high school graduates.

In this college thirty percent of the freshmen do not reach the sophomore year and an additional twenty percent do not reach the junior year or any professional school. Not all of these drop out because of poor scholarship but between thirty and forty percent of our freshmen are simply unable to do college work. If anything like this is true of other institutions admitting on the certificate plan, from 60,000 to 80,000 freshmen entering our colleges each year face certain failure and discouragement.

In an effort to find means of avoiding the wastage and suffering involved in the present plan we have developed at the University of Minnesota a method of predicting success in college which enables us to do certain things.

a. Individuals constituting twenty percent of the freshman class are picked out before they enter classes and designated as certain to fail of satisfactory standing. This prediction proves true in 98 percent of the cases. This is in contrast with an experiment at Stanford University using the Thorndike tests for prediction, where one-fourth of those who were designated as unfit for college work made satisfactory records. The measure of college aptitude at Minnesota is more dependable than any heretofore used. The error in prediction is negligible.

b. A further number of those with very low promise of success in college may be selected with slightly larger percentage of error. If forty percent of the freshman class are selected only one-tenth of these will make good in college.

c. Those students whose native endowments and previous training fit them for distinguished work can be selected in advance so that special efforts may be made to encourage and help them to realize their possibilities to the full. They are placed on a tentative honor roll, their scholastic work is watched, they are given counsel if they have personal difficulties; if they are persistently careless and disinterested they are dropped, while those who prove most capable are given the best attention within our power.

d. It is clearly shown that only the upper-one third of freshmen entrants are as a group clearly fitted for college work. With few exceptions those in the upper one-third will succeed. With very few exceptions those in the lowest one-third will fail. The middle one-third comprises the doubtful cases. For the guidance of these the high school must consider personal traits, financial situation and other factors.

A college aptitude rating was arrived at in these studies in this way. First, we secure from the high-school principal the individual rank of the pupil in his graduating class together with the size of the class. This rank is then converted into a percentile rank to facilitate comparison between those coming from schools of different sizes. It is essential to use the rank of the student among his fellows, not the high-school marks, since these differ so widely from teacher to teacher and from school to school. From the psychological test scores also each student is given his individual rank and this is converted into a percentile rank. The two percentile ranks are then simply averaged to give the college aptitude rating. Only the simple arithmetical processes are required. The calculation of correlation coefficients is unnecessary for the selection of individual students and adds nothing to the dependability of the method. When correlation or scatter tables are constructed the results above named are clearly evident.

What has been done for a college of liberal arts can and should be done for teachers' colleges, colleges of engineering and other professional and technical schools. The teaching profession and its college faculties are much engaged in educational measurements. Is there any reason why the faculties of teachers' colleges should passively bemoan the fact that social conditions and tendencies send them so many students who are by nature unfitted ever to become teachers? Is it not the duty of the teachers' colleges to find out what are the characteristics of a good teacher, how they are to be recognized in the child and how public sentiment is to be informed and family interest aroused to the end that prospective good teachers may be brought into teachers' colleges while those who are fitted for other vocations go to other schools where they can get appropriate training? The teachers' colleges certainly should be among the first to develop such a system of selection. They have every advantage in this field: they train

the teachers, they are intimately associated with the school system, their faculties have had training in methods of educational measurement. In the interests of their profession and the quality of its service they should control entrance to the profession on the basis of fitness and of supply and demand.

In the same way other professional and technical schools should find out and make known to the public how young people can tell or how they can be advised whether they should undertake preparation for a given profession or not. The preparation is very expensive in money and in years of hard work. If it takes ten years of intensive study for engineering colleges to find out how to distinguish between those who should and those who should not be encouraged to study engineering, the colleges ought to make that study. No one has yet attacked this problem with the determination needed. There is no reason for supposing that it is impossible. The only reason for neglecting it is careless indifference to those who fail and the lack of economic pressure on the institutions to select only promising candidates for their expensive professional training. It need hardly be said that engineering is used in this paragraph only as an example of all technical schools. It is a pleasure to know that the law schools of Columbia and Yale universities are now making experimental use of such measures.

Two propositions of great importance in this matter require discussion because of the lack of clear thinking about them. They are (1) that it is the duty of those in charge of professional schools to use their resources, whether received from taxes or from endowments, for the training of those best fitted for the given profession and only in sufficient numbers to fill all demands for services to society including exploration of new resources and the development of new enterprises; and (2) the intelligent selection of students for each form of higher education is a distinct service to the individual citizen and can be in no way a curtailment of his free opportunities.

The first proposition should require little comment. It is a wellknown fact that various professions are overcrowded from time to time. At the present time many young women who have prepared themselves for high-school teaching find no openings and become saleswomen in department stores. Many men trained for engineering are obliged to enter lines of business for which their technical training is of little advantage. A good many men after their full training is completed are unable to make good in their professions. Up to the time when competition freezes them out they render an unsatisfactory service to their clients. The net results are misplaced efforts, loss to clients and loss to society in the cost of the training and in the usefulness of the individual who is not specially fitted for anything. Every citizen is a social asset and all members of society suffer on account of those who fail to be productive because they are misfits or inefficient. Social and economic selection in the long run is universal and imperative. Society profits most if the individuals who are best fitted are trained for and practice in each profession. The custom of allowing large numbers to begin training and of leaving the unfit to be slowly weeded

out during the technical course and afterward in practice is wasteful for society and unfair to the individual. The weight of evidence favors the belief that it is possible to make the selection to a large extent in advance with intelligence and justice. The burden of proof rests on those schools which neglect special studies directed to this end or who apply with laxity the measures they already possess, and allow their schools to fill up with many more than their professions require.

The second proposition is that the intelligent selection of students for each form of higher education is a distinct service to the individual citizen and can be in no way a curtailment of his free opportunities. By intelligent selection I mean one that is accurate in its results as applied to individuals. Such a selection must be based on knowledge derived from careful and impartial study of all the factors and must be set up and repeatedly tested by experiment. This kind of selection is carried on immediately in the interest of individuals and of society in general. The interest of any institution as such is incidental and does not enter in as a primary or major consideration at all. Any institution which actually serves the interests of the individuals whom it touches can be sure of popular appreciation and adequate support, and not otherwise. Unless an institution can approach this subject of selection in this spirit of disinterestedness and desire to secure the highest welfare of the individuals who seek its training, it would better turn its job over to someone who will.

Some students are to be admitted to certain training because this is clearly the fitting thing for them to do. Others are to be turned away because in view of all the facts, their qualifications, the state of the profession and the needs of society, it is not suitable for them to enter. Still others must be admitted because for the moment the institution has not the knowledge to decide what is best in their cases. They must reach a decision by the traditional method of trial and error. This uncertain group will be reduced in numbers as fast as understanding of all the factors in selection becomes more complete.

This form of selection is contrasted on the one hand to that by which institutions limit their enrolment to fit their income and seek to take those students who will maintain the traditions of the institution; and on the other hand to that which results from vague and uncriticized personal inclinations, from reports that big money can be made in a given profession, from association with members of a profession as a father or uncle who is a doctor or lawyer, from contact with the everyday routine of an occupation as during employment as chore boy in a drug store or law office, or similar reasons. An institution which must limit its enrolment and selects in accordance with its own affinities and traditions thereby renders a service to society which is accidental rather than purposeful.

The student who chooses his vocation for vague, superficial or sentimental reasons may or may not be good college material. If he is, it may be found that he fits not in medicine but in English literature, not in aesthetics but in engineering, and so on. Examples of the re-direction of students

who are on the wrong road through lack of knowledge and selfexamination are numerous and constantly appearing in the work of our faculty counsellors.

Even selection which is carried on in the most intelligent manner and with the interest of the individual constantly in view will meet with the frequently expressed fear that a parent's son will be deprived of his rights. This, of course, is impossible so far as the selection is intelligent. To reject a student from a given course of study because of adequate proof that he cannot succeed in it does not deprive him of any right. If the evidence is not sound or adequate then of course the student should not be deprived of his right to proof by trial. If the evidence is sound, then the important fact is that the young man or woman is relieved of the certainty of failure and discouragement. Instead of being deprived of anything he is given a distinct service. Also a second service is often rendered in that he is shown the way to some vocation for which he is fitted and in which he will succeed. Every administrator has found in students and their parents an attitude of dissatisfaction which is due to blind following of desire and a neglect of facts. A parent is told that his son may not take or is dropped from a given course because he has proved himself unable or unfitted to carry that work and the parent counters with the assertion that the son has the right to take the course and to graduate in it. In these cases the attention is focussed on the social position or the material gain to come from the subsequent practice and the actual capabilities and personal interests of the student are lost sight of. These are, however, unusual cases. Most students and their parents are able clearly and readily to understand what is meant by ability and fitness for any line of study and most parents are grateful for a frank statement of the facts and are very appreciative of a method of handling students which has in view fitting a student into a place where he will be successful and happy.

A more serious objection because more vague and more difficult to put on ground of mutual understanding and discussion in the light of clearly ascertained facts, is the argument that any process of selection which shuts out slow or dull students from a higher institution may deprive society of the services of some who develop late unusual powers and values. Two things may be said clearly and with confidence. First, those persons who are now rendering important services in society who claim to have been dull and unpromising students are not the type of persons who would be eliminated by any such system of guidance as I am now advocating. There is little difficulty to distinguish between substantial slow people and mere mediocrity, shallowness, inconsequentiality, imitation, hollow desire and sham pretense. Moreover, it is now possible in large measure to find out why people are slow or moderate in their achievement. If it is due to poor or improper training in methods of study or to bad habits or associations the student can be and is given the benefit of every reasonable effort to correct these things. If the original judgment is not favorable to the slow student a later one may be after he has had the benefit of these corrective

exercises. Thus it may be said, second, that any intelligent system of selection will take care of such cases as these without injustice.

Finally, one other point of general import. The selection of students for higher education must become a matter of general social attitude, interest, and custom. By the great majority of people in this country the entrance examination system has been regarded as a barrier between them and much coveted opportunities, a barrier set up not in their interest nor in the interest of the whole people but in the interest of the institutions privately supported, of social and economic groups who wish to maintain their exclusive position, or of narrowly academic and pedantic faculties. It is less important to know how much or how little truth there is in these beliefs than to recognize that they are widely held. Rejected students are not convinced that their failure to pass the examinations is an evidence that they are actually unfit to do the work for which they have applied. In most cases this question never enters their heads, but only the social opportunities from which they are debarred. They are denied admission to an exclusive cult or club.

This situation yields no dividends for higher education as an agency of social control and selfgovernment. The people must come to understand the functions of higher education. They must know that higher institutions train persons for certain services in society. Since these services require persons of certain capabilities and since the institutions are the agents of the whole people, it is obviously the duty of the institutions to select for training those who will be efficient. Since it is more important for the people of Minnesota to develop this frame of mind the university does not propose to use its measures of college aptitude as a criterion for admission. It does not deny entrance to any graduate of an accredited school, but it does give the ratings of pupils to themselves and their parents, with an explanation of the significance of these ratings, and leaves them to decide whether the boy or girl shall enter college. At the same time the college has classified its freshman studies and will assign each student to that group of studies from which he will be likely to gain the most advantage. Students with very low ratings cannot become candidates for a degree until they have demonstrated their ability to carry college studies.

Earlier I have described selection as a service to the individual. Here it is expressed as a service to society at large. These are the two sides of the same shield. Unless selection is at one and the same time a service to the individual and to the state it is indefensible. The purpose of selection is to place and adjust the individual among all other individuals, that is, in society. In this light selection appears to the citizen and taxpayer not as some privilege-protecting scheme, but as an institution for public service like the postoffice or fire department. Through the creation of this attitude and state of mind among the people lies the way to the solution of the higher institutions' problems of overcrowding and inadequate support and to the peoples' ills of high taxes for unsatisfactory schools, ignorance and uncertainty in the choice of vocations, bitter disappointment and unhappy lives

for those who have not found their places. Not all the problems of society are to be solved by educational guidance and selection but this is one of the chief functions of the public school system, and if the task of guidance is seriously undertaken in all grades from kindergarten to university the resulting services will be greater than any of us now here can believe.

ARTICULATION OF JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS —THE INHERENT NEED, THE DIFFICULTIES, AND A CONSTRUCTIVE PROGRAM

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I. The Inherent Need for Articulation

1. *The six-year secondary unit*—The four-year high school, through the process of educational evolution, is slowly going the way of the Latin grammar school and the academy. The chief present distinction is the difference between progressive and past tenses.

The six-year secondary unit, or "the extended secondary school,"¹ is as inevitable a stage of evolutionary progress as the public high school was an evolutionary advance over the academy. We give ourselves much concern over the problems of converting the 8-4 plan to the 6-3-3 and 6-6 organization. Yet we have not experienced and are not likely to experience the long and acrimonious contention which characterized the evolution of the semi-public academy into the public high school.

In approaching this problem of articulating junior and senior high schools or any other problem in the six-year secondary unit we need always to be reminded that we are concerned with a period of educational history. Otherwise, we may seriously complicate the solution of our problems by futile opposition to the fourth historical type of secondary education, viz., the extended secondary school.

The best promise, accordingly, for the more effective articulation of junior and senior high schools is to be found in the practically universal acceptance of the junior high-school movement, which is the concrete product of the change from four to six years of secondary education. Another promise lies in the steadily growing understanding by the senior high school of junior high school developments.

2. *The four-year high school sponsored the six-year secondary unit*—In attempting the solution of articulating the two component units of the secondary period we need also to be reminded that the four-year high school first promoted the extension of secondary education to include grades 7 and 8. The junior high-school movement had its origin in the recommendation of the Committee of Ten that "the secondary school period should be made to begin two years earlier than at present."

This recommendation was followed by another from the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education that the public school sys-

¹ Koos, Leonard V., *The American Secondary School*, Chapter I, pages 37-40.

tem should be reorganized into two major divisions of elementary and secondary each six years in length. Moreover, the Commission, composed almost wholly of high-school leaders, enunciated another principle which has become a basic distinction between junior and senior high schools. To quote from the *Cardinal Principles*: "The six years to be devoted to secondary education may well be divided into two periods which may be designated as the junior and senior periods."¹

To the four-year high school, consequently, belongs the credit of the two most significant changes in secondary education since the establishment of the public high school, viz., the six-year secondary unit and the division of these six years into two component periods, the junior high school and the senior high school. Opposition to the junior high-school movement by the four-year school is equivalent, therefore, to the desertion of its own child.

3. *Two types of the six-year secondary unit*—The coordinate relationship between junior and senior high schools is materially strengthened by the extension of the junior high-school movement from the 6-3-3 organization of cities to the 6-6 organization of smaller communities. Already, according to the *Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*, the latter outnumber the former.

The chief virtue of the 6-3-3 plan is the preservation of the distinct functions of the junior and senior periods and its chief problem is their articulation. On the other hand, the chief virtue of the 6-6 plan is its natural articulation of the six years and its chief problem is the preservation of the distinct functions of the two units. Our problem of articulation is, therefore, almost wholly a problem of city systems where junior and senior high schools are segregated.

II. Difficulties Delaying Articulation

So far in the movement toward the six-year secondary unit we have, almost by force of circumstances, concentrated on clarifying the distinctive functions of the junior and senior periods to prevent wasteful overlapping. We have, however, always been conscious that the two periods are complementary. But we have been too busy in establishing the identity of each to divert much effort toward achieving their articulation. Possibly the present lack of articulation is a serious reflection upon both units.

This paper does not attempt to set up an alibi for failure to articulate but it does maintain that it was necessary first to clarify through experience the common and distinct functions of each before articulation became practicable. Beyond any question of doubt the challenge is now presented to both junior and senior high schools to discover first the causes of the present lack of articulation and second by a constructive program of articulation to remove these difficulties.

1. *Habit of intensive and exclusive concentration*—The junior high-school experiment in city systems has been largely conducted independently. Op-

¹ Bulletin, 1918, No. 35, *Cardinal Principles*, Bureau of Education, page 18.

portunity was needed to undertake the solution of problems new and peculiar to the junior high school alone. Concentration of junior high-school faculties upon these peculiar problems afforded the opportunity and promoted rapid progress in establishing the movement.

At the same time the senior high school was confronted with the problems of adapting high-school organization and curricula to the most phenomenal growth in enrolment ever experienced in the history of secondary education in America or in any other country.

Each unit was forced by these and other conditions to a period of concentrated attention to its own respective problems. Consequently the habit of exclusiveness grew upon the two schools of the secondary unit. Admittedly it was an unfortunate habit and yet it was a natural outcome of inexorable conditions. Now that the peculiar functions of each unit have been more clearly defined and some problems solved it becomes difficult to overcome the inertia of the habit.

2. *The inertia of exclusiveness overcome by mutual approach*—The habit of exclusiveness naturally produced a lack of understanding because of failure to provide opportunities for understanding. Just as naturally lack of understanding led to misunderstanding out of which arose friction and discord.

It became the almost universal practice of junior high schools to believe that the senior high school failed to show a sympathetic attitude toward their experiments. The converse is equally true. Thus the two units developed unfortunate attitudes of mind toward each other. The solution again does not lie in any attempt to fix responsibility but in a mutual decision to seek opportunities for cooperative action. Friction and discord dissipate in the presence of sympathetic and cooperative conference.

3. *Common and distinctive viewpoints*—There have developed in junior and senior high schools conflicting points of view toward secondary education. The junior high school inherited from the elementary school the point of view of the child and psychology as the focus of educational procedure. The senior high school inherited from the college the point of view of subjectmatter as the focus of its method.

In the one case the point of view led to the adoption of an aim to democratize the secondary unit by a program of functional education which abandoned the prevailing selective principles for the more democratic distributive principle. In the other case the former necessity to prepare a minority of pupils for college rested upon the senior high school and led to a continuance in some degree of traditional college-preparatory education and of the selective principle of eliminating college misfits.

These divergences in points of view are not wholly remedial. The junior high school must be integrated both with the elementary school and the senior high school. At the same time the latter must be integrated both with the initial secondary period and with the college. Each successive unit in the whole range of elementary, secondary, collegiate, and professional

education has both common and distinctive features in comparison with preceding and following units.

4. *College accrediting*—A fourth difficulty in promoting the articulation of junior and senior high schools arises from the present confusion of college accrediting. The movement to restrict accrediting to the senior high school on the basis of 12 units earned in the 10th, 11th, and 12th years has steadily gained adoption among college admission boards and registrars. This cause of friction will be gradually removed.

The movement to confine accrediting relations to the senior high school has received the general endorsement of both secondary units. The uniting of efforts to achieve an accrediting basis in conformity with 6-3-3 organizations will create a helpful attitude of cooperation and will contribute materially to the more effective articulation of both schools.

III. A Constructive Program of Articulation

1. *Director of secondary education*—It has become the practice in many cities to designate an associate superintendent as director of secondary schools or to create the position unattached to an assistant superintendency. In a few of the very large systems the coordinating of all secondary schools is committed to two associate superintendents who have jurisdiction over the respective junior and senior high schools and who closely collaborate in their fields.

It is clearly apparent that the position of director of secondary schools is a direct and effective agency in securing articulation. The successful experience of this experimental supervision in our larger systems has led to the appointment of a secondary school leader in smaller cities whose size has not formerly warranted an assistant superintendent. This extension of the directorship of secondary schools to systems not previously supporting an assistant to the superintendency is proof in itself of the need and the effectiveness of the secondary school directorship.

2. *Junior-senior high-school administrators conference group*—The practice of occasional conferences of junior and senior high-school principals is very generally followed by all city superintendents. The results in positive progress in effecting articulation are beyond question more extensive and permanent when these conferences are controlled by a program of stated meetings at regular intervals throughout the school year.

Either the superintendent or his secondary school director presides at the conferences. Frequently, other supervisory leaders are either regularly in attendance or upon invitation in occasional attendance. In other instances viceprincipals enjoy the privilege of membership. Gradually the custom of a carefully planned program of discussion is adopted with specific assignments to individual members.

This secondary conference group comprises for a superintendent as high a type of professional leadership as he can command among his school staffs. The primary objective is usually articulation of all secondary schools. It is, however, likely that the range of interests will extend beyond this aim

and that the conference group will develop into a clearinghouse for the consideration of many more general educational policies.

3. *Vertical supervision*—The extension of the secondary period from four to six years has been more influential in promoting the vertical system of supervision than any other single development of recent years in school administration. The introduction of an intermediate school of transition between elementary and secondary education has created in many systems a condition which demanded continuity of supervisory leadership.

The universal curriculum rebuilding of recent years has led to the appointment of supervisors of major courses of study who almost invariably are charged with responsibility to articulate elementary, junior high, and senior high courses of study through a vertical junior high, and senior high courses of study through a vertical system of supervision. Thus the former practice of delegated supervision in health, fine and practical arts, penmanship, and commercial education has been extended by many superintendents to include supervisors of English, social studies, science, mathematics, and foreign languages.

4. *Organization for curriculum integration*—The day has largely passed when the content of courses is determined by the specialist alone.

Consultation and conference in curriculum making have become the general practice. Curriculum committees of classroom teachers characterize practically all recent organizations for curriculum reconstruction. The articulation of courses of study has been secured by general committees representing elementary, junior and senior high school teachers or by a steering committee composed of committee chairmen. Whatever the organization a conscious effort has been made to integrate the courses of study through the elementary and secondary years.

The challenge to the junior high school to reconstruct courses of study has been insistent. Without reconstruction progress in realizing the purposes of the junior high school would have been handicapped if not entirely prevented. Necessarily, courses of study for 7th, 8th, and 9th years must be reorganized with respect to the allied courses in the elementary grades and in the senior high school.

This reconstruction of the program of studies demands a curriculum organization in which junior and senior high schools must cooperate with regard to secondary courses. These round table conferences of classroom teachers are a potent influence in securing articulation through the six-year secondary period.

The trend toward articulation of junior and senior high-school courses of study is attested by the increasing practice of basing state department courses of study upon six years each of elementary and secondary education. The bulletins of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education pioneered in the movement toward continuity in courses of study for the six secondary years. The Department of Superintendence of the N. E. A. has published its Fifth Yearbook (1927) on the Junior High

School Curriculum, its Sixth Yearbook (1928) on the Senior High School Curriculum and is now engaged on the problem of Articulation.

5. *Single salary schedule*—A general consensus of opinion favors equal salaries for equal training and experience among junior and senior high school positions. Practice, however, conforms with belief in only a limited number of city systems. The fact, nevertheless, that any systems offer equal salaries establishes the trend.

The requirement of college training among the qualifications for junior high-school positions steadily increases and furnishes the basis for the equal salary standard. The question of a single salary scale is contingent upon common standards of qualifications. Justice demands that any system which establishes professional requirements for all secondary teachers upon a single standard should at the same time establish a single salary schedule.

Once the qualifications become equal the continuance of a senior high-school scale above that of the junior high school is due only to the traditional practice of paying higher salaries to high-school teachers without the warranty for the practice which existed when qualifications were higher. From the standpoints of training required, teaching abilities demanded, service rendered, professional experimentation and research studies undertaken, hours given, extension and other professional courses pursued—from these and other considerations it must be admitted that the requirements have been more persistently demanded of junior than senior high-school teachers.

The persistence of graduated salary scales between junior and senior high-school teachers is inconsistent with their common secondary school status, with their equal qualifications, with their equal professional standards, and with the service rendered. It is difficult to overestimate the influence of a single salary schedule in effecting more complete articulation of the two secondary schools.

6. *Teacher training courses in secondary education*—City systems offer the same extension and other teacher training courses to both groups. This is at least a tacit recognition of their common professional needs. These courses promote mutual study of common problems and produce that community of interests which will at least make the need of secondary school articulation apparent in professional theory.

The continued practice of offering these professional courses to both groups alike must finally lead from the acceptance of a common basis of professional study to the actual practice of articulating materials and methods of classroom work.

7. *Local interchange of teacher visiting*—Articulation is everywhere a local problem. Senior high-school teachers should be informed upon junior high-school work and vice versa. Opportunities to so inform both groups are readily available wherever the custom of interchange of visits between junior and senior high-school teachers exists.

The results of interchange of personal visitation are a better understanding, increased mutual respect, closer personal and professional relations, and more purposeful efforts to effect genuine articulation.

8. *Research studies comprehensive of six-year secondary unit*—Scientific research, originally restricted to professional centers, has spread to many city systems where a definite organization under the leadership of a Director of Research assures the continuance of scientific studies to promote cumulative progress. The universal need for a comprehensive scope in the investigation of secondary problems should result in the organization of research committees representative of both junior and senior high schools.

Here again is afforded an opportunity to convert a purpose to articulate all secondary schools into an established practice by means of research studies mutually pursued and constructive measures formulated explicitly to integrate both units.

9. *Continuity in programs of activities and guidance*—Extracurriculum activities and guidance programs have found ready adoption in both junior and senior high schools. The experiments, however, have been largely conducted independently by each unit. The need for progressive continuity in both the activities and guidance programs has become apparent from experience of the lack of coordination.

Here is a problem of articulation which challenges all administrative leaders, the conference group of principals, the research bureau, the guidance staff, and the sponsors of activities. No city system can attempt the solution of the problem of coordinating these two forward looking movements in secondary education without enlisting the cooperation of both groups.

10. *Secondary to denote both junior and senior high schools*—Custom has attached a limited connotation to the terms—high school, junior high school, and senior high school. No one can be employed to designate them all. Fortunately, the more recent custom in defining the term secondary has given it a connotation to comprise all units of a school system above the elementary school and below the college.

Local, state, and national education associations have adopted the practice of organizing a department of secondary education at whose sessions subjects of specific interest to each unit and of common interest to both junior and senior high schools are provided on the programs.

The final sanction for the use of secondary in this comprehensive significance was given by the affiliation in February, 1928, of this Department of Secondary School Principals with the National Education Association. This body of national professional leaders will constitute a most potent factor in hastening the actual articulation of the junior and senior high schools which now jointly and equally compose its membership.

THE PROBLEMS OF ARTICULATION BETWEEN THE ELEMENTARY AND THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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Dewey has pointed out that the elementary school and the college represent distinctly different forces historically. The college came in response to the desire of the privileged class for polish befitting the man of leisure;

the elementary school has come in response to the urge from the masses—a yearning of democracy for better understanding.

The high school came as a resultant of these two forces. It is, as it were, the first attempt at articulation between the elementary school and the college.

Then came the junior high school as a further effort to bridge the gap between the elementary school and the senior high school. And now we have the junior college gradually developing as the means of articulation between the senior high school and the university. The one problem of wide-gap articulation has thus become a series of problems in articulation. If there is any virtue in division, the problem of articulation should be smaller because now the divisor is larger.

A still further regrouping of years that may materially affect transition is now being considered in some quarters, namely; the elementary grades group of 6 years followed by the high-school group including the 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th years, followed by the junior college group including the 11, 12, 13, 14 years, this in turn topped by the university group including the 15, 16, and two additional years, the 17th and 18th.

Thus articulation is forever with us in varying form. In any of these cases the problem of transition from the elementary group to the secondary group is about the same.

The very fact that in the pioneering stages the junior high school has practically retained the 7-8 grades the same in content as they were in the elementary school has somewhat minimized the problem of articulation. The articulation has been rather on the basis of physical adjustment to new surroundings than on the basis of changed study content, and this condition has had its saving grace.

But with the more definite set up of junior high school special purposes this problem of articulation promises to become just as keen as it was in the earlier days in passing from the 8th year to the senior high school.

There is no need of repeating here in detail the special purposes of the junior high school. It is an expression of a changing conception of education especially as it relates to the early years of adolescence. We are fast developing a new attitude, a new atmosphere, a new technic. As stated in the *Fifth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence*, "It is essentially an exploratory tryout and information school. It is neither a sub-secondary school nor a vocational or trade school." With the idea of its being a finding school, it needs to emphasize the laboratory-library method. The place of specialization is in the senior high school.

So far as the special purposes of the elementary school are concerned, Weet has stated them as follows:

1. The pupil should learn to read, write and speak, and acquire the elementary processes in arithmetic.
2. He should learn the laws of physical health and grow to appreciate the meaning of life and nature.

3. He should know and appreciate the geography and history of his own community, state, nation, and something of the world. He should sense his share in the social, civic, and industrial order so that he may better appreciate justice, sympathy and loyalty.

4. He should learn to share intelligently and appreciatively in the fine and useful arts through participations in music, drawing, literature, manual training, and household arts as related to food, clothing and shelter.

To attain these four objectives, the subjectmatter and activities must be arranged in a continuous and progressive series of experiences adapted at every step to the apprehension of the child.

As Briggs puts it, the function of the elementary school is to furnish common training and thus to integrate the future citizen by inculcating in him the basic ideals of democracy.

The junior high school in addition to this seeks to give variety of experience through an enriched curriculum in order that choice may be based on rational procedure.

The fundamental process in the elementary groups, however it may be garnished by socialization, etc. has to be "drill" while the fundamental process in the junior high school needs to be "experimentation," not forgetting the value of drill as a subsidiary.

Thus the articulation of the elementary school with the junior high school involves essentially a transition from the "drill" period to the laboratory-library period.

What are some of the problems inherent in this transition? Having a daughter who recently went from an elementary school to a junior high school I asked her as a witness to note the most marked differences between the school she formerly attended and the new junior high school. This is what she said:

One of the differences that bothered us was that in the elementary school the length of the period of each study was left to the teacher and in the junior high school we had to change rooms when the bell rang.

At the elementary school each child had a desk in which books and personal belongings were kept, while in the junior high school lockers are provided. Getting used to these lockers seemed to bother all of us.

The change from one teacher with only a few changes to many teachers was hard to get used to. We felt lost.

We started in right away on club activities before we knew what we were doing. We choose clubs not because we wanted them but because someone else did.

Losing our recesses bothered us too, but I am used to these changes now and it is not so bad.

Another serious transition difficulty that might be added is that of "how to study." In about 75 percent of the junior high schools the short period obtains. Children come from an elementary school where they are with the one teacher practically the entire time and are thrown suddenly on their own resources in the junior high study hall. Not only that but in many cases the junior high school has aped the ways of the senior high school and has departmentalized the school from very beginning of the 7th grade one teacher for each subject.

We have also the specialist in the subject who points out that for instance in order to have enough equipment say for social studies it should be departmentalized from the 7th grade on. The problem is still further complicated by the fact that the junior high school has inherited and continued to hold the many subjects found in the traditional 7th grade. The desire of teachers to teach one subject, along with the above considerations has led us to the point of being in danger of emphasizing subject rather than pupil.

A problem of transition still in the pioneer stages is that of the exploratory subjects and their sequence, with the related matter of election.

A very serious problem of articulation is that of subjectmatter transitional content.

Then there is the further problem of promotion. What constitutes fitness? How shall it be measured? Now it happens that I am the principal of a so-called neighborhood junior high school of 1500 children in a foreign neighborhood and reaching from the nursery to the 9th grade, with two elementary buildings and a junior high school building; so it also happens that I have a real rather than a professional interest in the problems of articulation. I am practically interested in devices and procedures that will smooth the humps along the road. The following are already in practice in many places:

Supervised study—The hour plan commends itself as it is not so abrupt a change from the elementary school period plan. It utilizes more satisfactorily the laboratory-library method. In connection with this the club period for the 7th grade at least should be for the entire class considering how to study the lives of successful men and parliamentary procedure.

Auditorium periods in part at least should be given over to grade forums, how to study, and other matters of guidance. Guidance, personal and group, when properly subserved to the best interests of the pupil is an important part of all junior high experimentation.

In the matter of mechanical adjustment to departmental work, I see no reason why pupils in the 5th and 6th grades should not travel to other teachers for such special work as music, physical education, and applied art; and in the junior high these devices are used. One is to have one teacher in each 7th grade handle the social studies, English, and mathematics, and the other is to set up certain subjects such as science and drawing as short unit alternating courses to reduce the number of teachers the pupil has to meet and for the teacher the number of personalities she has to carry in mind.

But there is the urge of the specialist to departmentalize. We are seriously in need of a content re-organization. To reduce the number of subjects will not settle the question. What is needed is a re-unitizing, a re-grouping of subjectmatter in terms of activity. Why not, for instance, set up a seventh grade unit around a particular activity involving the related social studies, English, arithmetic, applied art, etc. This involves the fuller use of the project or enlarged contract plan. We need

a specializing generalist to integrate for the needs of the junior high pupil what the subject specialist has disintegrated into cold, logical facts and figures.

If election is based on experimentation, and if wise transition is provided, why have any election in the 7th grade? Many junior high schools do not.

We are beginning to develop exploratory courses on the funnel plan such as proposed by Vandenburg and election in connection with this is beginning to have meaning. First exposure, then experience and then election; herein is growth and democracy. But democracy also has positive demands and these are not to be minimized.

Probably there are very few schools but now use the ability grouping in arranging the class personnel. This aids the transition problem by placing pupils where they will be treated according to their class and individual needs. And there need be no arguments made in favor of minimizing for special limited classes the amount of departmental work.

So far as admitting pupils to the junior high school is concerned, the following extract from the Oakland Junior High manual is typical of the practice in many places:

Pupils who complete the 6th grade are regularly admitted to the junior high school. Over age pupils who may reasonably be expected to profit by work in the junior high school may on recommendation of the elementary school principal with the approval of the superintendent in charge be placed in a junior high school.

This of course presupposes special junior high treatment.

In conclusion, uptodate, it seems to me that the articulation between the elementary and the junior high school has been primarily one of mechanical adjustment because the 7th and 8th grades are still in a large measure made up of the traditional content. But just as surely as can be, all these thinking junior high-school administrators, these inquisitive university professors, these open-minded teachers, are going to rehabilitate the 7-8 grade traditional content and rejuvenate the 9th grade complex—and then we will have a junior high content renaissance worthy of the crusade that is now tending that way.

And when that renaissance of content does come, unless we are transition-conscious, we will have some real problems of articulation both above and below. But why worry? The vision of something better yet to be glorifies the work we do from day to day and guarantees professional eternity, "For a dreamer lives forever and a toiler dies in a day."

REPORT OF TREASURER

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

JANUARY 1, 1927, to DECEMBER 31, 1927

PRESENTED AT BOSTON, FEBRUARY 27, 1928

Receipts

Balance in bank, December 31, 1926.....	\$7,481.04
Annual dues from members.....	\$3,792.00

Sale of Yearbooks.....	\$186.75	
Sale of Abstracts.....	3.02	
Sale of Uniform Certificate Blanks.....	70.61	
Honor Society Fees.....	4,904.57	
Exhibit booth rentals at St. Louis.....	330.00	\$9,286.95

\$16,767.99

Expenditures

SECRETARY'S OFFICE

Clerical services	\$993.32	
Postage	80.00	
Printing	19.00	
Refund of dues to members	6.00	
Exchange	.40	

EXPENDED FOR N. E. A.

Rubber stamp	\$3.25	
Time checks	3.00	6.25
		\$1,104.97

HONOR SOCIETY

Postage	\$107.39	
Charters	309.00	
Refund of charter fees	10.00	426.39

BULLETIN No. 14 (*January, 1927*)

Printing	\$215.50	
Postage	6.15	221.65

BULLETIN No. 15 (*Eleventh Yearbook*)

Printing	\$1,491.66	
Postage	29.64	
Mailing	45.00	1,566.30

BULLETIN No. 16 (*April, 1927, Directory*)

Printing (first payment)	\$300.00	
(balance due \$250)		
Postage	13.17	
Mailing	25.00	\$338.17

BULLETIN No. 17 (*May, 1927*)

Printing	\$207.75	
Postage	7.79	215.54

BULLETIN No. 18 (*October, 1927*)

Printing	\$187.50	
Postage	6.69	
Mailing	30.00	224.19

CONVENTION IN ST. LOUIS, 1927

Printing preliminary programs	\$33.69	
Badges	136.92	
Signs in hotel	4.50	
Expenses of President (M. R. McDaniel)	105.86	
Traveling expenses, President	34.80	
Printing final programs	48.00	

Traveling expenses, Secretary	\$36.90	
Railroad tickets	29.36	
Honorariums	378.75	
Expenses of clerk	41.87	
Expenses of speakers, traveling and hotel	364.42	
Typewriting of committee report	3.00	
Expenses, Committee International Understanding	11.28	\$1,229.35
COMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE		
Meeting in Chicago, May 8 and 9, 1927	\$641.37	641.37
Delegates to Meeting of World Federation of Education Associations, Toronto, Canada, August 7-12, 1927	\$246.37	246.37
BONDS		
10 First mortgage, real estate bonds, 6%	\$10,000.00	
Accrued interest on bonds at purchase	154.14	
Rental (one year) of safety deposit vault box ..	3.00	10,157.14
EXHIBITS, ST. LOUIS * MEETING		
Booth construction	\$30.00	30.00
Meeting of Committee on Standard Blank (Cicero, Illinois, December 5, 1927)	\$36.07	36.07
Expenses of Wm. Wetzel to meeting of Executive Committee of National Committee on Research in Secondary Education at Washington, June 6, 1927	\$19.97	19.97
		\$16,457.48
Balance in bank, December 31, 1927	\$10.51	\$310.51

CONSTITUTION OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

ARTICLE I—NAME

The name of this Department shall be the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE II—AIM

The aim of this Department is to promote the interest of secondary education in America by giving a special consideration to the problems that arise in connection with the administration of secondary schools.

ARTICLE III—MEMBERSHIP

SECTION 1—Membership in the Department of Secondary-School Principals shall consist of Active and Associate.

SECTION 2—All principals of secondary schools, namely junior high schools, senior high schools, and junior colleges, their administrative and executive assistants, heads of schools of education in normal schools, colleges, and universities, together with professors teaching secondary education therein and secondary-school representatives of state education departments, who are also members of the N. E. A., shall be eligible to Active Membership upon payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$2.00. Active members shall have the privilege of voting.

SECTION 3—Members of state organizations of secondary-school principals shall be eligible to Associate Membership of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, as a group, by the payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$1.*

SECTION 4—All others engaged in secondary education, who are members of the National Education Association, shall be eligible to Associate Membership upon payment to the Secretary of the annual fee of \$1.

SECTION 5—All members both Active and Associate shall receive all publications of the Department.

ARTICLE IV—OFFICERS

SECTION 1—Officers of this Department shall be a President, First Vice-president, Second Vice-president, and Executive Secretary, who shall be the executive officer of the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2—The Executive Committee shall consist of these officers, the retiring President, and two members of the Department. The Executive Committee shall be representative of junior high schools, senior high schools and junior colleges.

ARTICLE V—ELECTION OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1—At the first session of the annual mid-winter meeting a nominating committee of nine shall be elected by ballot from a list of at least eighteen members nominated from the floor. This committee shall elect a Chairman, select nominees for all offices except the Executive Secretary, and report at the regular business session of the mid-winter meeting. After the report of the nominating committee the President of the Department shall call for other nominations for the different offices and for the membership on the Executive Committee.

SECTION 2—The Executive Secretary shall be selected by the Executive Committee for an indefinite period.

* Note: This clause shall become inoperative as soon as the respective state organizations can work out provisions for enlisting their membership as active members of this department.

ARTICLE VI—MEETINGS

SECTION 1—The Department of a Secondary-School Principals shall hold two meetings yearly. The regular annual meeting to be held at the time and place of the meetings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, unless arranged for otherwise by the Executive Committee of the National Education Association.

SECTION 2—The second meeting of the Department shall be held at the time and place of the annual summer meeting of the National Education Association.

ARTICLE VII—AMENDMENTS

The Constitution may be amended by a majority vote of those present and voting at the annual mid-winter meeting. A proposed amendment must be submitted in writing at the receding annual meeting, or must be submitted in printed form to all members of the Department thirty days before the annual meeting. In case the latter method is used, such amendment must receive the approval of the Executive Committee before it can be printed and sent to the members of the Department.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, A. C. Krey, Professor of History, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; *First Vicepresident*, Edgar Dawson, Professor of Political Science, Hunter College, New York City; *Second Vicepresident*, R. M. Tryon, Professor of History, School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Bessie L. Pierce, Associate Professor of History, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa; *Board of Directors*, Edna Stone, Director, Teacher Training in History, University High School, Oakland, Calif.; DeWitt S. Morgan, Arsenal Technical High School, Indianapolis, Ind. Facts relating to the establishment of this Department and the record of meetings are found in earlier *Proceedings* as follows:

1926:652-663

1927:679-695

DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL ATTITUDES IN THE SCHOOLS—ABSTRACT

HOWARD E. WILSON, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO,
CHICAGO, ILL.

INTERNATIONAL cooperation is a factor of modern existence which cannot be ignored. Our economic prosperity is predicated upon continued buying and selling of manufactured materials and of raw natural resources on a worldwide scale. Our social and cultural life knows no national boundaries; we utilize the best of the musical, literary, scientific, and artistic productions of every nation. We travel in and communicate with other nations on a scale and to a degree never dreamed of before. This worldwide interdependence in many fields has already developed an extensive body of international law. It has created work for international statesmen; and it has already caused the ratification of the thousands of treaties—to more than 700 of which the United States is signatory.

Since international affairs are so important, and since the purpose of schools is to train citizens to deal with the important phases of civilized life, we cannot afford to neglect the teaching of international problems in the schools.

Instruction looking toward international cooperation can be given: (1) by a re-emphasis or re-evaluation of much of our historical materials, (2) by the inclusion of units of work, focused directly on this matter, in courses in elementary social science and "Modern Problems," and (3) by the careful guidance of the child's reading in such a way as to place him in touch with the rapidly augmenting literature of international relations.

THE EDUCATIONAL POLICIES OF PEACE AND RELIGIOUS ORGANIZATIONS—ABSTRACT

SYLVA T. HANSEN, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, UNIVERSITY OF IOWA,
IOWA CITY, IOWA

Public opinion regarding military preparedness in the United States has been subjected to many cross currents of influence since the World War. As peace and religious organizations are credited with a portion of this influence their educational policies are of significance. Furthermore, it has been claimed that the policies of such organizations represent a trend which must be taken into consideration in determining the present status of the social studies program in the schools.

Neither the peace nor the religious organizations have agreed upon an objective by which permanent world peace will be achieved. Some groups have chosen arbitration as the means by which war may be eliminated, while others place their hope in international organization and urge membership in the League of Nations. It is believed by still others that wars

are brought about because people of one nation fail to understand and appreciate people of other nations. Consequently, they seek to bring the world into closer sympathy by more intimate contacts with each other brought about by visits of scholars and professors. In the secondary schools these organizations wish to have the social studies taught so that the good qualities of foreign peoples are emphasized.

Many of the groups have become interested in the attitudes children receive from textbooks and have made investigations which have suggested the desirability of revision. In some cases their recommendations have even gone so far as to indicate what should be taught pupils relative to international relations.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

First session—The first session of the meeting of the Department of Social Studies was held Monday, July 2, at 2 P. M. in the Old Lutheran Church Auditorium. Professor A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota, presided.

The program was as follows:

EDUCATION FOR CITIZENSHIP, J. M. McConnell, State Commissioner of Education, St. Paul, Minn.

DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL ATTITUDES IN THE SCHOOLS, H. E. Wilson, University High School, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

EDUCATIONAL POLICIES OF RELIGIOUS AND PEACE ORGANIZATIONS, Sylva Hansen, University High School, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUNDS OF MINNESOTA AND THE NORTHWEST, Theo. C. Blegen, Assistant Superintendent of State Historical Association, and Professor of History, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

ANNOUNCEMENT REGARDING REPRESENTATIVE CLASSROOM EQUIPMENT, R. H. Gray, John Marshall High School, Minneapolis, Minn.

Second session—This session was held Tuesday, July 3, at 2:00 P. M., in the Old Lutheran Church Auditorium.

The speakers were as follows:

ADAPTATION OF THE CONTRACT METHOD TO SUPERVISED STUDY, Mary S. Gold, University High School, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

PROVISION FOR INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES, Ruth M. Johnson, Wisconsin High School, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

SOME PROBLEMS OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE ELEMENTARY GRADES, Prudence Cutright, Director of Instructional Research, Public Schools, Minneapolis, Minn.

ANNOUNCEMENT REGARDING REPRESENTATIVE CLASSROOM EQUIPMENT, Ilene Lynch, Roosevelt High School, Minneapolis, Minn.

BUSINESS MEETING OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

Following the second session a brief business meeting was held.

The Constitution was somewhat fundamentally amended to substitute for the former Board of Directors a Board consisting of the six officers, two annually elected members, the ex-presidents of the National Council for the Social Studies, and the editor of *The Historical Outlook*, so long as this journal is the organ of the Department.

The newly elected officers of the Department are as follows:

President, Professor A. C. Krey, University of Minnesota.

First Vicepresident, Professor Edgar Dawson, Hunter College.

Second Vicepresident, Professor R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago.

Secretary-Treasurer, Professor Bessie L. Pierce, University of Iowa.

Members of the Board of Directors, DeWitt L. Morgan, Arsenal High School, Indianapolis, and Edna H. Stone, University High School, Oakland, Calif.

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 meeting and a yearbook which are sent only to members.

The officers of the Department for the year 1928-29 are: *President*, Frank D. Boynton, Superintendent of Schools, Ithaca, N. Y.; *First Vicepresident*, Joseph M. Gwinn, Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco, Calif.; *Second Vicepresident*, Frank G. Pickell, Superintendent of Schools, Montclair, N. J.; *Executive Secretary*, S. D. Shankland, 1201 16th St. N. W., Washington, D. C.; *Executive Committee*, Norman R. Crozier, Superintendent of Schools, Dallas, Texas (Term expires 1929); E. E. Lewis, Professor of School Administration, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio (Term expires 1930); Frank M. Underwood, District Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo. (Term expires 1931); Paul C. Stetson, Superintendent of Schools, Dayton, Ohio (Term expires 1932). 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	1887:511-538	1898:303-489	1908:129-329	1918: 473-685
1874:297	1888:515-547	1899:251-380	1909:159-232	1919: 483-675
1875:291	1889:613-617	1900:183-297	1910:143-307	1920: 407-537
1877:253-261	1890:367-545	1901:189-349	1911:161-331	1921: 679-851
1879:223	1891:379-527	1902:151-306	1912:329-499	1922:1295-1465
1880:235-237	1892:559-745	1903:139-301	1913: 99-355	1923: 881-1025
1881:252	1894:252-592	1904:173-333	1914:133-293	1924: 803-963
1882: 7-112	1895:213-429	1905:155-271	1915:253-527	1925: 633-863
1884:281-292	1896:231-391	1906: 29-215	1916:895-1099	1926: 663-838
1885:160-192	1897:195-317	1907:145-329	1917:661-853	1927: 697-871
1886:335-353				

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

Vesper Service at Faneuil Hall

RELIGION AND EDUCATION: RESPONSIBILITY OF CHURCH, SCHOOL, AND HOME

KENNETH C. M. SILLS, PRESIDENT, BOWDOIN COLLEGE, BOWDOIN, ME

PRESIDENT JOSEPH M. GWINN, *presiding*.—Education must face four ways—forward, outward, backward, upward. Forward, that the training given the children and youth of America may be appropriate to the needs of the years ahead of them—ten, twenty, forty.

Outward, that the schools may be organically joined with the other elements of present-day society in which the young people live and from which they are furnished the experiences for their own development.

Backward, that anchorage may be had in those eternal truths and ideals which will hold the force of education true, whatever may be the storms and stresses that disturb the present order and might turn the course of education in wrong directions. In facing backward, to test our anchor chains and anchorage there is no more appropriate place to which we could come than to Boston and to Faneuil Hall, to this Cradle of Liberty which gave birth to so many of the ideals and acts which have shaped us as a nation and have kept us on a true course toward greater and greater heritage of liberty. To go forward better, we need to look backward, so we have come to Faneuil Hall.

Last, and most important, education must look upward to the Great God and Father of us all, whose handiworks are the things that have been, now are, and shall be.

Our forward, outward, and backward views are often confused and indistinct. For a clearer view and for power and inspiration we must look upward.

It is altogether necessary and fitting in beginning our convention that we should come as we now do to consider the relation of religion to education.

PRESIDENT SILLS:—I believe that we teachers are eternally and inevitably interested in religion. We deal with religion, with the religious spirit and impulse every day of our lives. For weal or woe we cannot get away from religion, and we would not if we could. Some of you may remember the schoolmaster questioned by L. P. Jacks. "We teach religion all day long," he answered. "We teach it in arithmetic by accuracy. We teach it in language by learning to say what we mean—yea, yea and nay, nay. We teach it in history by humanity. We teach it in geography by breadth of mind. We teach it in handicraft by thoroughness. We teach it in the playground by fair play. We teach it in astronomy by reverence. We teach it by kindness to animals, by courtesy, by good manners, and by truthfulness in all things. We teach it by showing the children that we, their elders.

are their friends and not their enemies." Yes, we teach it in all these ways and in countless others. No one can teach history properly without setting forth the great rôle that religion has played in the evolution of the human race. No one can approach the problems of science without a deep realization of the mysteries of nature. We are concerned from the kindergarten through the university with the passionate pursuit of truth—and if that be not religion, what is religion?

In dealing with this great problem there are certain qualities which ought to exist, and I believe do in large measure exist in the great majority of teachers in our public and private schools. First and foremost I place reverence. And by reverence I do not mean a milk and water piety, but a deep regard for the mystery and nobility of human life in its relations with God. "In college," said a great teacher, "we deal not with the fortunes of our students, but with their spirits."

Out of reverence there naturally flows fairmindedness. It is the business of the teacher always and everywhere to cultivate this lovely virtue. I have little sympathy with the theory that controversial subjects should never be mentioned in classroom. Such an attitude leads straight away from reality. But it is highly important that both sides of a controversial subject should be presented fairly.

Tolerance is another virtue closely allied to reverence and fairmindedness. We are fairminded when we set forth the other fellow's point of view; we are tolerant when we recognize he has a right to his opinion. In the American school, which is not so much the melting pot as the alchemist's bowl, we must recognize our obligation to be tolerant. As a nation we could get rid of much bigotry and prejudice if more of our teaching was actuated by tolerance. Despite much boasting and idle talk we have not yet succeeded in becoming a tolerant nation. Let me give one very obvious example. In our schools all over the country every American boy is told that the path to the highest offices in the land is open to every child who develops latent character and ability of a high order. Any American boy may become President, we have heard constantly reiterated; and yet if that child happened to be born in the Ghetto or in the Bowery, there are still thousands of Americans who would refuse to vote for him, no matter what other qualifications for the highest kind of leadership he might have. As an actual matter of fact, other lands are more tolerant in this respect than we. This example is perhaps enough to illustrate my point, but many others could be found. Racial and religious prejudices are very deep seated; they cannot be easily or in a decade eradicated. But it behooves all of us teachers who give lip service to democracy and freedom to see to it that our teaching squares with our belief.

Vesper Services at King's Chapel

GOODWILL AMONG NATIONS

WALLACE W. ATWOOD, PRESIDENT OF CLARK UNIVERSITY
WORCESTER, MASS.

THERE is but one great barrier remaining between the nations of the world today. That barrier is ignorance of each other. Man has conquered space and time. The great barrier of ignorance remains to be conquered. As the improved means of travel and communication have come, trade relations have developed between this country and most of the other countries of the world. It is but a commonplace today to call attention to the economic unity of the world. But there is much more than economic unity. Just as certainly as commodities of trade pass back and forth, so do ideas travel from one country to another, and we find represented in our own commonwealth the various political, social, and religious ideas of the other countries of the world. The day of isolation has passed, and the day for cooperation is at hand. We are living in an era when the problems of international relations are uppermost. We must prepare ourselves and the young people of the rising generation to meet these problems. Isolation for us is impossible.

If we had come together here in New England or anywhere along the Atlantic seaboard during the years immediately preceding the American Revolution, we should undoubtedly have found it appropriate and perhaps necessary to declare ourselves as loyal or disloyal to the British crown. That was the all important question of that day. If we had gathered anywhere in this country from the Atlantic to the Pacific in the late fifties or early sixties of the last century, we should have been called upon over and over again to take a definite stand on questions of national policy.

We have come together, for a great national education congress at a time when there are still larger problems before us than any that have heretofore faced this nation. They may not seem as imminent because we are not just now engaged in war. They are, however, most significant. We are living at the opening of a period during which the nations of the world must learn to cooperate with each other.

During the last two decades the leading nations of the world have certainly bungled their international relations, slaughtered millions of their best citizens, and burdened themselves for decades, perhaps for more than a century, with an expense account which necessitates heavy systems of taxation. We have demonstrated the folly of the old-fashioned ways of settling disputes between nations. The statement recently issued by the Secretary of our Treasury that eighty-two cents out of every dollar of the billions of dollars used by this government goes to pay for past, present, or future wars, is a sufficient commentary on the folly of the old system of settling disputes between different peoples. It is our duty to profit by our experiences and to pass on to the next generation a new point of view toward

the other peoples of the earth and a new system of dealing with them. Unless we accomplish this task the next generation is quite certain to try the same plan we have tried. Is not the time approaching when, "The common sense of most shall hold a fretful realm in awe?"

Organizations are active in almost every urban center in this country, endeavoring in one way or another to bring about a better understanding of the different peoples of the world. We must make up our minds to take a stand one way or another on this question. We are facing a problem of developing a patriotism that is more than inspired by narrow nationalistic points of view. The common sense of the many must be based on right information. Through our educational work, we must lead the younger people of this country to a fuller knowledge of the people of other countries. Events such as were recently reported from one of the large cities of the middle west, reflects ignorance of a people across the sea. They reflect a failure to understand the true friendship that has long existed and should always exist between the Anglo-American people wherever they are on this ever-shrinking planet. We must work from childhood to establish an intelligent sympathy for other people. We must overcome provincialism and our prejudices. A new generation must be reared in which there is a broader and greater patriotism, a greater love and admiration for our country because of the rôle she is taking in the affairs of the world. It detracts not the least from the love one may have for this country, but it broadens that patriotism and broadens that citizenship if we develop a respect for the citizens of other countries. It draws us nearer to the ideals of peace and goodwill among people.

Vesper Service at Old North Church

THE ESSENTIAL TASK OF THE LIBERAL ARTS COLLEGE

ELLEN F. PENDLETON, PRESIDENT, WELLESLEY COLLEGE,
WELLESLEY, MASS.

THE essential task of the liberal arts college is to develop in the student the ability to think. The first condition which will secure this objective is health. While the men's institutions were still providing sports for a chosen group of athletics, the women's colleges had organized departments of hygiene and physical education whose duty it was to meet the needs of the individual student.

Given the emphasis on health, we turn next to the curriculum and the classroom as the most important factors in accomplishing this great task of teaching students to think. All the discussions on the making and remaking of curriculums, the introduction of honor courses, a tutorial teaching staff to secure the great aim of leading students to think for themselves. Indeed, often to save time the teacher must collect information from various sources for the students, but just as often the student must seek it for herself. In either case, the pros and cons in any given subject must be presented and the student led to draw her own conclusion and form her

own judgment. It is because we believe that our students should hear both sides of a question that some of our critics class the women's colleges among organizations subversive of the constitution. Those of us who know our students could tell many cases in which the propagandist has defeated his own end, for the student has not needed the help of her instructor to discover the fallacy of an argument.

But what of the students today? If we were to believe the tabloid sheet, we should be discouraged indeed. Since the days of St. Jerome it has been the custom of the older generation to deplore the weakness of the younger. The young people of our colleges are on the whole upright, frank, intelligent, making some mistakes, to be sure, but no more, and perhaps fewer, than their forebears at the same age.

Are we accomplishing this task of teaching our students to think? We are not satisfied that we have found the solution of our problem. We should not be greatly concerned whether we are classed as old-fashioned or modern, conservative or progressive; rather we must be sure that so far as we are able, we choose the good rather than the bad, the right rather than the wrong. Then we may face the result with courage, even though we may be named by the unthinking among the radicals.

Vesper Service at Park Street Church

EDUCATION THAT GLORIFIES THE COMMONPLACE

DANIEL L. MARSH, PRESIDENT OF BOSTON UNIVERSITY, BOSTON, MASS.

FORMAL education is in need of a transfiguring *plus* that will glorify the commonplace. We have a right to expect education to make a man self-supporting, acquaint him with practical measures for comfortable living, prepare him for citizenship, make him a man of letters, or a theologian, or a scientist, or an artist. But education should go further: it should strengthen and broaden man's faith in God; make keener his appreciation of spiritual realities; furnish him with a just conception of human life, its needs, possibilities, and obligations; deepen the distinction between right and wrong; strengthen his convictions of those truths which surround right with the most impressive sanctions.

We must create such an atmosphere around our students as will make them sensitive to life's tragic grandeur. We must keep a clear vision as to the true end and aim of educational endeavor—the unfolding of personality, the cultivation of ideals, the bestowal of vision, the clarifying of purpose, the strengthening of will, the development of power.

I believe whole-heartedly in the practical values of education; but while holding steadily to such values, I plead also for a *plus* that will cause a Divine nimbus to rest over the commonplace things of life; that will transform the primrose into the Court of Deity and make the golden-rod significant with the Awful Immanence; that will ennoble and enrich life and give meaning to it; that will give sanity and order to the Universe, and lead us on to all things true and beautiful and good.

Vesper Service at St. Paul's Cathedral Church

THE OFFICIAL OR THE MAN

JOHN EDGAR PARK, PRESIDENT, WHEATON COLLEGE, NORTON, MASS.

I TAKE my text from a book by Dante Gabriel Rossetti called "Hand and Soul." The text consists of these words, "For with God is no lust of Godhead." That ideal lies at the heart of all true religion. God has to be an official, He has to be God. But He is not obsessed by the importance of His official position; He prefers to be regarded as a person, a friend of the humble man.

From God down to the veriest beggar on the street we are all caught on the horns of this dilemma, we are all officials, we are all in livery, whether it be a doctor's gown, a roll-top-desk-manner, or a beggar's rags, and yet we would all prefer to be considered persons.

How can one be an efficient official and at the same time preserve his humanity? Now, an official is one who serves an institution. The lighthouse keeper is the official of his lighthouse. His first duty is to keep the light behind his lenses burning clear. No other consideration is for him equally important. If he, out of the kindness of his heart, gives his oil away to the villagers who cluster in the huts at the base of his lighthouse, he is derelict in his duty. It is kind of him to be touched by the darkness of the villagers' huts, but in helping them he has been disloyal to his first and highest duty—to keep the light burning in order to safeguard the multitude of those whose fair passage upon the waters depends upon his vigilance.

This is in a peculiar way the problem of an official. The supreme task of a school official is to conduct the schools for the benefit of the children who attend them, and yet all kinds of humanitarian motives seem at times to interfere with this primary duty. This teacher is evidently entirely inadequate for her task. She would retard the progress of the children under her care and be an obstacle rather than an aid in their educational path. Yet the principal or superintendent knows that she is a most worthy person, is a great friend of dear friends of his, has an aged mother entirely dependent upon her, and would be unable easily to find another position. What shall he do? He is asked to give the official oil of his lighthouse to succor the needs of those who appeal to him as a man. Must he be an official and simply consult the interests of the school and of the children who attend it? Or, ought he to compromise and because of his friendliness or pity allow inadequate instructors to be engaged and retain them? In that question we are interested today. Should he be an official or a man?

As I look at myself and other people, especially in the educational field, it seems to me that there are three types of us, whether we are presidents, superintendents, principals, supervisors or teachers. The first type with whom we are all acquainted is the sentimentalist who never can think his

position out, whose personal desires and predilections are always interfering with his official duties. He is guilty continually of what can be called sentimental graft. As soon as a man is appointed to a position of official responsibility "friends" appear from all corners of the country to claim recognition by him.

He has a great dislike for giving pain. To summon any one to his office and tell him that it is impossible for him to continue in his present position is a task which he postpones year after year. The sentimentalist's feelings as a man thus continually interfere with his duties as an official. He is never happy but wobbles on one side or the other in a hopeless attempt to discover some compromise between the two extremes.

The second type with which a study of ourselves and others makes us familiar is the bureaucrat. The bureaucrat solves the dilemma which troubles the sentimentalist by simply being an official. He is nothing but his office. He is Mr. President or Mr. Superintendent, the name is non-essential. Subtract his office from him and there is no remainder. He is efficiency itself. He gets the forms filled in and forwarded at the proper date. He runs the schools with deadly uniformity. He is proud of his position and likes to have his importance felt. He has no mercy. You must get your forms in on time or get out. He is the up-to-date business man demanding results, and results for him are always figures or averages which can be codified, averaged over again, arranged in tables and reported. He is exceedingly busy and tries to keep all those under him occupied continually. A hustler, he is always on the run from one engagement to another and has a deep suspicion of any one who is ever seen sitting still or thinking. Santayana describes him rather uncharitably as being a man who redoubles his efforts when he has forgotten his aim.

The third type can be described neither as a sentimentalist nor as a bureaucrat but can only be described as a man. You look at his face rather than at his livery be it ever so resplendent. He seems to have solved the dilemma of the sentimentalist. He is loyal to his institution because he sees beyond it. He has continually in mind the real end of education which is not that reports be turned in, but that people should be educated. He is not anxious to save his own soul or enhance his own reputation so much as he is that the light in his lighthouse should shine efficiently for those who need it. Any system plus a man is better than the best system plus a mere official. The best systems of education seem to fail when you get them home from the convention into your own school because the heart of the new revelation was not in the system so much as it was in the personality that conceived, expounded, and carried out the system.

GREETINGS

MALCOLM E. NICHOLS, MAYOR OF BOSTON

While it is a source of very deep gratification to the Mayor of this city to come before you with the greetings of this city, nevertheless, he is forced to say that the city will gain so much more from your presence here than it can possibly extend to you that he feels some diffidence in speaking of the greatness of this city in the channels and courses of education; of what little start the city of Boston has made in the great cause of education; how in 1630 when the colony was first founded here by John Winthrop the fathers established in the wilderness that great institution, Harvard College, whose influence and power for good has been so pronounced during all these generations and has been great under Dr. Eliot and under President Lowell, who will presently address you; how in 1635 the Boston Latin School was established, and in 1639, the first public school to be supported by taxation was established in Dorchester.

You know these things so much better than I that you cannot wonder at the diffidence which the chief magistrate of this city feels in speaking of them. But I look at this gathering as of great significance because it is not merely a gathering of teachers, it is the directive educational force of this country to whom I have the privilege of extending this greeting; and ever does it seem to me as the Mayor of this city that the problems of education are swinging more and more in the direction of this force in which you are the representatives this morning.

You cannot realize what a problem of directing education there is in this city. Thirty percent of the revenues of this city in its municipal endeavors at the present time go into the channels of education, and out of a municipal expenditure of about \$60,000,000, about \$20,000,000 is devoted to the maintenance of our schools. I think that the city of Boston has as fine a school system as you will find anywhere, progressing under the great tradition of that past to which I have just made a brief reference, and finding in the promise of a future which is to come, and in which you may bear an important part, that inspiration which I know we shall have out of this great convention.

Boston is in the forefront of its support and of its generosity toward the cause of education, and, therefore, you cannot wonder if I speak with some frankness here to you who direct education when I say that our expenditures are so high that occasionally we pause to make a review and check them up, as indeed I presume they do throughout the entire country. Yet, we are on the threshold of greater things. It is a temptation to talk about such things so great is my interest with my own children in the Boston public schools. We are on the threshold of great discussion of diversified education, and yet as I look through I can't help thinking that after all, reduced to simplicity, the problem with which we are faced is this: How can we best instruct those children which are dear to us in such ways as will give them strength of purpose, manhood and womanhood,

so that they may make a great and noble contribution to their country as their fathers made in the beginning when they came here to this wilderness to establish a great nation?

In this spirit, my friends, I come here as the chief magistrate of this city to give you a cordial welcome from as fine a community, as splendid a citizenship as you can find anywhere in this world. We know that you are of us as we are of you. We hope you will come again and not wait thirty-five years, a long time in the history of the human race. Come often, we want to see you, we want the benefit of your example and your instruction, to the end that we may all join and cooperate in that great cause of lifting the welfare of our country to sublime heights among the nations of the earth.

RESPONSE TO GREETINGS

MILTON C. POTTER, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, MILWAUKEE, WIS.

When Mayor Nichols was in the city of Milwaukee a few weeks ago, he was so gracious as to give me an outline of his remarks for this morning's address. He departed somewhat widely from those prepared remarks, and it leaves me in the position of departing somewhat widely from my written response, but from the heart the superintendents of America thank you, your Honor, for the very gracious welcome to this great city. From every corner of the Continent, from all the mid spaces, we have gathered here, sent by our boards of education to join in discussion and partake of the feast set before us by our officers, directed by Superintendent Gwinn of San Francisco. Superintendents of states and counties and cities, all the way from the Golden Gate to Cape Cod, are here.

We have honored ourselves in choosing the lovely shrine of American traditions as our meeting place. We are honored in the friendly opening of your hearts by your Mayor, and the opening of your gates and your homes to us. This greatest of educational centers, about which cluster the greatest of the nation's schools, as the choice of your committee, President Gwinn, for this meeting is amply justified. The Mayor is justified in expecting manifestation of our best thought, our highest purpose throughout the week's deliberations.

We know that Mayor Nichols in welcoming us has had the cooperation of our Father Winship, the Executive Committee, the great schools which cluster here, the various local educational organizations, the Chamber of Commerce, the press, the citizenry of Boston and of New England and that everywhere we shall see evidences of their generous plans for our comfort. In our forgatherings we realize, Mr. Mayor, our responsibility. We each treasure the privilege of representing our own small local group of eager young people and their teachers. Though far away we are still humble in their service, forgetting selfish aggrandizement, laying aside the way of the worldly in times certain. In practice and in sincerity we shall try to speak and move here, contributing each his share to a program of scholastic freedom, political justice, and social welfare.

John Fiske quotes Charles Reed as giving an explanation of history: too much taxes, the main spring of the eternal struggle by local hundreds against ducal thousands and the treasury in the first administration of the American Constitution—too little taxes, too little taxes; no hope of national power because of too little taxes.

In days of power worship, a noticeable symptom, says John Fiske, is mounting taxes. Hamilton of King's College, an advocate of delocalization, considered this a symptom of health rather than disease and hailed with delight all signs of parochial surrender to the larger group. Mr. Fiske writes of the passing or rapid modification of the rural town as cause for grave reflection to those who have learned how to appreciate its value.

Here is an antithesis. No one likes the man who stands aside and refuses to be classified. Everyone wishes to put a label on him. In all things one perceives that we are too antithetic in our feeling. We are not confronting specific issues. Every man knows the purpose of thinking is unification.

Truly, we Americans have come here to Boston, to the very cradle of our history and the ancient shrine of our life. But of even more moment in our day is the curious philosophical consideration that here in New England grew and still thrives an ideal of unity in every apparent contribution. The age long, the trouble has been our failure to reconcile apparent antitheses—centralistic culture versus local culture, capital or labor, renaissance or revolution, private schools or public schools, open shop or union shop, education or office control against classroom control—endless antitheses.

It was your statesman of New England and of Boston who exalted the coordinate conjunction to its place of regal eminence in our political history which it so long had held and still holds in pure thought. Centralism and localism, liberty and union—since Webster's glittering peroration it has been less fatal in practical life to admit that each member of an antithesis is a necessary control, a conditioning factor to the other member thereof, the healthful service of one promoting the serviceable health of the other.

The two parts of the parent antithesis are commonly recognized in New England village streets as "Now and forever, one and inseparable." Due sanity is sensed here in the reconciliation of the antithesis.

We thank you, Mr. Mayor, for your gracious words of welcome to Boston, but we conceive that you speak also with the tongues of all New England towns. The man at the town meeting, Adams, considered the township not only the oldest but also the fairest form of government known in the world. In the day of this decadence it is good to come to America's fountain head for refreshment, good for thoroughgoing nationalists and good for nationalism. The agglomeration of national powers will not completely despoil local self-government, when America's children still read and sing and dream of New England, and their teachers visit Boston.

THE RELATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS TO COLLEGES

A. LAWRENCE LOWELL, PRESIDENT OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY,
CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

Looking over some figures of the cost of education—or rather of the cost of teachers' salaries—per pupil for the last fifteen years one may note some significant facts. A score of the larger cities of Massachusetts (not including Boston) show an average increase of the expenditure for salaries per pupil from \$25.40 in 1911-12 to \$62.70 in 1926-27, the more rapid growth being in the elementary grades. At the earlier date the costs for primary and secondary schools are not given separately; but taking a later year we find that in the ten years from 1916-17 to 1926-27 the cost per pupil in the elementary schools has risen from \$28.80 to \$67.85; and in the high schools from \$52.07 to \$104.

A considerable part of this increase is due to the fall in the value of money, but this by no means accounts for the whole change, for there is no doubt that education from the kindergarten to the university is becoming more expensive. It may be interesting, therefore, to compare the foregoing figures with those for the faculty of arts and sciences at Harvard. In doing so one must remember that this faculty covers both the college and the graduate school of arts and sciences; that the instructing staff is devoting no small part of its time to research as well as to teaching; and that during the last fifteen years a system of general examinations and tutors has been introduced in almost all the departments of the college, and this has involved a large addition to the number of teachers. The cost per student there in 1911-12 was \$183.38 and in 1926-27 \$305, an increase of 67 percent; while in the same period the cost of salaries per pupil in the public schools of the cities considered had enlarged 167 percent. The public may well ask itself why so rapid an increase and whereunto it will grow. The teaching profession sees no need of a limit, but the public is likely to differ with that view. We may ask whether the problem of this generation is not to make universal education effective, and that of the next will not be to make it equally good and less expensive.

The more immediate question is that of effectiveness. Why should not secondary schools in America, as in England, France, and Germany, finish secondary education by the time the pupils are in their nineteenth year, the age at which they graduate therefrom in all these countries? That they do not do so in this country is universally admitted, with the result that the colleges devote one or two years—usually two—to instruction of a secondary nature before the student is prepared for work of university grade. Some colleges are therefore proposing to divide their course into two distinct parts, the first two years being frankly of secondary character; and all over the country, increasingly as one travels westward, junior colleges are being set up which are not really colleges, but schools for continuing secondary education.

The saying that there are many ways of killing a cat beside choking it with butter can be applied to American schools in more than one sense. More than one road may lead to a desired goal; and it may be that secondary education in this country had better as at present be completed in college or in a supplementary high school. To me it does not seem to be the best plan; but if it be so, then the regular secondary schools should graduate their pupils a couple of years earlier than they do now—that is at sixteen—for at present secondary schooling is that much behind the European age. The time when education in this country, secondary, college and professional, is completed is too late, and this is the more true the farther it is carried. At present American youth either enters upon its career in life too old, or it is deprived of a couple of years of instruction which the young people of the same age enjoy in Europe.

The retardation is only in small part due to the secondary school itself. It is in the main caused by beginning the whole process of education too late, by the slow progress in elementary schools, and by insufficient provision for more rapid advance by the pupils who are destined to go far. To some aspects of education we seem to have paid insufficient attention—one of these is its selective function. We hear much at the present day of vocational guidance, the determination of the pursuits for which school children are best adapted by somewhat artificial devices for discovering their natural abilities. But all true education should be a sifting process. Have we not neglected a little this side of the problem in our effort to push all children through the whole educational mill; and in doing so have we not to some extent unwittingly sacrificed the more intelligent—to their own damage and that of the community? There is, of course, a danger here of confusing mere precocity with more solid but slowly developing capacity; but experienced teachers can deal with that problem.

Are we not also striving to teach too many things? There is a constant tendency to introduce new subjects good in themselves, but which crowd out, not from the list of subjects taught, but from the studies of the individual, things of a larger educational value. One of the defects we observe in not a few candidates for admission to college is a dispersion of high-school studies over many fields, no one of which has been pursued long enough to give a thorough grasp of the subject. Education consists less in the number of things a boy has glanced at than in the way he has learned to regard them. What we need is a good mental training, an accurate and thorough habit of mind; not a frittering away of the attention by a multitude of small matters of which the pupil does not get enough to develop consecutive thought. There is a special disadvantage in the inclusion of subjects which he is not mature enough to study thoroughly, and sometimes the teacher does not know profoundly enough to use in training the mind.

Another element in the problem that has not, I think, received the consideration it deserves may be illustrated by a simple algebraic formula. If we express the product of any educational process, that is the benefit obtained

by the pupil who has gone through it, by P, then in a very rough way, and leaving out of account other factors not germane in this particular inquiry, we may write

$$(x + 1) Y C = P$$

where the constant C is the inborn ability of the pupil in question, "x" is the quality of the instruction, and Y is the amount of the pupil's personal effort (by no means the same as the mere time spent in study, but rather dependent upon the intensity of application).

I write the formula thus, because if there be no effort whatever, voluntary or induced, by the pupil, or if he have no intelligence of any kind, there can be no education, and the product is zero. Whereas, without teaching above the elementary stage, extraordinary personal effort and great natural ability produced the education of Benjamin Franklin. In short there may be self-education without teaching, but there can be none without effort and intelligence on the part of the pupil, however good the instruction. Nor is the formula in other ways inaccurate, for a doubling of the pupils effort doubles the effect of good instruction, and the better the teaching the greater the earnestness of the pupil's effort.

Have we not thought too exclusively about enlarging the product by increasing the "x," with comparatively small attention to the factor Y? Is there not some truth in Mr. Dooley's description of the college president who asks the student which of the great subjects of human learning he would like the professors to study for him? Education is not like trepanning the skull, where the surgeon puts something in the patient's head while he is under an anæsthetic. The brain is not exempt from the general biological law that any organ grows by exercise, and is atrophied by disuse. If the object of education were to convey a certain number of impressions, carefully selected and assorted for the purpose, it could probably be attained most rapidly with the pupil in a wholly passive and receptive state—as nearly as possible in a hypnotic trance. No doubt something resembling this is an element in education, particularly in the initial stages; but it is far from the main purpose of training the pupil to use his own mind.

No doubt, also, all teachers are aware of the importance of voluntary cooperation on the part of the pupil. There has been an overwhelming revulsion against the drudgery of dull disciplinary tasks that breed disgust with school and all its mechanism. An attempt has been made to render study pleasant, but often, unfortunately, by making it easy. We are told that a youth will work best at something in which he is interested, something that accords with his natural tastes; but in many, if not most, cases he has no serious intellectual interests and his tastes are still undeveloped. He is apt, therefore, to construe the principle as the avoidance of what he finds hard, and the selection of subjects that give a superficial sense of acquisition with little labor, or of those which he deems of practical use, a matter whereof he knows even less than of his own aptitudes. He does not

apply the same ideas in his play. The sports that are easy, requiring no fatiguing exercise, are not more sought than such as call for energy, and even involve pain. Youth does not desire ease, but the exercise of natural powers if the reason for it can be made clear, or emulation points the way. Work is, indeed, stimulated by interest, but interest is no less generated by work; for most people are interested in that on which they bestow labor, and at least up to the point of fatigue—in proportion to the labor they bestow; while the greatest of all interest comes from a sense of mastery.

Too much attention has, I think, been paid to making education attractive by smoothing the path, as compared with inducing strenuous voluntary effort; but this involves doing things that require exertion, and therefore are not at the time wholly pleasurable. Repeated mental exertion becomes a habit, one of the most valuable a man can possess. In fact the habit of overcoming obstacles is a large factor in the condition of mind that is properly called education; for the quantity of knowledge obtained when one leaves school is far less important than developing the ability to acquire knowledge and to think clearly on hard problems.

The colleges desire from the schools precisely what they are themselves trying to cultivate in their students, a greater sense of responsibility for their own education, and a willingness, nay a desire, to make the effort required to the best of their ability. Perhaps a more careful attention to the problem of self-education, its conditions, its possibilities, and its limitations may hereafter prove to be the road towards economy as well as efficiency.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PROVIDES ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS FOR BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

ALVAN T. FULLER, GOVERNOR OF MASSACHUSETTS, BOSTON, MASS.

I find myself this morning before this great audience of representative leaders of American public education, charged with two duties, one of them most delightful in every way and the other, I confess to you, one which I approach with some hesitation.

I am very happy indeed to have the privilege as the Governor of Massachusetts of representing the Commonwealth on this occasion, and to bid you all a most cordial welcome.

From the foundation of the Plymouth and the Massachusetts Bay Colonies, the people of Massachusetts have had faith in education. Throughout three centuries that faith has not changed, but rather has it grown and been strengthened with the passing years. Proud as we are of the achievement of past years, yet we know full well that it is of the very essence of education to rely not upon the deeds of other years, but rather to work to the end that the future may be worthy of what has gone before.

As the representative of a people, therefore, having faith in education as a power that we believe will constantly improve the common welfare, I rejoice that you have come among us that we may learn of you, and with you go forward to the tasks of the morrow more intelligently equipped

to meet them. I wish that your stay among us may be pleasant and profitable, and that when you return to your homes, you will carry in your hearts and minds those pleasant sentiments of unity, fraternity, and worthwhile service which I am sure you will leave with us when you depart from within our portals.

Your president has asked me to say something to you this morning about the expectation of American business of the product of the schools. That, it seems to me, is a fairly large assignment.

In this complicated civilization of ours it is not possible to speak of business in so specific a manner that you can list the exact accomplishment that the schools should be expected to produce in their graduates.

Moreover, business men who think clearly on the subject, understand perfectly well that the schools have to meet a great many different requirements. The very program of this morning reflects only in part the breadth of your task. You are discussing only a part of the work of the schools yet it seems that the lower schools, while they are educating boys and girls, have to think of what colleges expect, of what business men expect, of what fathers and mothers expect, and of what citizens as a whole expect. With all these expectations, it would not be surprising if teachers should suggest that they would like to know what children have a right to expect, in order that their own welfare may be promoted.

Indeed, only as a layman I am inclined to believe that all of us, whether citizens, school officers, or teachers, should understand that in education of school, church, and home, the consideration that outranks all others is that we should provide for the child the kind of training and the type of discipline that will help him to grow to the fullness of his stature as a man.

Therefore, I should say first that business, as such, desires that the lower schools should help the boy to understand his obligations to the social, civic, and economic community of which his life is to be a part, and his duty to himself—as the English would put it, to “play the game.”

It is obvious that the rapidly developing specialization in business will increasingly demand special study of various kinds, in order that individuals may be better equipped for certain types of employment. In the field of secondary education, our schools and departments of agriculture, home economics, trade and commercial subjects, are wisely paying attention to this specialization. The establishment of great schools of business administration in our colleges gives evidence that in a larger degree collegiate education will recognize the needs of business for specially prepared men and women. President Lowell lately remarked that “business is one of the oldest of the arts and the latest of the professions.” There can be no question that just as schools of law and medicine and teaching have long provided the means of translating theoretical knowledge into effective practice, so in the future will institutions of learning increasingly make provision for training for business pursuits.

The success of these schools will depend much upon the knowledge which the institutions will have of the practical situations to be met in the business enterprises to which the youth expects to go. It is certain that education in general must constantly seek to make more effective application of theory to practice. Technical education of any character in the field of business, and probably of the professions, meets its final test, not in what the candidate for a position knows about a business, but upon the extent to which he can go to a job and demonstrate there that he has the ability actually to perform the work demanded.

So far as these technical courses are concerned I have only one definite suggestion that I am prepared to make to you, namely, that they be tested again and again, with reference to their actual usefulness in the occupations for which they prepare. I appreciate that such a testing demands the cooperation of business itself. The industries of our land should develop a sympathetic and helpful interest in the thousands of our youth who are leaving school in the upper elementary and the senior high school years.

Without minimizing the importance of the work of the school, it may well be maintained that business can hardly expect a boy in his teens to be a fully finished product. Therefore, school and industry should work hand in hand to the end that these youths of ours may make as speedily and as effectively as possible successful introduction to their business and industrial careers.

Frankly, however, as a business man, I am not so much concerned with these items of technical preparation. The specific and definite demands of any business are reasonably clear. In the modern tendency of business practices to become specialized, and in a measure standardized, the schools will not find it impossible or extremely difficult to organize work which will provide reasonable preparation for business life. The schools should and will address themselves with continuing success to meeting the technical demands of business training. But apart from these, the expectations of the business man are not so very different from the expectations of others.

While the business man is glad to recognize in the candidate for a position that he has certain knowledge of his trade or business, and that he has developed a certain skill in making that knowledge effective, yet in my opinion, business men everywhere will forgive a good deal by way of a shortage of specific qualifications, provided the youth who comes to them for positions have developed certain characteristics which will provide the foundation upon which the structures of successful careers may be built—a solid rock of principle and not the shifting sands of expediency.

Briefly, I will name some of the qualities which I believe it to be possible for the schools to help in developing which have always been needed and always will be needed in the business relationships of life. First the school ought to help a boy to understand that no keenness of wit, no shrewdness of bargaining, no plausibility of reasoning, in short,

that no trickiness of mind of whatsoever sort can for a single moment overcome, or offset, a fundamental weakness of moral fibre.

A boy develops his attitude toward the tasks of adult life exactly as he develops an attitude toward the tasks of school. If a student, as a student, is slovenly in his thinking, if he is content with inaccuracies, if he is without aim or purpose, it is difficult to see how he will develop at once the opposite characteristics when he goes out into business life. It simply cannot be done.

Second, I should be inclined to place very high on the list of things desired by business in the graduates of the schools, that they should have acquired a certain ability or technic in meeting issues and in making decisions. It is my observation that some men seem to acquire the habit of making decisions, while others seem to be in an habitual state of indecision. There is no question that men of the former class will be valuable in the business concerns with which they are connected, while men of the latter class will be obliged to accept constant direction and guidance. I do not believe there is any other way of developing the power to make decisions except as one through the period of youth and young manhood is constantly faced in his daily life with the necessity of making them. To so live that one may trust his impulses is one way to avoid indecision.

Cannot the schools better serve our boys and girls by placing upon them a little more, and upon their teachers a little less, the responsibilities that are normal to school life? I cannot help feeling that a boy who is brought constantly face to face with his own responsibility for his work and conduct, will be likely to grow to be the kind of man who will come to his work with a sense of responsibility toward it, and with an understanding that he must, of and within himself, meet the questions and the responsibilities of the day without leaning too constantly upon others for guidance and leadership.

There may be those who believe that modern business has become so mechanical that there is no longer any opportunity for the play of individual initiative and resourcefulness. I am not in that number. Business will be a dynamic force only to the extent that the people who are engaged in it can bring to it the power and force which come from personality.

In the third place, though it may seem trite for me to say it, yet I am prepared to declare to you that modern business as well as every other demand of modern life, is calling for a generation that has a pervading and honest respect for work, and that is prepared to render a full measure of it.

I am not critical either of the schools or of industry on this point. There are, however, certain obvious conditions of modern life which both the school and business must recognize. We are living in an age of great material prosperity. Nothing like it has ever been known in the history of the world. All of us, old and young, are lured by prospects of ease and pleasure, made possible through the inventions of the age. It is natural, and only natural, that boys and girls observing the evidence of wealth about them with opportunities and temptations to pleasure and enjoyment

present at every turn, should come to count the hours of leisure, and not the hours of work as the most attractive part of life. Perhaps we who are older, as well as they who are younger, are in danger of forgetting how many ages of toil have gone into the building of the structure of the civilization that we have; perhaps we, as well as they, may overlook the fact that this great complicated and intricate machine which we call civilization, cannot go forward unless every one of us is prepared to perform efficiently some useful service. In short, education must not fail to impress upon our children that all worthy work is to be respected, and that no man is to be held in respect unless in accordance with his talent, he finds some way of justifying his existence through work. The business man likes to see the type of boy who has developed such a mental attitude toward work that he will go joyously to the tasks that are set before him. The business man desires this, not so much that his business may prosper, but that he knows that such a boy will himself become a happy and efficient man.

To be sure, we sometimes hear business spoken of in a disparaging manner, as if those of the market place were not all that they should be. Many times, particularly in foreign countries, we hear America referred to as a nation of merchants and tradespeople, as if hard work and industry were things to be disparaged. If my observations have been accurate, these criticisms are not justified. I am proud to say that there are no people more honorable in business dealings than Americans, and that in America there are no men more jealous of equity and honor than are those men who are directing the business concerns of the land. These standards, already by no means low, must constantly be lifted. The days when business can have as its ideal the Latin phrase *Caveat emptor* have passed forever. You are fortunate that you deal with youth whose ideals are naturally high, and whose instincts are normally clean. To the institution of the school these youths go to meet there one another in the discharge of individual tasks and of mutual obligations. The school offers an opportunity through clean competition for each boy to take not only the measure of himself but of his mates as well. In such a place he may learn those rules of human conduct which will safely guide him in his relationships with his fellows. If as a schoolboy he learns to play the game squarely, taking no advantage for himself that he is not willing to yield to the other, and recognizing that the liberty of the individual in action must stop at the line where it transgresses the wellbeing of others, then indeed he will have found for himself such a course as will make him a valuable asset to any business that is a proper and legitimate one.

Please do not think I am giving utterance to mere sentimentality when I say that this very day you will find not a few, but tens of thousands of business establishments in this country conducted upon the sound economic principle of treating others even as one would himself be treated. I do not find it difficult to believe that the pervading spirit of American education today under your leadership is to enforce this principle of square dealing.

Help, therefore, the rising generation to value above all other things, intellectual sincerity; help them so to analyze themselves and the work they should have to do, that they may have the habit of making wise decisions, develop in them an honest respect for work and lead them to accept in practice the principles of the Golden Rule, and the business man will believe that you have performed a useful service.

Perhaps all of you who are in this room have looked upon that remarkable statue of Lincoln which is to be seen in the Lincoln Memorial at Washington. There the sculptor, Daniel Chester French, has brought out the strength and power of that great American to whom our thoughts instinctively go whenever we think of a complete and satisfying life, a life in which there is joined an abounding sympathy, a deep wisdom, and a profound devotion to the service of mankind.

If you care to take the time to do so, you can, while you are in this city, go to the English High School, within a few blocks of this hall where we are meeting, and see there another statue, also the work of the great sculptor I have named. This second statue, dedicated only a few nights ago, was the gift of an alumnus to that school, the oldest free public English High School in America. When you see that statue, you will see the likeness of a lad going, with the blessings of his Alma Mater, into the joys and storms of life. Upon the still immature face of this lad are the signs of the hope and the ambition that fire his youthful heart and brain. The figure of the fostering mother, as she stands behind him to give her blessing, bears a shield which she is about to bestow upon the youth. Upon that shield are six simple words, which I leave with you, as she leaves them with him, believing them to be so powerful in their significance, so protective in their character, so safe in their dependability, that whether business man, or citizen, or parent, one could ask no better guide of youth. The words are these: "Be clean; be courteous; be square." My friends, analyze those words, think deeply into their significance, and I believe you will find therein something that may guide you in your teaching, not only for business, for higher education, for the home or for citizenship, but indeed for all the relationships of life.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PROVIDES ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE HOME

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If by some strange chance, not a vestige of us descended to the remote future save a pile of our schoolbooks or some college examination papers, we may imagine how puzzled an antiquarian of the period would be on finding in them no indication that the learners were ever likely to be parents. "This must have been the curriculum for their celibates," we may fancy him concluding. "I perceive here an elaborate preparation for many things: especially from reading the books of extinct nations and of co-

existing nations (from which, indeed, it seems clear that these people had very little worth reading in their own tongue); but I find no reference whatever to the bringing up of children. They could not have been so absurd as to omit all training for this gravest of responsibilities. Evidently, then, this was the school course of one of their monastic orders."

Since the day when Herbert Spencer wrote these words the world has been moving toward an improvement in the situation which he outlines. As is always the case, the mass moves more slowly than the individual, but the scouts show the direction which will be followed by the army, and from their appearance in this new territory of the home we are encouraged to look for its ultimate occupation by large divisions of the educational expeditionary force.

The home has been called the training school for life. Today a fierce light is being turned upon it, but too generally, as Mark Twain says about the weather, everybody talks about it but nobody does anything. To teach, to preach, to practice medicine, to wire a house or install its plumbing, a man or woman must have training, experience, and a license. Mentally, morally, physically, the state safeguards its citizens in all but the one most important item. To found a home, to become parents, to make or mar a child, it is only necessary to be man and woman, untrained, uncertificated, in abysmal ignorance, wasting the money of the taxpayer by placing upon the community unfair burdens because of lack of the most elementary acquaintance with the rules of physical and mental hygiene. Yet in all other civic relationships, "ignorance of the law excuses no man."

A tremendous wave of so-called parental education is sweeping over the country, but there is grave danger that like a wave it will recede, leaving behind it at the worst some wreckage and at the best, dry land. Parental instruction would more nearly describe the movement and therein lies the cause for thought. What is needed in this field is irrigation, not inundation. We have almost reached the saturation point for information; the demand now is for reaction—definite returns for intensive cultivation.

We are not considering today the education of today's parents; that, as Kipling says, is another story. But from what we have learned of the need for it should be drawn the requirements for the proper education of the parents of tomorrow, if we are to achieve our objective of worthy home membership and its corollary, worthy homes in which to exercise it. From the demands of these parents, who come in droves, seeking enlightenment wherever it may be offered material may be gathered to build the curriculum for the generation now within reach of the direct influence of high school and college. Alas that there are so few to profit by the knowledge thus gained! Two hundred and sixty thousand young women in college, 2,500,000 in high school, as compared with 11,000,000 in the elementary grades who make up the vast majority of the 26,000,000 girls and women now engaged in household occupations.

"Education is effective only when it results in new or changed habits of thought and action."

With this aim in view home entrance requirements may be grouped under two heads: First, how to live in a home; second, how to operate a home. And the one is as essential as the other. To meet these requirements a three-fold system of training is demanded—personal, social, commercial, for a home is fundamentally a business partnership, and bad management is the reef on which most of the wrecks which we deplore have come to grief. It is inefficiency, not poverty, which drives love out of the window!

Under the personal heading may be grouped: Health, mental as well as physical; good relationships with those within the home and with all those whose business brings them in contact with it; a broad sympathy with the idiosyncrasies of such a heterogeneous assemblage as is found under the roof of the average home. The word sympathy rather than the more common term, tolerance, is used advisedly, for toleration connotes the idea of endurance, and there is far too much of that spirit in the attitude of the splendidly self-confident young generation which does not suffer parents gladly. Boys and girls trained to a recognition of the fact that a long line of ancestors have contributed to this family group, here a trait and there a characteristic; here a peculiarity and there a virtue, but to everyone something of each; the expression of a tribal spirit, will come into an appreciation of the continuity of this clan to which they belong and a pride in carrying it one step further up the line of progress. Youth must come to see itself, not as the center of a special little cosmos all its own, but as an infinitesimally small but important link in an endless chain to whose strength they may make a worthy contribution or to whose weakness they directly contribute. It is necessary to get away from the old idea that a family's responsibility to its members hinges upon parental and filial affection. Too many widely differing ancestors are in each one of us for the ties of love as a duty to be relied upon entirely. In the family, moreover, we have so many close-ups; every flaw, every roughness becomes visible. There is need to cultivate family loyalty, to restore to everyday use some of that lost tribal feeling which will hold fast when the family tie has been worn thin by "love's minor frictions."

The tendency of recent years has been toward an exaggeration of individuality. Mass education has yielded to that of the individual, but as is always the case, the swing of the pendulum has carried us too far; we need to come back to an equidistant center for a right balance—not the mass, not the unit but the link in the chain; responsibility of parents for their children, responsibility of those children in their turn for the men and women who are to follow them.

The day of the crowd has gone; the day of the unit can never be, for it is a truth that no man liveth unto himself alone. The era of cooperative existence is dawning. Of all the dangers facing youth in this our day by far the worst is this isolation of the ego, leading as it does to unlimited evil, to selfishness raised to the nth degree, to selfsufficiency, to selfdevelopment at the expense of all who may stand in the way. As in nations, so

in humanity. Liberty without law becomes license; selfexpression without selfadjustment to environment becomes pernicious activity.

So the second type of essential training, the social, calls for the discipline of heredity in order that man may live in a world of men and for the recognition of human relationships as vital factors in that education which goes so much deeper than mere instruction. Here the social training which is being given by the school must be supplemented by a cooperative home, and because of the opportunity for the school to individualize, by still further development in the community. As a rule the average school boy or girl of today is mannerless—to put it mildly (though a negative description seldom covers the condition) because thinking more of maintaining his or her position in the crowd, of asserting a right to a place in the sun, than of making conditions more agreeable when out of the school atmosphere. On the streets, in the cars, in hotels, restaurants, theaters, youth from the average American home is loud voiced, loud-laughing, aggressive, lacking in the elements of courtesy, pushing in or out, rushing to secure the best seats, dramatizing its personality for the benefit of all observers. Yet these same boys and girls, when within the confines of school, may appear unobjectionable, reserving for outside display the effects of a system faulty because in home and school it relies upon instruction, usually years too late, to secure the observation of certain regulations under certain conditions, instead of developing from the earliest years the fine flower of natural good manners. There is need of a sound criterion which will serve as a standard equally applicable wherever conduct has to do with the comfort or well-being of others.

Under social requirements in the broader sense of the word, enters also the need for a cooperative civic attitude which will result in a continued relationship to the school, no longer as pupil but as patron of that institution which more than any other save the home, is developing the future citizens of the community in which the graduate scholar is now taking a place. Equal educational opportunity for all children everywhere will come only when all citizens—not educators alone—awaken to a sense of their responsibility for the school as a community undertaking, fully as important as good roads, a pure water supply and adequate police and fire protection. Those of us who, strong in our belief in the value of education, are engaged in the business of selling it to the American public, teaching men and women to know their schools years after they have left school days behind them, know how much easier would have been our task if this had been done in the impressionable period and had become a habit of thought instead of a new enterprise. A similarly cooperative attitude toward community health and community safety should be a part of this training. From such thought-habits would result better housing conditions, adequate recreational facilities for rich and poor alike, and a reduced accident record, on the sound old principle that prevention is better than cure.

Out of every one hundred children, according to Dr. Goddard, ten go to high school and three graduate from it. If these things are fundamental—and we believe that they are—two remedies suggest themselves to meet the present situation. The teaching of home entrance requirements must be moved back ultimately within reach of the 70 percent who leave school in the seventh grade and the 40 percent who stay through the eighth, but as a step in the right direction, let them be made a part of the curriculum of the junior high school with the least possible delay. The second remedy is to reach the average boy and girl and their parents and impress them with the importance and more, with the sound economic value of an education continued through at least two years beyond the grades. Only between 30 and 40 percent of the tremendous drop from grade school to college can be accounted for by economic necessity. Lack of interest in what the school offers and the desire for a moderate financial independence are the other causes assigned.

But there is little use in setting forth a table when there are no guests. When the feast is spread there must be those who will go out into the highways and the hedges and compel them to come in.

The third requirement is commercial training. Worthy home membership demands business ability. Youths who will spend several years as office boys, clerks, mere writing machines, are taught to keep books for the commercial concern which may employ them, but how much preparation do they receive for the keeping of household accounts, the dividing and budgeting of an income? Does the average young man leave high school or even college with a clear understanding of the cost of living and the proper use of the salary necessary to support a home, a wife and children? Yet he is likely to enter that business as soon as he obtains a position in another, and where else, unless in the hard and bitter school of experience, will he learn the rules? What does he know of renting vs. buying, of upkeep vs. taxes and interest? What idea has he of all the other items of the home budget—clothing, the margin for doctors both medical and dental, equipment and insurance, and the minus sign which will usually appear in the space allotted to amusement?

Manual training may have fitted him to build a bookstand or construct a table, but it is not probable that he as a householder, with a position to fill and a family to support, will make from blueprints the furniture which he may purchase outright as he needs it or which may be acquired all too readily on the installment plan. Rarely does school or college give the young-man-about-to-be-married—and the majority fall into that class—the ability to save money by making his own repairs. To this rule there is a shining exception; there may be many of them. I hope so. The Irving Junior High School of Lincoln, Nebraska, meets home requirements in a most practical manner. The parents are requested to send to the school a list of the skills which would be most helpful in the home, and upon these lists is the curriculum based; locks and hinges that will not work, cracks in the plaster, door bells and buzzers that refuse to function, broken panes

of glass, leaking faucets, coppers in need of solder, and in addition, such carpentry as will assure the repair of broken floor boards, furniture and window screens are provided in a "model" house in the manual training department. With the first list comes another, giving the tools to be found in each home, and the boys are taught the use and the care of them, thereby contributing to the mechanical as well as the financial maintenance of the family partnership.

The young woman who graduates into the home is somewhat better equipped, as our present system goes. She has been given a course, more or less thorough, in sewing, cooking and the chemistry of foods. In some instances she has had opportunity to furnish a room or two in a home economics flat or a practice cottage. Under extraordinarily favorable conditions she may have attended a nursery school and observed and under careful supervision, given some care to a preschool child. If a college graduate—that is, if she is one and a half in a thousand—she may have received instruction in psychology, sociology, biology—advanced terms these for the primal necessities of worthy home membership! That which is required to meet a universal need is obtainable only under special conditions by the pitifully small minority. The one-room school, the ordinary classrooms offer instruction in arithmetic and algebra, in history and geography, in what is called English—for want of a better term—and even in languages, some living, some dead. But it must be a truly superior school which is equipped to fit the boy or girl for life as he or she will find it as they finally pass the threshold. When men and women are at grips with living, a demand is made upon education which it is not yet prepared to meet. The ability to analyze "Paradise Lost" will not bring paradise regained to a home where ignorance and irresponsibility have played havoc with its very foundations.

Education must eventually include the expert direction of home projects. As yet there is too much talking and too little doing, under average conditions. When we are fully awake to the futility of lecturing anyone into good habits a better system will result. In the preschool years the child learns through activity, and human nature does not change very much with the passage of years. We still learn best the thing we do. When shall we be able to break the shackles of years, and allow some of the "cultural" studies to await the later stages of education, giving more time in the earlier years to those great fundamentals, right living and the development of intelligence? When a young mind has been trained to exercise itself, it will take its needed exercise. The girl who has learned—really learned—the mathematics of the home budget, of buying and saving to spend wisely, the chemistry of right feeding for a varied family group, the biology of human life, will have sense enough, if she is worthy of higher education, to seek it, and when found, to make use of it, especially if—and here make note—she has also been taught that school is only the opening of the door to education, and that when she has finished school she is in some degree prepared to learn something. Few more pernicious doctrines

have been taught than that which terminates education on Commencement Day. This applies equally to boys, for what is the value, in business or profession, of the callow fledgling, fresh from high school or college, except insofar as those institutions may have equipped him to learn? His chief function would seem to be to discipline into selfcontrol those who have to begin his real education. This is especially true of the entrant into the home. The wisest theories explode into thin air when the graduate husband or wife faces the weekly deficit, a series of culinary disasters, or a disposition undreamed of in the idol of dreams. The most technically perfect of domestic science instructors may fail to equip her pupils to deal simultaneously with a wailing baby, an omnipresent runabout, and a man desperately anxious to have his breakfast and be off to the day's work. There is no question as to the value of the knowledge of the expert, the trained teacher, the laboratory product, whose experience is founded upon certainties, but in the home are to be found not ideal but real conditions, varied as no classroom instruction can possibly vary. To do this is still not enough. The mental attitude is yet more important, the spiritual reaction to the countless little nagging worries and cares which often are so much worse than the disasters which call at once upon the high, heroic strain; the "total depravity of inanimate things," the mental traits which are harder to deal with than a smoky lamp or a stubborn stove or even a crying infant, call for spiritual as well as mental education, a type which, under the name of character education, has been called into service by those who have climbed the heights and have seen the Promised Land.

In the curriculum of the future there should be provided opportunity for lectures from field workers; and by field workers, I mean successful home makers, male and female, men and women who have met all these enemies to domestic peace, have fought them with the weapons of hardly earned experience and of common sense which has survived the most fiery trials and has remained to assure the stability of that greatest of all educational institutions, the worthy home.

But upon the school alone this burden cannot be laid. Upon the home must fall a due share of responsibility. If the schools are to teach worthy home membership, the home must provide a worthy field in which to exercise it. The habits of years are not easily changed, yet something may be hoped for if this movement for parental education is recognized by the schools and linked closely to their teaching. If the parents of today can be brought to meet the teachers upon the basis of this objective, we may look for a Renaissance in the world of the home.

To learn is to acquire a way of behaving. The instruction which is given is in too many cases ephemeral. It is "part of the course," not an essential of living. When we shall have eliminated the "domestic" and the "economics" from the familiar terms and have as a result a course equally applicable to boys and girls without loss of masculine dignity under the title "Home Science" we may take a step toward the better appreciation of the home partnership.

English is being taught in the schools both high and low in the hope that in the years to come the students will continue to read the best in prose and verse. Of course they do not do it; witness the news stands, the cheap novels, the motion picture crowds, the 7,000,000 copies of sex and confession magazines sold monthly. The youths who have been taught gentleness and courtesy, simplicity and taste, sound health, both physical and mental, will, if they have learned these things automatically avoid the tawdry in art, in literature, in film and drama. If on the other hand they are led to believe that Homer and Milton have set an eternal standard of good literature and they do not like the "Odyssey" and "Comus," they will turn to those things which are within their comprehension and their evaluation of life will be created by their reading, instead of their reading resulting from a high and fine attitude toward living.

Are young women sent out from school today filled with a desire to learn more and yet more of home science? Are they supplied with book lists, encouraged to form clubs to keep it up as a fascinating study for which an insistent demand may be met at any turn of the road? No; they have "taken" home economics and the attack is over when they have "finished school." They go into society, into business, into teaching and when the necessity arises, there is a desperate effort to recall some of the elements of their school days. I do not decry Latin; it is a noble tongue and a very mine of wealth to those who know how to profit by it. But I have wondered why it has cast into the discard the ancient study of etymology in which lay the core of the value of Latin to the non-college-seeking youth, giving as it did the sources of our English tongue, the beauty of varied expression, the richness of synonym, all in simple language, and taught in the years when memory seized and inscribed as upon tablets of brass all those things which were presented to the childish mind. I have heard classes in French and in Spanish, but I have never heard a pupil speak as a result of those classes, and those who have graduated in those subjects say sheepishly upon interrogation, "Oh yes, I took French, but I can't talk it." Mental discipline? Perhaps; but why not useful discipline?

Too much of our finest educational program is planned for the ideal, rather than the real school, the exceptional rather than the average teacher. Light is coming, but we are allowing it to find its way through the chinks instead of opening the windows.

In a recent study made in Massachusetts of 400 problem children, it was found that four-fifths of them had failed to receive what a normal home should give them. Eighty-three percent received from their parents no teaching as to what constitutes right or wrong behavior. And these were not from homes of poverty. We are faced by such facts as these; of the 2,000,000 men drafted in the great war, only 30 percent had passed beyond the sixth grade. The average mental age of the country

is thirteen years. One million girls are married each year. Are we giving in our secondary schools the teaching which will deal with these facts?

We have considered briefly the matter of home entrance requirements. Shall we lay it upon the shelf with many other thoughts, as being something to which at some future time we may refer, or shall we endeavor by united action to meet these demands, if we admit that they are sound and within reason?

To attack an evil at only one point is to postpone indefinitely the day of its eradication. There are four points at which a simultaneous advance should be made: The school system; the domestic science course; the home of today; the teacher-training classes.

The school system is in your hands. Separate necessities from specialties and luxuries. Teach all of the children the things which all must know in order to meet life successfully as well as to make a living, and teach special children the things which they are fitted and eager to learn.

The domestic science course must give the concrete, but must not leave the abstract untaught. Emphasize the spirit of the home as well as its body and mind. Use every possible channel to reach the parents of this and the closely following generations. In plain and simple language, set before them as coworkers their duties and responsibilities. Call upon them to work with you, and then in your turn work with them, not in a world of your own, separated by the barrier which your erudition and your position have set up.

Tell the coming teachers the plain facts of the situation. While they are being trained, make them see not only the technic but the great spirit of education. Face squarely the responsibility of sending out unequipped teachers. They are far more deadly than ignorant doctors who may slay the body. The moral influence of the teacher, like that of the parent, may save or slay an immortal soul.

Again the home must be reckoned with. The public, which is the assemblage of the homes, must be made aware of this danger of poor teaching. When they have realized this, the majority will demand and will be willing to pay for the best, and your problem will be in a fair way to solution. But speak to the people in terms which they can understand. Make them conscious of your desire to make better schools for their children, and they in their turn will strive to make better homes, so that together we may build a better nation in the years that are to come.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS FOR CITIZENSHIP

JEREMIAH E. BURKE, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BOSTON, MASS.

The early pioneers of New England were the spirit of civil liberty incarnate. No sooner had they landed upon these rockbound shores than they proceeded to establish a government of the people. The town meeting still persists as the purest type of local selfgovernment that the world has ever known. But the forefathers were not merely idealists, they were far-seeing

statesmen. They knew that absolutism flourishes in illiteracy, but that an unenlightened democracy shall fall. They foresaw that if freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom of worship, and trial by jury are to abide; if free men are to counsel, make just decisions and rule wisely—then the electorate must be intelligent and virtuous, as well as free.

In order that the ideal they cherished might be shielded and defended, these nation-founders placed Liberty under the guardianship of law. Hence the oft repeated truism, "Obedience to law is liberty." And then to insure the inviolability of civil liberty and the perpetuity of government under law, they created the free public school, "New England's fairest boast." The school thus became the bulwark and support of popular government. It would be stupid to declare that free government is dependent wholly upon popular education. There are other powerful contributory forces; but it is significant that the chief agency sanctioned by the state for its own defense and perpetuity is universal and compulsory education. Therefore, popular education and democratic government are mutually interdependent, each deriving from the other elements of security and stability.

The purpose of popular education is two-fold. It should enable every child or youth—regardless of his gifts or limitations—to rise to the very height of his capabilities and endowments and then to become a citizen of power in the service of the Commonwealth. In this definition, I advisedly place the child before the state. Both as a human being and as a future citizen, he possesses certain indefeasible rights which the state must recognize and foster. At the same time, next to worship of his Maker, a citizen owes unreserved fealty to his country, its institutions, and its laws. This reciprocal relation of citizen to state, therefore, is intimate and protective.

The great teachers have differed little in their interpretation of the objectives of education. Invariably they have insisted upon a symmetrical development. They never advocated an intellectual aristocracy; they realized that unless it is accompanied by the cultivation of the child's spiritual nature, the training of the intellect is "as sounding brass or a tinkling cymbal."

Unquestionably these leaders exalted the intellect, but they always sounded warnings against its training at the sacrifice of natural and spiritual endowments. They repeatedly asserted that sharpening the intellect without at the same time wisely developing spiritual qualities, tended to produce cunning knaves and rascals to become a perpetual menace to society.

Unfortunately, there has arisen an inclination to apotheosize the intellect and thereby obscure other faculties. In consequence, sensibility and will have come to be regarded as relatively unimportant. Such a theory of education is indefensible. The heart frequently leads us aright when the head appears to go wrong. On the other hand, passion frequently dethrones reason and the individual plunges into danger or sin. No program of education for citizenship is complete or justifiable therefore which fails to

emphasize strongly the important rôle played by the emotions in the shaping of human life and civic conduct. The emotions can no longer be considered as forbidden topics, dissociated from the realm of legitimate pedagogy. The emotions must not be suppressed; rather they must be controlled, and directed to serve their lofty purposes. Dominated by the will, which in turn should be subservient to conscience, they should contribute toward the perfecting of Huxley's educated man, "whose passions are trained to come to heel by a vigorous will, the servant of a tender conscience."

The Puritan forefathers believed that they had reconciled the various educational complexities—intellectual, emotional, moral, and spiritual—and thus had insured a virtuous citizenship, by making religious instruction an integral part of the public school's curriculum. Such a program was unobjectionable and practicable so long as communities were denominationally homogeneous and the closest union existed between church and state. But it was unable to resist the onward march of events. With the advent of heterogeneous populations came the disestablishment of church and state and the secularization of education. Not only has the teaching of religion been swept away, but in many instances instruction in the moral and civic virtues, and consequently in good citizenship, has been relegated to a subordinate place. It is a serious question whether the centrifugal force of these rapidly revolving wheels of progress has not hurled us out of our true proportions. Whatever be our personal points of view, however, there are certain facts which cannot be disregarded.

We, engaged in the field of popular education, are not privileged to teach whatever we may choose; upon us are imposed either by custom or by statute law, certain well-defined limitations. In the present day public schools, we cannot teach religion. Such instruction is reserved for the home, the church, and religious teachers. Nevertheless, since moral instruction is indispensable to good government, teachers and administrators have very distinct obligations. Indeed, there exists in Massachusetts an ancient statute which is mandatory and unequivocal in its insistence upon moral training in our schools as a preparation for citizenship. It reads as follows:

All instructors of youth shall exert their best endeavors to impress on the minds of children and youths committed to their care and instruction the principles of piety and justice and a sacred regard for truth, love of their country, humanity and universal benevolence, sobriety, industry and frugality, chastity, moderation and temperance, and those other virtues which are the ornament of human society and the basis upon which a republican constitution is founded.

It is, therefore, the child's right—it is his educational heritage—to possess these virtues as a touchstone to which all his thoughts and all his actions may be subjected. If he has these qualities deeply imbedded in his heart, if he possesses them as a vital part of his very being, then he may err for a time and wander far afield, but drawn back inevitably will he be by an irresistible impulse, by a centripetal force, back to safe spiritual anchorage. The welfare of the child and the welfare of society, therefore, equally demand the cultivation of these moral and spiritual virtues. Denial

of this privilege is to defraud children and youths of their indisputable educational heritage, it is to deprive democracy of the fulfillment of its destiny. And this destiny will be thwarted insofar as the average citizen fails to practice habitually moral and civic virtues.

For man and society are reciprocally interrelated. The citizen of character is the foundation of good government. Conversely, the citizen without character is a menace to the state and for his delinquency society stands accused. Social righteousness depends upon individual morality. There is no such thing as collective virtue which can be practiced by a community whose members are not personally virtuous in any manner or degree. Integrity of life in each citizen is the only sure guarantee of worthy citizenship.

It was such conclusions as the foregoing—with a consciousness of an imperative call for more intensified citizenship training—that urged the school folk of Boston to prepare an epoch-making report entitled “Citizenship Through Character Development” which has for its essence and core the inculcation of natural and civic virtues. In this document which was approved as a course of study, a definite time allotment is assigned daily for the practice and exercise of these virtues under the guidance of the teachers. Thus character and citizenship training has been elevated deservedly to a position of supereminence in all our school programs, elementary and secondary. At every point, all the machinery of the school is operating to produce a spiritual entity, an upright, honorable, and dependable citizenship.

Manifestly teachers always have regarded moral and civic instruction as the chiefest of their duties. All honor to those unselfish men and women whose illuminating personalities have been beacon lights to generations of youths! But for the most part, such instruction has been left to the initiative of individual teachers. Now the obligation is upon all, and all teachers must become equipped for this inspiring service. In consequence, a campaign of education has been inaugurated in Boston to collect material, organize instruction, develop skill, and formulate special technic of procedure. Normal training schools, teachers colleges, and graduate schools of education everywhere might well cooperate in this missionary enterprise.

It is unsafe to prophesy: but it is altogether likely in the future that public school teachers will be required to qualify for instruction in citizenship as thoroughly as they now prepare in so-called academic subjects. And it is wholly within the range of probability that power in the molding of civic virtues may become the chief criterion of the teacher's ability.

Interwoven in the warp and woof of the Boston plan is the impelling conviction that a prerequisite to worthy citizenship is the possession and habitual practice of fundamental moral and civic virtues similar to those enumerated in the ancient statute of the Commonwealth.

These then are the essential requirements demanded of every youth who aspires to don the *toga virilis* of American citizenship, and thereby join in this glorious venture for equality of rights and identity of responsibilities:

First and foremost, the worthy citizen must be capable of distinguishing between right and wrong, and must acquire the habit of willing to do the right. He is clean in thought and word and deed; he practices self-control and self-denial; he has convictions and the courage of his convictions; he appreciates truth and has an established habit of speaking truthfully. Every child should have, during his school life, innumerable lessons in mental truth-seeking and truth-telling.

He interprets freedom as opportunity for service, privilege to do the right.

The worthy citizen is virtuous socially, as well as personally.

While steadfast in maintaining his individual rights, he is obedient to regularly constituted authority; he has a keen sense of justice and respects all the rights of others; he has a proper sense of loyalty and is loyal to his family, his institutions, his community, his country, and his faith.

Fair-minded and magnanimous, he is tolerant toward the opinions, beliefs, and convictions of his fellow-citizens; he dispenses goodwill; he promotes the brotherhood of man; "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself."

Every citizen must be a public servant, performing meritorious deeds that add to the happiness of his fellow-citizens and promote the prosperity of his country. He should know through practice that it is more blessed to give than to receive. He should not be seeking governmental favors, but should be giving richly and freely to the state from the plentitude of his appreciation and gratitude. He should be able to exclaim with Othello: "I have done the state some service, and they know it."

What shall be the measure of a citizen's service? It shall be commensurate with the gifts and endowments bestowed upon him by nature and by nature's God. One citizen has strength of arm, another brilliancy of intellect, and a third magnanimity of heart. To the extent that one possesses these enrichments, he should dedicate them, to some extent at least, to the welfare of his fellow-men, the honor of the nation, and the glory of God.

You are interested to know what are the fruits, the results of this ambitious and adventurous program. Is it functioning? What are its accomplishments?—are pertinent inquiries.

We are laboring under no illusions. We appreciate fully the magnitude of our tasks, and are far from extravagant in our expectations. The results flowing from this work in character development—the very tap-root of good citizenship—are intangible and immeasurable as all spiritual reactions are. "Behind the visible work there is a work invisible." However, evidences of the effectiveness of our program, coming from parents, teachers and even from the pupils themselves, indicate quite conclusively that we are making noticeable and persistent gain in personal and civic honesty, practice in truth-telling, effort to choose the right and reject the wrong, reverence for elders and superiors, respect for law and order and for others' rights and privileges, growth in moral judgments, and appreciation of spiritual values.

It is particularly gratifying to record in many instances the development of a better civic virtue, of a finer collective spirit; in short, the dawning of an educated public sentiment.

Pupils are beginning to assume responsibility for the good reputation of their school communities, and are learning the lesson paramount in a democracy, namely, the indispensableness of a high order of leadership and the moral purpose to select such leadership.

A teacher writes: "I feel that the most distinct benefit from our work in citizenship is the formation of a new attitude of mind. The weight of public opinion (that is, what will my classmates think?), is manifestly on the side of right. Whereas a few years ago a boys' club generally would choose the most daring or most mischievous boy for their leader, the choice now falls to one who in the estimation of the class possesses desirable qualities as a citizen. I believe that the creation of public opinion that immediately condemns the slacker, the dishonest, the disobedient, and commends the praiseworthy and reliable is most vital, since in the final analysis it is public opinion that rules in democracy."

The American people have been called upon to solve a problem—one of the most momentous and serious ever committed to mortals—the up-building and perfecting of a free government with liberty and justice to all, under novel and untried conditions. The whole American people, in all the years of our nation's life, have wrought and sacrificed that this ideal might become realized. Fortunately, the exalted service of citizenship has been universal—denied to none, accepted by all. Nevertheless, it has been the peculiar privilege of the teachers to stand sentinel in holy places. In an especial manner the teachers of the nation are the keepers, not only of the intellect and sensibilities, but likewise of the will of our future citizens.

Upon us are placed obligations and responsibilities of leadership which one cannot shirk and must not ignore. God grant that you and I and all of us may have the strength, the fortitude, and the grace so to apply ourselves unto wisdom that those who look to us for guidance may not be mis-directed but rather may find and cherish life's purest ideals—that they may be led into pathways that are straight and undeviating, along banks of streams that are transparent and undefiled, and upward toward the heights where immaculate peaks unerringly point the way to eternal truth, and universal justice, and everlasting love.

DEMOCRACY IN EDUCATION

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America, we commonly say, means democracy. But what is democracy? We rejoice that the World War abolished a goodly number of kings. The pomp and circumstance of royalty has become unpopular throughout the world. But in getting rid of kingship we may come under the domination of something worse. What is this democracy which seems to be in the ascendant in nearly all the leading nations of the twentieth century?

If I wanted to show any young man or woman today the meaning of democracy, I would ask him or her to read first of all Lincoln's Gettysburg Address and then Emerson's Boston Hymn. Those two historic utterances have crystallized the experience of three centuries on this continent.

Democracy, then, is freedom—not identity or similarity. Democracy does not mean leveling down, or leveling up, or any kind of leveling or standardizing process. It does not mean that one man is as good as another, but that all men are good enough to help in finding out who the best ones are. A public school which produces in the course of ten years a few potential leaders of the state or the nation is far more democratic than one which merely enables thousands to read and write and cipher and to live respectable but stupid lives. Boys and girls are no more alike in their ability to devise, administer and create than they are in the color of their eyes and hair. When all men grow six feet tall, all may develop the same brain power and the same heart power. "Unto one He gave five talents, to another two, to another one." Some of the timber that is floated down from the forests of northern Maine to the sea is made into the masts of seagoing vessels, some into chairs and tables and some into toothpicks. You cannot make seaworthy masts out of toothpick timber.

When Mr. Ford makes an auto, all the parts are interchangeable; when Nature grows a flower, no parts can be interchanged; and when we grow men and women no two are like or ever will be alike through all the ages. We do not mould human beings as we make silver forks and spoons by a heavy weight descending on the child and stamping child nature into some desired pattern. The children that give us the most trouble may be precisely those most worth educating. It is the top and the bottom of the class that are the most interesting and challenging portion of the school, precisely because those pupils decline to conform!

So democracy should not mean mediocrity. European lands have always distrusted America as the land where excellence is unpopular, and now America is happily beginning to perceive and criticize its own surrender to the fatal average. Our magazines are filled with self-criticism and our fiction shows us that a civilization which exalts a Babbitt or an Elmer Gantry has yet much to learn. The majority may easily become the mob, and the saving remnant be engulfed. In a republic there is constant danger that the least sensitive and delicate minds will dominate the situation and impose their standards on their superiors in discernment and character.

In the moving picture industry we have one of the greatest instruments for the possible education of the people ever devised. It may be so used as to bring all the famous cities of the world, all the historic shrines, all the inventive processes, all the leading personalities and events of our time before the eyes of the humblest worker in a New England factory or Colorado mining camp. And that agency of democracy has fallen largely into the hands of shrewd, unscrupulous managers who fear not God nor regard man. It has become in many quarters the means of coarsening the

fiber, dulling the sensibilities and weakening the conscience of the young people of America.

Happily another agent of democracy, the revolving disk for reproducing music, has fallen into better hands, and our musical records bring us not only the blare and vulgarity of jazz, but the finest symphonies and the sweetest voices of our generation.

Yet when we have a choice of pictures or records, frequently the spirit of a school or a college is such as to frown on the best and practically exclude it from presentation. In the house of a college fraternity I have seen two or three students who insisted that what they called "high-brow stuff" should not be heard and that only songs suited for the cabaret should be allowed. Recently, speaking at a certain college, I ventured to quote a sonnet of Shakespeare that has been precious to me for many years. At the close of the address as the assembly was dispersing, a shame-faced student showed me a copy of Shakespeare's sonnets which he carried in his inside pocket. He was reading it slyly in moments of leisure, but afraid to show it to his fellow students, who preferred the vulgar periodicals of the day. In that particular college the best was obliged to hide its head. Then democracy becomes hatred of excellence, and that hatred is found today in many schools and clubs and churches in America. The great danger in our schools is that they may be geared to the capacity of the average child, and there is no such creature. They should be geared to the discovery and training of leaders, in the confident conviction that most of our children may lead in something, and that the discovery of the boundless varieties of human ability wrapped up in the most prosaic and unpromising children makes the daily task of the teacher an adventure into the infinite far more alluring than any expedition in hunting and fishing, a true voyage of discovery in realms of gold.

Democracy means, then, an equal chance for unequal minds. Every tree in the forest should have an opportunity for air and sunlight, and every human being is an unknown quantity, an *X* that should have a chance to become *X^{nth}* power. Democracy means the transcending of all distinctions of race, creed, occupation, or possession. When a school or college confines its pupils to the children of the rich only, it is forgetting what democracy is. But if it limits its students to the followers of one religious creed, or one racial origin, it is equally un-American. The supreme question about any student is not where he came from, but where he is going to, not who his father or mother were, but what he, himself, is and may become. When we are, through the educational process, thus discovering and building men and women we need envy no engineer or architect in the world. We may feel as did the French artist, who used to wake in the morning crying: "O what joy!—Another day in which to paint!"

But if teachers are thus to have educational adventure, if they are to stimulate growth in pupils, they must be growing personalities themselves. Many a school system—unhappy phrase!—has stunted the teachers that it professes to train and has put a premium on acquiescence, conformity and

routine. Anything like originality or personal flavor or individual quality has been banished from some of our schools by the iron hand of a system which allows no free play to any man or woman. Yet when the graduates of any school come back for an anniversary or reunion, what do they talk about? Not the buildings, not the curriculum—always about the teacher. What makes a teacher interesting? The fact that something is now happening in the teacher's mind. She went to Europe last summer. She attended an extension course in some university. She climbed a mountain and went through a storm at sea. She has mastered a new author in English literature. She has become all aglow through a new study of the stars.

The world is held back chiefly, not by bad men and women, but by good ones who have stopped growing. The most discouraging place I have ever visited was a certain normal school, where everything was arranged to repress personality and exalt system, and where teachers were sent out annually who were icily regular, splendidly null. Such a school often exhibits to the casual visitor a long row of apathetic faces immune to intellectual enthusiasm. If a teacher loves English poetry, or history, or chemistry, with unflagging appreciation, she will make her pupils love it by a happy contagion—even though she be ignorant of all the school laws of Massachusetts!

The teacher is, then, the agent of the state in preserving itself and creating its own future. Education is not a charity, it is a part of the national defense. Fewer submarines and more high schools constitute the best program for defending America. The most useful studies are not those dealing with bread and butter, but those removing from the mind of youth its prejudices, its distorted views of other nations, its racial and religious hatreds. Nationalism and internationalism are not opposed. Without the international vision the citizen becomes a mere jingo or super-patriot. Without devotion to his own country the internationalist is a drab dreamer, at home nowhere in particular. It is only the man of breadth of sympathy gained through education who can be a worthy citizen of his own country. A generation ago Kipling—surely a British patriot of intense zeal—wrote: "What should they know of England who only England know?"

The true teacher has to deal not only with facts, but with values. Modern science, to which we owe so much, which has virtually created our present civilization, is necessarily silent concerning values. It can tell us how to construct an automobile, but not how to use it or in what direction to travel. The purpose and the goal of life, the aims and ideals of a democratic world—to explain these and make them alluring through the educational process—that is the adventurous calling and the indispensable function of the teachers of America.

THE INTER-AMERICAN IDEAL

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During the brief sessions of the recent great Pan-American Congress in Cuba, the world was given a glimpse of the difficulties and responsibilities which the Americas confront as they enter upon a new era in world history. During that era Spanish-speaking South and Central America, dedicating its attention with a new efficiency to the development of its incalculable resources, is destined to a maturing and blossoming which will re-enact much of the history of the past century in the United States. This maturing and blossoming will be stunted and distorted—its fruit acrid and unpalatable, if not actually poisonous—unless there may be removed from the atmosphere in which it goes forward some, at least, of the uncertainty and distrust which have marked recent relationships among the republics of the Americas.

We are, let me repeat, entering upon a new era in world history—an era which, for convenience, future historians may even date from the Cuban meeting of the Pan-American Union. The distinguishing phenomenon of this period will be increasing domination of the world stage in international affairs among occidental nations by the relationships one to another and to the rest of the world of the several American republics.

From the era which now draws near to its close, the era of European domination of world affairs, we of the Americas upon whose shoulders is about to fall the weight of world leadership have much to learn. We must learn, first of all, that internationally speaking the world is still in a period of primitive savagery. Nations have not been content even to exact an eye for an eye or a tooth for a tooth. Of the offender and even of the innocent, they have sought life itself if national selfishness were accompanied by the national might which made such exaction possible. Until that fact is fully recognized no improvement can occur.

There are good reasons why leadership in world politics on the part of the American nations is likely to bring about some amelioration of this state of international savagery. The American nations, taken as a whole, are under-populated and under-developed. Their natural resources are sufficiently great to relieve them of the economic pressure which is the basis of European rivalries. Annie S. Peck, in her book *Industrial and Commercial South America* describes the situation in these words:

Geographically Latin America and the United States are contiguous neighbors; politically they are much the same, with a similar form of government; commercially they have mutual and, for the most part, non-competitive markets. Their natural and material resources are complementary. The same is true of their culture, their philosophy of life and their prominent characteristics.

These, however, are accidents of history; and in assuming the responsibilities of world leadership the Americas will have failed miserably if historians in future centuries are compelled to report that only accidental

contributions to international stability have been made by the western hemisphere. Here is the tremendous difficulty. Man as an individual acts purposefully. In comparatively small groups, such for example as this great educational association, he strives collectively towards fairly well defined objectives. But mankind in those mass-forms which we know as nations seems scarcely more than a blindly squirming organism without much of purpose beyond selfpreservation and selfaggrandizement.

Historical research during the past ten years has revealed, for instance, that the causes of the world war were far different from those originally assigned by the contending nations. It has shown, furthermore, that these causes were in fact at that time unknown and almost unknowable, so insidious was the working out of the blind forces which brought about this great catastrophe.

A recent editorial in a great newspaper contained the following paragraphs:

It is just eleven months since Secretary Kellogg appeared before a committee of the Senate and charged that a Bolshevik government in Mexico threatened the peace of the United States. The Mexican government which was a Bolshevik threat in January is the same Mexican government with which a new Ambassador has succeeded in establishing unusually cordial relations. And all Mexico is cheering Lindbergh.

The change which is recorded by these facts is much more than a surface change. The flight of Lindbergh follows a series of events which indicate a real shift in sentiment and a thoroughgoing change in policy. The appointment of an American Ambassador to Mexico capable of appreciating a Mexican point of view has been followed by a decision of the Mexican Supreme Court interpreting the disputed oil laws in a manner favorable to the United States. Now comes Lindbergh's errand of goodwill and an amazing response in Mexico.

Whence originated the impulses which led these two American nations so near to the brink of open rupture in the face of a genuine preference for peace on the part of both? How explain the sudden revulsion of feeling which the quotation describes?

It is another evidence of blind unintelligence concerning international relations that there are so many who glibly propose the name of "Wall Street" as the answer to unfriendly relations between the United States and the rest of the world. Yet a "Wall Street man" is appointed United States ambassador to Mexico and at once evidence of friendship and understanding begin to appear where only mistrust existed before!

Let me repeat. Nations are not intelligent in their world relationships. It will be much better if that fact is faced, however much we deplore it. They are blindly and stupidly sentimental and emotional. They cry and laugh at the achievements of a Lindbergh. They rage and storm over a minor and unintended discourtesy. They may be led by appeals to the heart but are indifferent to appeals to the intellect.

A Wilson labors in Paris in the interests of high international ideals. He is ousted from his leadership and dies a broken man because his efforts

make their appeal to the intellect and fail to stir the emotions of the people.

Those who believe that the nations of the Americas, in the era of world leadership upon which they are entering, must make their contribution to the betterment of international relations will conclude, if they agree with this analysis, that the upward-looking intellectual leadership of the Americas must have the emotional support of the people or fail completely. To be of any enduring value such emotional support must be honestly aroused. It must not be the product of partisan propaganda.

What should be the nature of this emotion which it is proposed to develop in the people of the United States as the only means of enabling our country to function constructively in inter-American affairs? Is it not the same reaction which impelled our forefathers in the infant days of our great nation out of "a decent respect for the opinions of mankind" to outline to the world the causes and aims of the program on which they were about to embark? Among individuals it would perhaps be described by the homely phrase: "A spirit of neighborliness."

A concrete case will illustrate how it may be developed. As educators we are interested in education. We are not good neighbors of the educators of Mexico, because we contrast their achievements with those which are commonplace in the most remote corners of the United States. Our training in the history of education because limited in its scope to the line of our educational inheritance, includes no mention of Mexico. We forget that our system of public schools is the accidental product of the Luther reformation which taught that all must learn to read that they might, each for himself scan the scriptures and determine the way of salvation. We forget that since the Luther reformation has had little or no significance in the life of Mexico its accidental byproduct—a demand, springing from the people themselves, for education for all people—has never occurred.

The educational leaders of Mexico are following a most interesting program which aims to build up such a demand. Official committees whose members are trained respectively in agriculture, education, public health and other important fields, are sent to the several centers of population where they devote a few weeks to lecturing on their several specialties and organizing the resulting interest before moving on to a new center. At a later date the committee returns to observe the effect of its program. If it finds that a nucleus of sufficiently interested people has resulted, it advises and directs this nucleus in handing on to the surrounding district the inspiration which has been received. This program, it is hoped, will lead eventually to a public hunger for better educational opportunities.

Our knowledge of this enterprise and its purpose leads us to respect the Mexican educator and to admire his resourcefulness. And when we begin to respect and to admire we begin also to be friends and neighbors—to react emotionally where formerly we were indifferent.

Some of you will recall the story of the American business man who visited a South American republic where he was shown relics of the great liberator, Simón Bolívar. You will recall that he was moved to mention George Washington as the father of the North American republic. His guide, thoroughly familiar with the achievements of our great leader, replied: "But Bolivar was the father of many republics." The incredulous American, at last convinced, exclaimed, "Many! Why someone ought to write a book about him!"

It would be in itself no small contribution to the building up of the right emotional attitude towards our neighbors of the south if every member of this great association might be induced to read one good biography of the great liberator. A brief quotation from his address to the congress of Angostura, delivered on February 15, 1819, will perhaps tempt your curiosity concerning him.

As much as I admire the excellence of the federal Constitution of the United States, so much am I convinced that it is impossible to adopt that constitution in our state. To me it is a marvel that the Constitution of the United States has operated so successfully and has not been overthrown when the first embarrassments or perils appeared. But the United States is a singular example of political virtue and moral rectitude. That nation has been cradled in liberty, has been nurtured in liberty, and has been maintained by pure liberty. I will add that the people of the United States are unique in the history of the human race. And I repeat: It is a marvel that a government so weak and complicated as the federal system should have endured under such difficult and delicate circumstances as those which have existed in the United States. But whatever may be true in regard to the government, I must say with regard to the American people, that the idea never entered my head to consider as identical the characteristics of two people so different as the Anglo-American and the Spanish-American people. Would it not be very difficult to apply to Spain the English system of political, civil, and religious liberty? It is even more difficult to adopt the laws of the United States in Venezuela. Does not *l'Esprit des lois* say that the laws should suit the people who make them? That it is a mere chance if the laws of one nation suit another nation? That laws should be adapted to the physiography of the country, to its extent, and to the manner of life of the inhabitants? That laws should be adapted to the degree of liberty which the constitution can sanction, to the religion of the inhabitants, to their inclinations, riches, numbers, commerce, and manners? This is the code which we ought to consult and not the code of Washington.

Bolívar, one hundred years ago, predicted accurately some of the inevitable differences in governmental forms which we note today among the American nations. He recognized differences between North and South America and understood the reasons for these differences. He admired the United States and we reciprocated that emotional reaction with an equal warmth. We were then, perhaps, better neighbors to the peoples to the south than we are today. We, too, were still struggling to insure our new-found liberty.

Now the United States has moved from its little cottage just off of Main Street into the big fret-sawed mansion on the hill, with a cast-iron

fence about the well-kept lawns and cast-iron deer flanking the entrance walks. It is not as easy to be good neighbors as it was when we, too, worked for liberty in our shirt-sleeves and paused at noon to eat our lunch from a dinner pail.

Is the picture a homely one? The ideal which should be the contribution of the Americas in the era on which we are embarked, the inter-American ideal to which the title of this paper refers, should be the homely ideal which we commonly call neighborliness.

Would it be impertinent to suggest that our school readers might contain more stories from South American history, more stories of our comradeship with the nations to the south in the era when we were nearer each other because of our common struggle for liberty, more translations of the poems, essays, and fiction of South American writers; or that our histories devote more attention to our relationships with these nations during our formative years as a nation; or that more high schools and colleges offer instruction in Latin-American history and inter-American relations; or that in our teacher-training institutions we give the future members of this association some slight conception of the educational problems of our neighbor republics and the courageous efforts which their leaders have made and are making to create a popular demand for their solution? Might not this association decide to invite annually a small group of Latin-American educators to attend its meetings, not merely with the purpose of enabling these guests to hear the papers which may be delivered here, but also in order to give them an opportunity of acquainting the educators of the United States with the educational accomplishments and hopes of their respective governments? This would not be propaganda. It would acquaint us with the facts with which we should be familiar if we would be good neighbors.

A Latin-American educator with whom I recently discussed these matters made the following comment:

We of Latin-America are a sentimental people. You will answer that this is true of all nations. But it is an especially strong characteristic among us. If we could feel that the heart of the United States was warm and friendly to us, a great obstacle would be removed to closer understanding and to cooperation in the solution of problems of mutual interest.

Porto Rico has offered an example from which we might learn. These Latin-American citizens of the United States, moulded by four hundred years of the Spanish tradition which is the common inheritance of Latin-America, and familiar with the institutions and policies of the United States of which they form a part and in which they have their citizenship, have done and are doing much to bring together the two great cultures of North and South America in mutual understanding and comprehension. The republics of Panama, Colombia, Santo Domingo, Cuba, Venezuela, Peru, to give only a partial list, have from time to time sought trained leadership from Porto Rico—usually from among the graduates

of the University of Porto Rico. It has for many years been the conscious and expressed aspiration of Porto Rico and of the University of Porto Rico to serve as a meeting ground of the Anglo-Saxon north and the Spanish south. Porto Rico understands Latin-America. Porto Rico understands the United States. And that understanding makes her important despite her small area and her low per capita wealth.

"Balance of power," the matching of hate against hate, fear against fear, selfishness against selfishness, is the contribution of the dying era of European domination of world affairs.

But Christ said, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." If the first paragraph of this paper had proposed this teaching as a practical formula for the betterment of international relations you would, perhaps, have dismissed the idea as another millennial dream. Will you not now agree that these words best summarize that ideal which should be the great inter-American contribution to world history in the era just ahead, an ideal which furnishes the basis for the most practical of international programs?

THE FARMER AND THE FARMER'S CHILD

ADAM MC MULLEN, GOVERNOR OF NEBRASKA, LINCOLN, NEBRASKA

Massachusetts and Nebraska, representing respectively, we may say, the industrial and agricultural groups of our country, are interested mutually in the welfare of the factory and the prosperity of the farm. Both states are producers of necessities and both are consumers; each state depends on the other for source of supply. Both states are concerned alike in the even flow of trade and commerce and in the equitable operation of transportation and credit. Even though the basic resources of Massachusetts and Nebraska are distinctly different, their economic aims are identical. This is true of all states in all sections. If industry and agriculture were governed solely by natural laws there would be no discrepancy between them. It is the artificial law, if I may use that term, that permits the overdevelopment of one industry at the expense of another. It is man-made law that builds barriers between productive groups and prevents proper cooperation on equal terms. Many man-made laws conferring benefits on other activities have been denied to agriculture. As a result the farmer is handicapped in a business way and the farmer's child is discriminated against in an educational way.

With our farming element composing one third of our total population and producing one third of our annual national wealth, it is unjust that the farmer should receive only eight percent of our national income. It is unjust that his dollar should have only four-fifths the purchasing power of every other dollar. And what is more to the point, it is reprehensible that because the farmer possesses less economic strength than others, the farmer's child must be deprived of educational advantages freely granted the children of the city.

Agriculture has never been able to operate as a unit. That is its chief disadvantage. During the progress of the world war, industry and labor and other agencies became organized as never before. This was considered necessary in order to meet the war demands of the government. Immediately following the armistice in the late fall of 1918, the administration issued a statement assuring the industries of the country that contracts for war supplies would be dealt with fairly in the settlement of their agreements. Agriculture, being unorganized, could not enter into agreements with the government. All it could do was to follow instructions. Industry and labor and transportation could bargain for prices; agriculture had to take whatever was offered. Labor organizations, through Mr. Gompers, served notice that labor would insist upon retaining the advantage it had gained in recent years and would fight every attempt to modify the immigration laws or lower wages. Then at the first sign of post-war deflation congress passed emergency tariff legislation for industry and followed it with the Fordney-McCumber law. Therefore industry and labor were able to protect themselves through these legislative enactments. Agriculture, on the other hand, without effective organization, was forced to compete with foreign markets and accept unprotected prices for crops distributed through our export channels.

The Transportation Act of 1920 guaranteed to the railroads that for six months from March 1, 1920, their earnings should be proportionately equal to the earnings guaranteed them under government control. To make this guarantee good, the railroads were paid from the treasury in round numbers \$600,000,000. Furthermore, the Transportation Act instructed the Interstate Commerce Commission, as a new rate-making rule, to prescribe rates sufficiently high as to earn a fair return on the aggregate value of the railroad property. No such protection was thrown around agriculture. In 1920 cash wheat sold for \$2.50 per bushel and cash corn sold for \$1.25; then in 1921, a year later, wheat brought only 90 cents per bushel and corn only 30 cents. With a sudden fluctuation of that magnitude, reaching all branches of the farming industry, as it did the grain crop farmer, sweeping away the investments of a lifetime—without warning and without hope of compensation—it requires no argument to show that there was no post-war guarantee to agriculture, as there was to the railroads, of a fair return on the aggregate value of farm land.

The time has arrived to adopt a positive program for agriculture. With the farmer's dollar worth 80 cents—and on an average it has not been worth more than 80 cents since the deflation period started—as compared with the 100-cent dollar of other wealth producing agencies, he never can hope to find himself square with the world until something is done to give him an even chance in the markets of America. If farming declines until its profits become negligible, and it is not so far from that point at the present time, the farm population will decline proportionately and there will follow such a corresponding increase in the price of farm products that American manufactured goods will be unable to meet the

competition of other countries. American exports will decline because crop prices of the raw material entering into them will be high. With a reduced farming population prices for crops to meet the demands of home consumption also will be high. With reduced export trade, labor will be less employed and wages will be lowered. The next step will require removing the tariff from farm products and allowing agricultural imports from foreign countries to destroy the value of the American farm.

PROGRESSIVE TENDENCIES WITH RESPECT TO SOURCES OF SCHOOL REVENUES

FLETCHER HARPER SWIFT, PROFESSOR OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF
CALIFORNIA, BERKELEY, CALIF.

There are three great needs in American education today as far as financing schools is concerned. The first of these needs is the need for more revenue. The second is equitable methods of distributing school funds. The third is an equitable method of providing school funds. The first and third are intimately related. Superintendent Cook of Maryland is going to discuss the second, as it is most fitting he should in view of the marvelous contributions Maryland has made to educational practice in the field of the distribution of school funds.

The question arises at once, What evidence is there that we need money for our public schools? We are sometimes told by people who know only a portion of the facts that we are spending too much money for our public schools. America has entered upon what is perhaps the most heroic as well as the most noble task in the history of the race in her attempt to amalgamate into one great republic people coming from all over the world. This meeting and your presence here is a testimony to her great success in many aspects of her undertaking.

America has far from succeeded in making a complete success. On every hand there are evidences that education is not free, is not universal, is not democratic. When I can tell you that in one of our states one-tenth of the teachers are given salaries of \$300 or less per year, you do not feel like talking to me about our spending too much money on public schools. When I can tell you that in the report of that state superintendent of public instruction in grouping his teachers according to annual salaries he begins with his first division, teachers receiving \$100 or less per year, his next division, \$100 to \$200, the next division \$200 to \$300, the next division \$300 to \$400, and in that state more than one-tenth are paid \$300 or less per year, you cannot think they are spending too much money. When I tell you that in another state where I made a personal survey the average number of children in the classrooms was eighty, you will find they are not spending too much money for public schools. If I can take you out into a rural school in that state and show you 160 children enrolled in a one-teacher school, and this one-teacher school con-

ducted in an old dilapidated store, the children sitting on the floor, with one book for every four children, you would perhaps not think that America is spending too much money for public schools.

If you were to accompany me to the office of the county superintendent of schools who is about to enter upon his day's task of visiting rural schools, you would not think that America was spending too much money on public schools. He had his material spread out upon the table. He was to take these materials around to rural schools. I noticed there was quite a marked difference between the materials at one end of the table and at the other end of the table. I asked him why this difference. He looked at me in rather a queer way and said, "Don't you understand? The things at this end of the table are for the teachers who can read and write."

I can see no reason why half of the teachers in that state should read and write, for that is a state where many rural teachers have enrolments of 160 pupils, where there is one book for every three or four children, where the children recite out loud and the child who sits in the center of the room has his book upside down or right side up or back side forward or inside out or outside in and shouts words which he thinks sound good.

I could go on with this story and I think we can marshal all the evidence before us and we will conclude that there is great need in the United States today for more money for public schools. When you realize that there are thirty million children in the United States between the ages of five and seventeen and that five million of these are not enrolled in school and that on any particular school day five million more are not in school attendance, you know that every day in the United States one-third of the children are not at school and one-half of one-third have no chance of going to school.

When you realize that in the mountain regions of Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, and North Carolina it is stated that there are two million children and twenty-five thousand of them in school, and these are pre-Revolutionary stock, you begin to ask yourself whether we need any more money for schools or whether it is true, as some try to maintain, that America is spending too much money on public schools and must curtail her expenditures.

I must now pass to the second topic, that is progressive tendencies with respect to state school revenues. The most widely used source of school revenues in the United States today is the general property tax, the tax on real estate and on personal property. There are twenty-one states which levy such taxes for school purposes. In seven states it is the only type of tax levied. The remaining fourteen states levy other taxes as well for public schools.

Those of you who have looked into the matter at all know that every state tax commission as well as every student of the state taxation has condemned the general property tax in no unstinted terms. The Georgia

Tax Commission declared that the general property tax was a failure and recommended graduated income taxes, graduated inheritance taxes, and graduated taxes on privileges and occupations.

The Ohio Tax Commission summed up the situation by saying that the general property tax punishes the honest, rewards the dishonest, results in double taxation, lowers the standard of public integrity.

Professor Seligman says it puts a premium on dishonesty and debauches the public conscience; it imposes double taxation on one man and grants entire immunity to another. It is so flagrantly inequitable that its retention can be explained only through ignorance or inertia. We are, therefore, very much interested with respect to what our states are doing regarding the general property tax.

The first thing we note is that there is a tendency in some quarters at least to abolish the general property tax as a source of school revenue.

Virginia, in 1925, occupied the position of levying the heaviest general property school tax in the United States. She levied a state tax of five mills. The legislature in Virginia in 1927 abolished the general property tax as a tax for schools and substituted in its place corporation taxes, severance taxes and inheritance taxes.

California, as long ago as 1911, took measures to abolish the general property tax as a state tax, and like Virginia, segregated general property or real estate for local taxation.

North Carolina in 1918 created her income tax. There is nothing in the North Carolina law to indicate that this was created as a school tax, but all the history of the case shows very definitely that the income tax in North Carolina was provided in order to furnish state school revenue, and, furthermore, with the creation of that tax and the levy and collection of that tax, North Carolina discontinued entirely her state general property tax for schools.

Nebraska provides in her laws for a state general property tax for schools but has levied no such tax since 1906.

Ohio discontinued her general property tax in 1922 as far as a tax for furnishing state school revenue.

We see, then, throughout the country a very marked tendency to act upon the findings of these state commissions and of these students of taxation and to abolish as a state tax the general property tax and to substitute other types of taxes for it.

The most universally employed method of levying general property taxes is to levy a tax of a certain number of mills. Minnesota has a state tax for schools of one mill. Other states have two mills; some states have three mills. The difficulty with that sort of a tax is that there is no guarantee that it will furnish the amount of money that is needed and yet, like most of our policies in taxation, whether we are talking about taxation in a general sense or public finance as affecting schools, the worse the method the more commonly you will find it employed. This is the worst type of gen-

eral property tax there is, because it always results in the fund being prorated. Consequently, it is very encouraging to find a number of states doing away with this method of levying a general property tax or any tax of fixed rate.

As long ago as 1916, Massachusetts enacted her state income tax. In 1919 she provided her general school fund by saying that there shall be set aside from the proceeds of the state income tax, not any particular amount, not any particular percent, but that there shall be annually set aside from the income of her state income tax whatever amount is necessary to meet the claims of the schools against the state. That is one of the most applicable, one of the most satisfactory methods of levying or providing a tax. Other states have adopted the policy of providing that a state tax shall be levied sufficient to provide a certain amount of revenue per child. This is the policy followed in Arizona, Utah and Washington. In each of these states, the law provides that there shall be levied a tax sufficient, together with other funds, to provide twenty-five dollars per child in Arizona and in Utah and twenty dollars per child in the State of Washington.

Still another method is to levy a tax sufficient not to provide any definite amount per child but sufficient with all other sources of state revenue to meet the claims of the budget. Massachusetts levies a tax of that character. Having made out the state budget, having determined what revenues will be received from other sources, she then provides that there shall be levied a state tax sufficient to meet any deficit in the budget. Delaware follows a similar policy.

Another tendency which gives us encouragement and satisfaction is seeing the states undertaking to assume and guaranteeing to provide a definite proportion of the school revenue. If you look at the figures you will see that there has been a steady decrease in the proportion of the school burden by the states. On the other hand, if you go into the individual states you will find one state after another undertaking to provide an increasing amount, and in the more progressive states, endeavoring to provide in many cases an increasing proportion of the school burden. Delaware offers the most interesting example in this respect. Having experimented with the district system and having become convinced of its incurable evils, Delaware abolished the district system and substituted for it the county unit. Then Delaware reasoned that since the county unit was so much better than the district, why not adopt a state unit, so Delaware did away with counties as units and established a state system. In Delaware today schools are state supported as well as state controlled, and any of you have need only to turn over the reports for the last five years of the superintendent of public instruction of the state of Delaware to be convinced that this was a most wise step.

I venture to prophesy the day will come when our schools in the majority of our states will be supported by the state, and that this support

will cover a minimum program. To those of you to whom this may seem a new idea, I would suggest that this is the method pursued in every state in Australia, that it is the method pursued in Hawaii, that it is the method pursued as far as teachers' salaries are concerned in most Continental European countries.

For generations in the United States great corporations have gone into states and have taken out of those states natural products. They have cut down forests, they have taken away vast fortunes of coal, oil, asphalt, clay and all sorts of mineral products. These corporations have never made any due return to the state for the wealth which was being taken from the state. More recently our states have awakened to the fact that those who take out these great fortunes ought to make some special return to the state and so there has arisen in the United States a new type of tax of great interest, the so-called severance tax, a tax which is levied upon all natural products severed from the soil, except agriculture.

Louisiana was a pioneer in this movement, and Louisiana today levies a tax on oil and gas, three percent of the gross profits, and two percent on all other natural products. Two-thirds of the proceeds go to the state universities and one-third is returned to the parishes to be used for schools.

Montana levies a severance tax upon the gross products of mines. Fifty percent of the proceeds of this tax are credited to the state common school fund.

Arkansas created in 1923 a severance tax. One-third of this tax the state keeps for its state school fund and one-third is returned to the local communities.

In general it seems to be the policy among the states thus far in establishing severance taxes to return a proportion of those taxes, and generally one-third, to the counties or to the districts in which the products on which the tax is levied were originally produced.

Another great source of school revenue and a type of tax which is often relieved from the general property tax is the corporation tax. Every state in the Union, except one, levies a corporation tax. In fourteen states the schools have definite claims upon the proceeds of corporation tax. In two states the proceeds go entirely to schools.

Fourteen states levy inheritance taxes, and in seven of these states all or a portion of the proceeds of the inheritance tax go to public schools.

I realize it is quite useless for me to expect you to carry away from this meeting any of this statistical material unless you have happened to write down a few of my figures. I only realize the most important thing for you to carry away from this meeting is a conception of the general trends toward improvement of our sources of school revenue.

There are a few facts to which I would like to call your attention in closing. In the first place, there is recognized throughout our land today the fact that we must provide more revenue for public undertakings, not only for schools but for many other public undertakings.

A recent statement appeared in which it was stated that next year ten billion dollars in this country would go for motor traffic. Our actual expenditure for public schools in 1926 was approximately two billion dollars. We have got to have more money for schools; we have got to have more money for roads; we have got to have more money for our army and navy; we have got to have more money for public health and for all these other undertakings that this great Republic of ours desires and is perfectly able to subsidize from the public treasury.

The more the pressure comes for money, the more necessary will it be for us to give up as rapidly as possible depending upon the general property tax. The general property tax as levied today in the United States is a national scourge. It is driving the farmer from his farm, it is driving the rancher from his ranch, it is driving the small householder from his home to live in tenements.

It was false measures, it was wrong economic policies which undermined the yeomanry of ancient Rome. The same thing is undermining the yeomanry of America today. When you read in the report of the Department of Agriculture that two million farmers have left the farms, or at least the farming population has decreased two million since 1922, when you realize that the farming population in this country is decreasing at the rate of between four hundred thousand and five hundred thousand a year, if you are doing any thinking you will realize that the bread line in the Bowery district and the bread line in Chicago and the bread line in Boston will grow longer and longer unless we do something to keep these people in independence and contentment, earning their living on their farms. The farmers that I have talked with who have come to San Francisco and Chicago and Boston and New York did not come because they wanted to come; they knew that there was no rosy future awaiting them in the great city; they knew that their children would be thrown into the streets; they knew that there was nothing ahead of them but some job which involved the sacrifice of their independence. Why did they come? They came because year after year they have worked by the sweat of their brow, their wives had worked early and late and their income was not sufficient to pay for their seeds, their machinery, their help and their taxes, their interest, and many of these men have stood financial loss year after year.

What did Montana do when the crops failed year after year? Did she close her schools? When property values sank to almost nothing, the heroic in that state did not close their schools, they did not lower their taxes, they doubled, trebled, quadrupled their taxes, and what happened in Montana? Beautiful farms were sold for less than their taxes. What has happened in this wonderful state of Massachusetts? What is the story of the Mohawk Valley in New York? What is the story of the farm throughout our country? It is no wonder that there is a McNary-Haugen Bill presented and urged. We do not need a McNary-Haugen

Bill. The farmer does not need to be subsidized. He does not need to be pauperized. The thing that the farmer needs is a just system of taxation. We tax other men on their income, we tax them on their gross profits, on their gross production, or at so low a rate that it does not affect them. We tax the farmer when his crop has failed one year, two years, three years, and it is a general property tax that is doing this, and if I can say nothing else this morning that will be remembered, I want to repeat that the general property tax is a national scourge which is striking at the foundations of our agricultural life; it is striking at the foundation of the American home, and I want to call to your attention that state commissions appointed by governor after governor, made up of hard-headed business men, not of theoretical professors, have condemned the general property tax and have suggested other types of taxes in its place.

It is perfectly true that we cannot give this tax up entirely, but instead of doing as Wisconsin did, raising her general property tax from seven-tenths of a mill to one and one-tenth of a mill, as was done by the last legislature, let us raise our rates on income taxes. Let us place the tax burden upon the people who have the money, and let us not ask the widow who has given her mite to give her house as well.

There is every reason for believing that our states which are awake to the problem will continue to grow more and more awake through the necessity of devising new sources of revenue, and we have plenty of examples of successful policies so that we need no longer to labor in the dark.

THE EQUALIZING PRINCIPLE IN STATE SCHOOL SUPPORT

ALBERT S. COOK, STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BALTIMORE, MD.

One of the chief duties of a superintendent of schools in a city, county, or state, is to make a case with the public for financial support of progressive educational policies. Adequate financial support and effective organization and control are two primary requirements that must be met in order to have a good system of schools.

It is a fundamental principle of American education that the wealth of the state shall educate the children of the state, regardless of where the wealth is located and of where the children reside. A unit of the state that does not have sufficient wealth to educate its children must be helped by the wealthier communities, through a state school fund. The purpose of a state school fund is to equalize the burden of taxation for schools, and to secure, in a measure, equality of educational opportunity for all the children of the state.

In the earlier days of public education, men seriously debated whether it was right to take one man's money to educate another man's child. Some thought that every family should be held responsible for educating its own

children, and that there is no obligation upon society as a whole to provide educational facilities for all boys and girls. But as a people, after half a century of discussion, we have accepted the principle of public education. We have gone a step farther and have forbidden the parents to keep children out of school. All the states now have compulsory attendance laws. General intelligence and a common school education are essential to the successful operation of a democracy. It has come to be the fixed American policy to hold the wealth of a state responsible for the education of the children of the state, regardless of who has the wealth and who has the children. Education is a state function and a system of free public schools is provided for in every state constitution.

I fully realize that all here present accept the foregoing principles underlying our system of free public schools, but the people of a state, and even the schoolmen themselves, need to have these fundamentals frequently and continuously brought to their attention. And this is especially true in a state where there is concentration of enormous wealth and large populations in comparatively small areas.

Some one has said that the government of human affairs consists in finding a compromise among conflicting interests, and surely any one who has had intimate acquaintance with the application of the equalizing principle in state school support will be in full accord! While there is practical unanimity that it is the duty of the state to provide universal elementary education for all of the children, when we come to the proposition that it is equally the duty of the state to provide free high school education to all of the children who successfully complete the elementary course, there is a considerable part of the population, of some states, at least, that does not consent willingly to that proposition; some of our wealthiest states place artificial barriers in the form of high-school entrance examinations; and even a few of our educational leaders are raising the question of whether or not a state can adequately support all the various types of secondary education that are now under way in our more progressive communities.

Back of the equalizing principle in state school support, there are, then, certain accepted American ideals:

1. That mass education is the safeguard of a democracy, and equality of opportunity is the ideal of our democracy.
2. That there should be equality of educational opportunity for all the children of the state.
3. That, by reason of constitutional provisions for a system of public education in all of our states, education is a state responsibility.

In interpreting this responsibility the states have passed through various stages of evolution in distributing funds to the local units, but each state has developed in its own way in accordance with its traditions, its form of organization, and its educational leadership. Because the earliest bases of apportionment no longer survive in practice, I shall not attempt to enumerate those which preceded the school census.

Educational leaders of the time considered the school census such a notable advance over preceding plans for apportionment that more than one-half the states inserted it in their constitutions as a basis for apportionment. I need not inform you that as a means of equalizing burdens and opportunities it is unjust and unsatisfactory. Measured by the need of the unit to be aided in terms of wealth back of each teacher, the community having the most children and the greatest wealth usually receives a larger proportion of aid through the school census than the sparsely settled rural district which is too poor to have school facilities which meet desirable standards. The community which has many children in private and parochial schools or a shorter school term or poorer attendance or over-large classes receives a relatively larger measure of aid than one which is struggling to have a longer school term, better attendance and smaller classes. Cubberley says: "This basis of apportionment offers no stimulus to a community to make any educational effort beyond the bare minimum standards required by law of all."

The evils of apportionment on the basis of the school census resulted in the use of enrolment, and later of average daily attendance or, still better, aggregate days of attendance in its place or in combination with it. Although these bases give greater aid to school systems having good conditions which bring about improvement in attendance, the rich communities which can afford improved schools profit most by the aid, while financially poor, sparsely populated rural districts which so sorely need aid fare even worse than with the school census as the basis.

The next important step in state school support was to provide state subsidies ostensibly to stimulate the development of high schools, vocational education, free books, special classes or other special forms of education. In most cases it was the large wealthy cities which felt the need for these extra facilities and they were the first to establish them. The large proportion of this special aid again was distributed to those who had; but to those who had not, no additional aid was given.

Then, in turn, with a partial realization that the teacher rather than the pupil was the unit of school costs, some states began to use the teacher as the basis for the distribution of more or less of the state school funds, usually continuing some form of the census and attendance basis in part, and also continuing state subsidies for certain school activities that the state desired particularly to encourage.

In all of these movements toward better plans for distributing state school support, all of the local units were treated alike, in theory, at least, except that the comparative ability of the local units to support schools was not actually taken into account. For example, the census and attendance basis of distribution was wholly favorable to the larger schools, and the larger schools are almost invariably in the wealthier communities. The teacher basis was a step in the right direction, since it took into account the number of teachers needed, instead of the number of children enumerated, regardless of the sparsity of population. But with a

uniform appropriation per teacher throughout the state, the small, sparsely settled and less wealthy community was again penalized, because the state aid per teacher was usually a comparatively small percent of the entire cost per teacher, and the small, and less wealthy communities needed many more teachers per thousand of school population than did the large, usually more densely populated, and more wealthy communities.

The state has a right, unquestionably, to set up a minimum program of public education that shall reach every child in the state, but there is a corresponding obligation to so provide state support for the program, that no local school unit shall be required to tax itself beyond a reasonable limit for schools, in order to carry the program set up.

The two indispensable factors, then, in the equalizing principle are:

1. A state program that shall provide for efficient organization, administration, supervision, and teaching in even the least wealthy school unit of the state.
2. A state school fund sufficiently large and so distributed that even the least wealthy school unit need not tax itself beyond a reasonable maximum to carry the state's minimum requirements.

The first problem is to determine the desirable minimum program, which differs for each state, at least in the initial stages of development. The program should provide, if possible, for:

- a. An adequate supply of professionally trained teachers and a legal requirement that trained teachers *shall be employed* whenever available, as vacancies occur.
- b. A guaranteed minimum salary, preferably on a *yearly basis*, for all teachers meeting the state requirements for the type of teaching position occupied in every school, with salary increments at intervals for successful experience.
- c. A guaranteed minimum school year of at least nine months for all local school units.
- d. An adequate supply of books and materials of instruction.
- e. Adequate and efficient instructional supervision in every school unit.
- f. Provision for effective administrative and professional leadership on the part of the superintendent, since educational leadership is the first requisite of a progressive school system.

The second problem is to determine the amount of money required to carry the desirable minimum program and the method of distributing the funds available in order to most nearly equalize educational opportunity and burden in all local school units.

In considering these two problems, I ask your indulgence in permitting me to discuss them as they apply to the Maryland situation with which I am most familiar.

We have before us, then, a state school system composed of twenty-three county unit school systems and Baltimore City, the only independent unit; 24 boards of education, in all, to deal with. This presents approximately the simplest problem in applying the equalizing principle that could be imagined, compared with the thousands of school units and thousands of boards of education that are found in many of the states.

The so-called technics involved in applying the principle, however, are the same, but the simplicity of the problem involved is at least one strong argument for a larger school unit.

We have a state of average wealth, half urban, half town and rural in population; we have a state school fund distributed on the census and attendance basis which makes available about \$9 per elementary school pupil, and in addition there are state subsidies for high schools, vocational education, free books and supplies, and for part payment of salaries of certain county administrative and supervisory school officials.

We have a minimum salary law based on grade of certificate, with increments for experience. The law provides a definite ratio of teachers to pupils in all types of elementary and high schools. Our State Tax Commission has been functioning effectively for a period of years in securing uniform assessments of property values throughout the state. Our law requires a minimum school year of nine months.

All of these conditions existed prior to the meeting of the legislature in 1922 and it was not our purpose to change the *status quo* except to make any additions which would result in bringing about equalization of educational opportunity and burden. We knew, of course, that the amount of additional money to be appropriated would be comparatively small, and that no school unit would willingly consent to any reduction in its share of state school funds.

In determining our minimum program, the first important consideration was to secure a minimum salary schedule for teachers that would guarantee a gradually increasing supply of teachers of standard academic and professional qualifications to fill all vacancies in all types of schools both rural and urban. The Legislature of 1922 accepted the judgment of the friends of education on a minimum salary schedule, and the resulting supply of standard trained teachers over a five-year period has confirmed the wisdom of their judgment. The proportion of teachers with standard training in both elementary and high schools in the counties has increased from 35 percent to 85 percent.

The minimum salary schedule adopted was not that of a county of average wealth, but was one that provided salaries considerably higher than were then being paid in all except two of the twenty-three counties.

The next important step was to determine a measure of the ability of each county to support schools. At this important stage at this particular time (April, 1921) we were sailing on an uncharted sea. The technics subsequently developed by Professors Strayer, Swift, Mort, and others, based on salary and an equalized local tax rate, were not then available.

Since the assessed valuation of property in our counties was equalized by an efficient state tax commission, we assumed that the average tax rate for school maintenance (exclusive of capital outlay and debt service) which then prevailed in our counties was a fair measure of ability of the

counties to support schools. We found the average rate to be 67 cents on \$100 of assessed valuation, or 6.7 mills.

In the Maryland plan of equalization, therefore, the state pays the entire school maintenance budget for the minimum state program, less the amount that the county contributes by a 6.7 mill tax. The county school maintenance budget is calculated annually, and is based on the actual salaries paid to the teachers for the current year as set forth on the payroll of each county; the state, however, fixes the minimum annual salary for each type of teaching position, and for years of experience and grade of certificate of each teacher. The state law also fixes the number of teachers required to carry the minimum program in every type of school based on the number of pupils in attendance. Counties sharing in the equalization fund may pay higher salaries or employ more teachers than the state provides by levying more than 6.7 mills for school maintenance.

In addition to making plans for a sufficiently large minimum salary schedule to attract teachers of standard training to all the schools, even those in remote rural districts, it is necessary to furnish each teacher with an adequately equipped classroom. To insure this the state school law provides that not more than 76 percent of the county school maintenance budget shall be expended for teachers' salaries, leaving 24 percent to be expended for other current school expenses. Having determined total salaries for each county, the total maintenance budget is found by dividing total salaries by .76; for example, if total salaries are \$76,000, the total maintenance budget is $\$76,000 \div .76$, or \$100,000. Now in the case cited, if a tax of 6.7 mills on the taxable wealth of the county yields \$60,000, and the state subsidies for all purposes other than equalization total \$30,000, the county would have an income of \$60,000 from the local school tax, plus \$30,000 from state subsidies, or a total income of \$90,000 with which to carry a \$100,000 program; this county would therefore be entitled to an equalization fund of the difference between \$100,000 and \$90,000, or \$10,000. On the other hand, if the income of the county just cited from a 6.7 mill tax plus total state aid for all purposes other than equalization is \$100,000 or more, the county would receive no equalization fund, because it has sufficient local and state funds to carry a \$100,000 program.

The provision for equalization in the Maryland law reads as follows:

* * * provided, that the board of county commissioners of each of the several counties sharing in the equalization fund shall levy and collect an annual tax for the schools of not less than sixty-seven (67) cents on each one hundred dollars (\$100) of assessable property, exclusive of the amount levied for debt service and capital outlay for the schools; and provided, further, that the county board of education in each of the several counties sharing in the equalization fund shall expend not more than seventy-six percentum (76%) of the total budget, not including capital outlay and debt service, for teachers' salaries.

After five years, we find that the outlay for teachers' salaries as required by law is considerably less than 76 percent of the total maintenance budget, by reason of the enormous increase in transportation costs due to consolidation. To meet this situation, before calculating the amount of the equalization fund we have arbitrarily added 50 percent of the cost of elementary school transportation to the estimated county school budget, which was obtained by dividing the salary budget by .76. In our next budget we shall add approximately 100 percent of the cost of transportation in elementary schools.

In our opinion, there is an outstanding advantage in basing the equalization fund on the actual salaries as shown by the county payroll, since the county superintendent and the county board of education know that teachers of standard training may be secured as vacancies occur without increasing the county tax rate, and further, that for every additional 76 cents of salary increase by reason of the appointment of a better trained or more experienced teacher, or both, the equalization fund is increased by \$1. As an illustration, one of our poorest and most sparsely populated counties has increased the proportion of standard trained teachers from 7 percent in 1922 to 81 percent in 1927; as a consequence, its equalization fund has increased \$60,000, of which 24 percent, or \$14,400 is available for current school expenses other than teachers' salaries and capital outlay. Another of our counties sharing in the equalization fund was the first county in the state to have 100 percent of two-year normal school graduates in the elementary schools; and of the ten counties having from 90 to 100 percent of trained teachers, five are equalization fund counties. A flat salary allowance on a teacher unit basis does not provide so strong an incentive to appoint only standard trained teachers.

The minimum program set up in Maryland by the Legislature in 1922, except in salary schedule, was equivalent to the program then found in the two most progressive counties. Since the financially poorest counties were very far below the standard set up, they have been aided each year only to the extent that they have actually been able to employ an increasing number of better trained teachers and provide them with necessary equipment. As a result, expenditures did not increase enormously at first in these counties. The program provided for large increases in salary only in replacing teachers entirely or partially untrained by normal school graduates; i. e., the salary increases were limited for the most part to teachers having the desired professional status. Although the minimum salaries provided in the state minimum program for the various types of positions and for years of experience were somewhat lower than the salaries paid in the wealthiest two counties, they were high enough, as our experience has shown, to enable all the counties to secure two-year normal school graduates for practically all elementary school vacancies that occurred in both town and rural schools, and even to replace some of the teachers holding the lower grades of certificates. In five

years the counties as a whole have increased the percent of standard trained teachers in the elementary and high schools from 35 percent to over 85 percent. Notwithstanding this rapid growth in the percentage of trained teachers, the equalization fund has increased only slightly since 1925, by reason of the increase in the assessed valuation in the counties sharing in the equalization fund. At some time during the five-year period from 1922 to 1927, seventeen of the 23 counties have shared in the fund; but in any one year no more than 15 have received its benefits; only 13 counties share at present; but other counties are likely to share again as they approach 100 percent of trained teachers.

The second indispensable factor in the equalizing principle is a state program that shall provide for efficient organization, administration and supervision in the least wealthy school unit of the state.

No matter how desirable it may be to equalize the burden completely," says Professor Mort, "if that equalization results in the further entrenchment of a decadent system of local organization that makes impossible the use of the tools and technics developed in city school administration, its result is bad, for in the long run it limits educational opportunity for vast masses of the people.

Maryland has, by inheritance, the county unit plan of organization; our problem was simply to make the most of it. Strange as it may seem, however, legislative attack was concentrated largely on that part of our program which provided for an adequate staff of professional and clerical assistants for the county superintendent.

The county board of education functions in exactly the same way that a city board functions, namely, by appointing a superintendent of schools who is the agent through whom the board acts—a man with first rate educational and professional qualifications, especially trained in school management; who, as secretary-treasurer of the board, acts as its business representative and executive agent in financial matters, and who takes the lead in the matter of securing public support and interest for the schools. In other words, the county superintendency calls for the same type of trained and efficient professional leadership as the city superintendency.

In Maryland the law provides for the appointment of supervising teachers for each county on the basis of one supervisor for every 50 elementary teachers employed. These supervisors must be properly qualified and their appointment approved by the state superintendent; and, as is the case with the county superintendents, two-thirds of the salary is paid by the state. The county superintendent is held responsible by the state department of education for supplying professional leadership, inspiration, and assistance to his teaching staff and to his staff of supervisors.

Thus, with a fairly adequate plan for equalizing educational opportunity and the burden of school support, open from time to time to refinements in its application with or without additional legislation, and with a fine legal basis for efficient organization, administration, and

supervision, the county school systems of the state have full opportunity for progressively increasing the efficiency of the schools, subject only to the limitation of professional leadership in each county, and to the desire for better schools on the part of the people of the state as a whole.

EFFICIENT EXPENDITURES OF SCHOOL MONEYS

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School systems are frequently administered more in the interest of the reputation of superintendents, teachers, business managers, and architects, and to the profit of private businesses and contractors than in the interest of children. Sometimes school money is wasted, school programs handicapped, and the support of education is endangered by loose and thoughtless, or personal and selfish, policies of control by boards of education and executives. One purpose of school administration and business management is defensible—and one only—namely, the best provision for the teaching of children which the money provided by the state and community will buy when handled by a scientific and professional (disinterested) plan of administration. Good teaching for all types and classes of children, not professional reputation nor money profits, is the goal of school administration.

Some of the chief causes of waste in the administration of public school systems are:

1. *Too large proportion of the school budget spent for overhead (general control) purposes and too small proportion for instructional purposes*

In the school year, 1925-26,¹ ten cities of 35 with a population of 100,000 or greater had an overhead of 4 percent or greater upon the total for current expenses; while three of these showed an overhead of 5 percent or greater. Six cities with a population of 100,000 and up gave less than 75 percent of total current costs for regular day school instruction.

Whenever the overhead or general control cost exceeds 3 percent, the superintendent should carefully seek the reason. Danger lies ahead. Whenever the percent of expenditures for instruction in regular day schools falls below 75 percent of the total current costs, the superintendent should know and be able to defend the causes for it.

2. *Failure to control distribution and assignment of teaching service*

Often too many teachers are assigned to indefensibly small classes and to non-teaching duties, such as: "Teacher in charge"—departmental heads who do not teach—"counselors"—and office administrators. I am entering no protest against the proper use of this type of service. On the other hand, I am an ardent advocate of adequate provision for "counseling," supervision by principals and department heads in high schools, and control and direction of extracurriculum activities. But I personally know a superintendent of schools in a city of 150,000 population who in a single year saved 75 teaching positions (or \$150,000) in the schools under his charge without doing injustice to a single teacher by an indefensibly

¹ Report of Bureau of Education Statistical Circular No. 7. March, 1927.

heavy pupil or "pupil-period" assignment. He merely inaugurated a "check-up" system on small classes and nonteaching positions.

3. *Rapid expansion of the fields of school service without efficient preparatory organization or justification in actual needs of children or community*

Pressure from groups outside the school system frequently results in unwarranted additional expenditures for purposes in themselves desirable, but relatively and in the light of the main aims of the school program not justifiable; for example, cafeteria service, or kindergartens in very new districts, or a junior college establishment without knowledge of the cost or preparation to meet it. Also, from within the system come heavy pressures for additional expert or specialized services which may distinctly aid in the performance of some very necessary and desirable function, but which cannot be defended by showing vital necessity. I have known large school systems to carry a veritable army of clerks and accountants to maintain a minute and highly specialized system of cost accounting, most of the tabulations and statistical tables being finally wholly unused except in the publication of elaborate statistical reports. Expert supervisors and directors of specialized subjects are frequently added by the same process—without justification in terms of the school program.

4. *Exploitation for profit by business firms*

Business and financial interests of a city are always concerned with school patronage. Their main purpose is to conduct their respective businesses for a profit. This is natural and laudable. Sometimes, however, they intrigue to influence school expenditures unduly and to control school moneys. This invariably results in waste and extravagance, and the children of the schools "pay the bill."

As an example, let me cite a case: In city "A" a treasurer makes use of a doubtful and conflicting statement of a section of school law to refuse to transfer for loan purposes balances always present in the capital funds of the school district. Such transfer is wholly legal and would prevent the registry of salary warrants during the tax collection period before sufficient tax money is on hand for payment. The school district pays interest on these warrants at the rate of 6 percent, in the total amount of some \$20,000 each year. Meanwhile, the capital funds of the school district are loaned by the treasurer to financial firms of the community at the rate of 2 percent. The schools and the children "pay the bill" for this exploitation.

In city "B," school furniture is purchased from any one of a group of firms in a combine to control bids for school equipment. The price of the standard school desk is almost double that paid for exactly the same desk in a city a few hundred miles distant. Again the children "pay the bill."

In the school districts of county "C," which has a large rural population, each board of school trustees makes its own purchases of supplies for the year. The prices paid for standard school supplies are practically double those paid by a nearby city which purchases the same supplies, identical in quality and standard, through a centralized and expert purchasing department.

5. *Extravagance in school buildings*

This usually arises from the following causes:

- a. Control of building policies by persons financially interested in the patronage afforded by the school building program. This is frequently accomplished by raising the issue that the school superintendent is not a business man and incompetent to control the erection of schools. The result is control either

by a separate department of city government, by a lay-committee of the board of education or by a layman business manager independent of the superintendent of schools. In most cases, nonprofessional control means that interested persons with expert knowledge and ability actually direct the procedures of building erection for the profit of themselves and their allied business firms. Their purpose is never the maximum advantage to the teaching of children. Millions of dollars of school money are wasted each year by favoritism in specifications, architect's fees, and "extras" given as bonuses to contractors.

- b. Unstandardized and poorly planned buildings and equipment. When the superintendent is in control, he himself is to blame if buildings are erected according to wasteful and extravagant policies. Many such instances can be brought in evidence. Too frequently buildings are erected for display purposes—both as to outside appearance and interior arrangement. Elaborate allotments of floor space prevail and unnecessary equipment is provided.

I venture to cite the following in evidence:

Three American cities of 200,000 to 300,000 population inaugurated programs for the erection of new school buildings during the years from 1920 to 1928:

City "A" voted \$6,000,000 and housed 8000 pupils—Average cost per pupil—\$750

City "B" voted \$8,000,000 and housed 15,000 pupils—Average cost per pupil—\$533

City "C" voted \$10,000,000 and housed 30,000 pupils—Average cost per pupil—\$333

Each city had similar housing needs and erected buildings of permanent fire-resistant construction.

6. *The provision of positions in the school system for personal and political favorites*

In every American city, pressure of varying degree is brought upon the school administration to recommend the appointment of teachers, and especially of members of the noncertificated staff, upon a personal and political basis. When anything but merit of record, personal fitness, and a high standard of previous preparation dictates appointments to positions, school money is either ineffectively spent or wholly wasted.

Tentative Statement of General Principles Governing Efficient Expenditure of School Moneys

School moneys are efficiently and economically expended when the result is a maximum of advantage in the direction of the best teaching for all the children of the community. Such maximum of advantage requires the recognition of the following principles of school administration:

Single Headed Control

- a. The administrative policies and the expenditures of all funds both current and capital must be controlled by a board of education (or supreme school authority) through an expert executive head who is responsible for the formulation and recommendation of the general program for the development and management of the schools, and for the administration of the same.

Coordination

- b. Administrative organization should be departmentalized, with a responsible and authorized expert executive at the head of each principal field of activity, the work of all of these being coordinated in a unified working whole by means of an executive cabinet or council of which the superintendent is the presiding officer. Full understanding of fields of activity and assignment of duties is thus obtained, and the passing of responsibility from one executive head to another avoided.

Merit System for Appointments

- c. Merit in the terms of personal fitness, previous record, and adequate preparation is the only qualification for a member of the school staff. This applies to all classifications—teachers, supervisors, and executives, including an expert business man as manager of the business functions of the schools and an expert builder as leader-in-chief of the building program.

Checking System

- d. A thoroughly organized system of checking up on administrative assignments and responsibilities and an efficient plan of measuring results should prevail in every school system. To do this in a scientific manner, an adequate research department is required. (This type of inspection should be thought of as applying to administrative functions only; never to the functions of teaching and supervision of instruction.)

Schedule for Teaching Positions

- e. The distribution of teaching and other positions in accordance with a schedule for size of classes, for allotment of clerical service, for the assignment of teacher time to executive work—such as control of extracurriculum activities—headship of high-school departments, mental testing, counseling, etc., is highly essential if extravagance and abuses are to be prevented. Such a schedule should be developed scientifically and cooperatively.

Cost Accounting

- f. The system of cost accounting and auditing should cover all activities of the schools, including those involving moneys usually known as auxiliary funds, which are handled in the name of the public schools, and should furnish summarized and easily interpreted information at frequent, stated intervals, showing the condition of the appropriations, the costs of units of school organization and specialized functions, and comparisons with recognized standards and norms as well as with practices in other properly comparable communities.

Standardized Buildings

- g. All school buildings should be erected and equipped only in accordance with a carefully and scientifically developed plan standardizing

The facilities to be provided in the several types of schools

The equipment to be provided for each type of school and room

The instructions to bidders upon the erection of school buildings

The contracts with all architects

These standards should constitute an adopted regulation of the board of education and should be in a published form accompanied by sets of standard drawings for all building facilities and all built-in equipment.

Standardized Supplies

- h. All supplies should be purchased upon competitive bids by a centralized expert head and should be distributed by a standardized requisition system providing an allotment upon a "per pupil" basis for the semester or year. A central storeroom is the best agency for administering such a system, enabling purchases to be made in quantity and effecting a considerable saving thereby.

Manufacture of Equipment

- i. Much of the equipment of the school system may be more economically manufactured than purchased either by the building department of the schools or by the instructional shops in vocational education. This is especially true of large quantities of school printing.

Requisition System

- j. A plan for the control of open market emergency ordering by means of a current requisition system is a very necessary part of the machinery of the superintendent's office. A small requisition committee directly representing the superintendent's office with a representative of the business and purchasing department as a member is probably most efficient for this purpose.

The foregoing summarization of the chief causes of waste in city school administration and tentative statement of principles governing school expenditures should not be construed to mean that waste and extravagance are dominant in most school systems, or that too much money is being spent for school purposes in our several commonwealths and municipalities. What has been said is rather directed as a suggestion to superintendents to be more on their guard in removing vulnerable points in the defense of their policies—to the end that more effective school service and more kinds of school service may be given for the money expended. Moreover, the better the account given by superintendents for school appropriations voted them, and the more nearly full value of 100 cents on the dollar is rendered for each dollar of school costs, the greater the appropriations for the school program are likely to be.

The American people are thoroughly devoted to the cause of public education. Whenever issue is joined in a battle of ballots over school matters, the schools and the children inevitably win provided the responsible executives show to the electorate full and complete evidence of efficient and economic trusteeship of school funds, and the necessity for victory for the school cause, as separate and apart from other issues.

A people with a fortune of 300 billions of dollars and an annual income of 100 billion dollars is willing to spend two billion dollars per year in education—yes, and more—if that people is assured that the two billion is effectively invested in cultural and spiritual values in the lives of its 25 million youth, and that such investment is predestined to pay the rich dividends of a happy and prosperous democratic civilization for all posterity.

SUPERVISION IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE PRINCIPAL

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Considering the country, at large, the secondary school knows little and does less about supervision. This statement is supported by the interpretation which denotes supervision as the attempt to improve classroom procedure of what is often called the technic of instruction. Instruction has been and still is, most of us believe, the crux of the whole educational process.

The contribution of the normal school to the professionalization of the grade school teacher has been the outstanding influence in bringing recognition and development of supervision in the elementary schools. For the secondary school there is no counterpart. The majority of high-school teachers have not received professional training of any kind prior to their first jobs. They are merely college graduates. The acquisition of certain degrees, has seemingly prepared them to teach in all units of public education. These college graduates, suddenly turned to the field of teaching, enter, for the most part, the small high schools. The larger schools insist upon experience—and experience, such as it is, must be obtained in the smaller schools. In these latter schools the principal is usually as much a neophyte in the art of instructing youth as the members of his staff. If experience and training are his, use of them is generally nullified by his own heavy program of teaching, plus a multiplicity of management detail which is overwhelming. Often in such situations, the superintendent presents a similar picture; and generally, the major portion of his supervisory interest and time are given to the lower grades.

Out of such conditions, in general, the inexperienced, untrained college graduate becomes in time an experienced instructor and passes on to the higher salaries of the larger schools. Habits and methods, to large degree, have become formulated and static. These teachers have learned to teach, perforce, as they were taught. Oddly enough, such methods have usually been quite sufficient for the definitely specialized, strongly formal, and traditional subject-matter of the high school.

The small high-school principal, likewise gradually advances to a larger school. He is usually selected for such advancement by reason of his personal qualities plus the ability he has demonstrated in the organization and administration of his school. Rarely, if ever, is his promotion dependent upon what he has done specifically to improve the quality of classroom instruction. The latter is usually taken for granted as a byproduct of successful management. The principal's teaching experience is generally meager and unnoticed. Once, particularly in New England, and vestiges may still be found, the principal or headmaster, by virtue of his position, was first of all the head teacher. Accordingly, he taught the most important of all subjects, the subject through which all pedagogy has been most unchanging and unchangeable. And that same Roman influence

was observable in all his contacts with the school. This tradition has been powerful in shaping the attitude of principals. But again, generally, the advancing principal with teaching experience often outstanding in its limitations, has been forced to forego teaching altogether and immerse himself in an overwhelming burden of organization and managerial duties. Meanwhile the larger the high school involved, the less help is forthcoming from the superintendent.

In the middle sized and larger schools there are often department heads. When there are such, the reduction in teaching load is usually merely sufficient to provide some additional time for routine duties connected with books, supplies or details of management. As supervisors of instruction most department heads fail to function either because of lack of time or ability or both.

The lack of professionally trained teachers and principals, the inheritance of formal and traditional subjectmatter, the dominance of the highly specialized requirements of higher schools, and the huge enrolments, prohibitory of cost extension, other than for the basic provision of rooms and full time teachers, are briefly, some of the most important factors which have hindered the development of supervision in the secondary school.

Though there are exceptions to this rather sombre picture and recently a much more hopeful attitude is abroad, yet it is quite apparent that the major problem of supervision in secondary schools is one of adequate recognition. Recognition which will come through the development of more suitable professional training schools for high-school teachers and principals; recognition by school boards, in stipulating definitely such training for incoming high-school teachers and principals; recognition by superintendents of schools that they should place more definite responsibility upon their high-school principals for obtaining a balanced program of supervision in the secondary school. The more complete development and broader standardization of state and other accrediting agencies will be of much valuable influence in gaining desirable recognition. These are some general factors which may aid in developing a cooperative outlook favorable to the growth of an adequate conception of the art of supervision.

The specific problem which follows the general one of recognition has to do with the place and character of the supervisor in the development of supervision. Much has been said about the high-school principal as the supervisor of instruction. Ideally he has been named as the proper supervisor. Upon analysis it may be found that this customary conception is open to much qualification. Conditions in the small high school, already referred to, make the principal either unsuitable or unavailable.

In schools with less than 200 enrolled (an arbitrary number merely indicative) it may be strongly argued that it is the obligation of the superintendent to meet the problem of supervision in the secondary school as fully as in the grades. The high school is much more in need of trained

and experienced service. The superintendent, generally, is more mature, more experienced, more permanent than the high-school principal. A wide recognition of the responsibility of the superintendent for at least more specific leadership in the solution of this problem might clarify and develop the existing situation to great advantage.

In schools with enrolment between 200 and 1000 (again merely an indicative spread for general grouping) the problem is obviously more clearly up to the principal alone. For this reason he is all the more in need of help. Though the superintendent can give less time to the high school, in systems large enough to support high schools within this great middle grouping; he can easily be of much more help to the principal than is generally true. It is not unreasonable to expect that a program of supervision should make both superintendent and principal effectively operative in its development. However well such a program is planned the chief load will rightly devolve upon the principal. Schools of this size, in the main, will not be able to support trained and capable department leaders. Leadership in supervision as well as in other things must be the definite obligation of the principal of the middle-sized high school. For such leadership he must obtain specific, adequate training in well established schools of education. The summer school, of necessity, must play an important part in such training, for most of the specific preparation will become effective after the teacher has become a principal on the job. Much of the training will be vitalized by the use of the position in the field as the medium for experiment and practice. The principal who is to supervise must know the characteristics of good teaching. He must learn and apply the art of supervision in a variety of forms. If he is to do all this, school boards and superintendents must make it possible through adequate office assistance both clerical and managerial. Until this latter is reasonably done the immediacy of business management, startlingly insistent in the modern high school, will preclude the principal's satisfactory leadership in the improvement of classroom teaching.

In schools larger than 1000 in enrolment capable and properly trained assistants to the principal are possibilities. They may be departmental leaders, curriculum or subject supervisors or assistant principals especially selected for instructional supervision. For the principal of one of the large schools to supervise satisfactorily, the instruction in the broad and varied fields of the modern curriculum, as it exists in our large secondary schools is, in most cases, to beg the issue. He must, perforce, become a general manager; and if he devotes anything like the time to supervision which should be given, other phases of his school organization will suffer to the extent that there will be serious interference with instruction. If the principal of the large school is especially qualified in the art of supervision, then, he should delegate many important managerial and executive duties to capable assistants and give largely of his time to classroom supervision. Few, if any, principals are as well qualified for detailed and specific super-

vision as departmental specialists. The principal of the large school, as far as intelligent practice is concerned, must of necessity become a supervisor of especially trained and appointed officers of supervision. His great obligation to the supervision of instruction is likely to be that of coordinating and articulating the work of several supervisory assistants, a challenging, necessary, and skilled work in itself. From this brief analysis it becomes obvious that the size of the school and the qualifying conditions must determine the nature of the executive plan for supervision.

We have stated that the accepted interpretation of supervision is in respect to the improvement of classroom instruction. The oldest and most firmly established conception of supervision carries the idea of classroom observation by an officer who is superior to the teacher. This officer is to make constructive suggestions relative to the organization of subjectmatter and the method of developing the lesson. While this conception of supervision properly carried forward should be productive of valuable results; it is too often the sum total of the supervision within a given school. Such supervision is good as far as it goes; but it should be emphasized that there are many other phases of supervision which are intimately related to the teaching process and fully as necessary to the improvement of learning.

The principal who faces the problem of supervision squarely, whatever the conditions, will first view the situation administratively. He will organize a plan of supervision. Not a highly complex and mechanical arrangement which will be put into effect by the issuing of a bulletin or sudden announcement in faculty meeting but rather a plan which will be of a gradual developmental character; a plan which will provide for the working out of several phases of the whole problem with correlation and coordination as rapid as the school may be carried along in effective spirit and work.

The first step in such a plan would be that of encouraging the training of teachers in service. This is an effective way of improving classroom work by obtaining the interest of the teacher in attacking the problem through sustained personal effort. Professionalized activities by departmental, faculty, and extension groups, individual research and study, summer school work, all of these will give strong impetus to the growth of the necessary professional spirit and will give much aid in solving the difficult technical phase of the problem.

A plan of supervision will also include the professionalized faculty meeting as a medium of cooperative enterprise and common understanding of problems intimately related to the classroom. The importance and the place of the assignment as a simple factor in classroom procedure may easily form an excellent project for faculty discussion and realization. Such an opening followed by observation, demonstration, and report could be carried throughout the school as a special project in supervision. This accomplished, another phase of supervision could be advanced and similarly developed. By a developmental plan of this character the principal

can learn and apply the technic of supervision as his teachers practice the technic of teaching.

A definite supervision program should recognize pupil control and management and the physical conditions of the classroom as a specific phase of the general problem. These are considerations basic to the best teaching. Oftentimes, there is much confusion incident to inspection as supervision or supervision as inspection. For purposes of efficiency, inspection should be recognized as merely a definite part of the whole program. Much argument can be advanced for inspection in relation to physical conditions, pupil control, and for checking certain specified phases of class procedure. However, it should always be understood as merely a legitimate follow-up efficiency procedure and surely never as the sum or emphasized part of the supervision program. It should not be permitted to operate alone but as a well understood item among several more important parts of the general scheme.

Once there is an attitude within the school favorable to constructive progress in educational method, there comes the challenge of the curriculum. One of the most important phases of the problem of supervision is that connected with the selection and organization of the subjectmatter to be taught. The relation of this question to the improvement of teaching is obvious. A successful plan of supervision will provide for the constant reorganization and adjustment of content with corresponding discovery and application of suitable classroom methods. An answer to the inevitable question: What shall we teach, raises, at once, the insistently pertinent question, how shall we teach it? The supervision of instruction if intelligently done, demands selection of text and organization of content conforming to the needs of the school population. It means supervising outlines of work, consideration of method in advance and the preparation of daily plans.

Now the alert principal will not be content with merely starting things. He will insist on knowing what happens. His whole program of supervision will be objective in its character. He will test the component parts of his plan. He will be especially interested in knowing whether the sum total of his plan has been made a difference in the quality of the educational process. Unquestionably a very important phase of his program is that which has to do with the measuring of classroom instruction. To what end all the effort over the supervision problem unless results are checked. The knowledge of results may easily disclose the need and furnish the starting point for definite supervisory practice.

More objective material is necessary. Standardized subjectmatter tests are increasingly available. Tests of such character should and can be developed by the local school as a part of the supervision program. An attempt to improve the testing practice will open up the whole problem of instruction. Curriculum matter must be selected, organized, certain essential parts emphasized, and non-essentials eliminated. If teachers'

results are to be evaluated, charted, compared, methods of obtaining the best results are, at once, in demand. The principal who interests himself in supervising a subject testing program will do much to forward the cause of efficient instruction in his school.

Perhaps the most marked weakness in supervision has been that of insufficient standards. The question of standards for measuring classroom instruction has been extremely difficult in the secondary school. The multiplicity of specialized subjects, each with its own peculiar technic has made the setting up of suitable standards exceedingly complicated. Once the various phases which have been mentioned as necessary parts of a balanced program of supervision have been worked out in a given school, they will tend to create a set of standards for that school. It will be the particular job of the principal to keep such a set of standards refined to the best thought and practice available. But this will not be sufficient. The principals as a group need very greatly to study this problem of standards of supervision for secondary schools. A pooling of efforts and findings will aid in clarifying the existent haze on this important problem. In time, supervision will, of necessity, be based upon a set of principles and standards with accompanying procedures which have survived through experiment and demonstration to convincing proof.

This statement on supervision, necessarily brief and general in its character has not made any attempt to develop argument for supervision. The necessity and importance of supervision have been assumed. There has been no attempt to present its technic. We have been interested in defining the problem which supervision faces in the secondary school; and in offering somewhat comprehensively, the attitude of some of the principals.

SUPERVISION FROM THE VIEWPOINT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT

WILLIAM MC ANDREW, EDITOR, EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, CHICAGO, ILL.

Most of the superintendents of my acquaintance see the high-school workers confronted with a bewildering change of circumstances and problems. Those good people need all the sympathy, help, and guidance the heads of their school systems can give them.

Many of you present who are not yet Methuselahs—may you continue your service through vigorous maturity, rich in days abounding in good works—can remember when high schools regarded themselves as constituted for sifting from the product of the elementary schools the most scholarly, and for maintaining through four years a still further selective process, determining who might pass on to higher education. You had the entrance examinations required for admission to high school. You recall Maxwell, voicing in his annual report, only twenty-five years ago, his conviction, a common one, that—"many children get into high school who

should not be there at all." You are familiar with the old high-school slogan, "Through the survival of the fittest we train for leadership." As compared with their present perplexities the task of the high-school teacher was simple, indeed. His children had a definite college entrance standard to attain.* A teacher made no study of teaching. He could give out lessons, hear them recited, puts marks in a book, and draw his pay. His pupils were selected on the basis of ability and desire to learn.

Now comes the astounding revolution! Compulsory laws extend the school age. Everybody goes to high school. Over three millions are in the public institutions of secondary education. The amazing increase of 610 percent confronts these schools. The common-minded, the lazy, the uninterested, the mental pauper—all are in a refectory whose menu and service were planned for the select robust appetites of a few. It is a situation which no ridicule of methods, however inept they may be, can greatly help. It is a case for compassion, for constructive sympathy, for intelligent guidance by the head of the school force.

Tell them the truth. It is no kindness for a superintendent to feed the high-school people with honeydew. He who called himself the Third Napoleon was given that diet until he thought he had an invincible fighting organization. When he put his troops against a real army it crumpled them in a few days. The worst thing a superintendent can do is to let the high-school principals get their heads into the sand. The futility of continuing high schools on the old basis needs especially to be sensed by the superintendent. His responsibility demands that unpleasant facts be known about what is now the most expensive and least efficient part of the public-school service.

Let him be sure that the high-school managers realize that college preparation is not now their main business. The high schools are paid for by every person in the town. From every cent spent for anything a part goes to the high-school tax. Unless one keeps that essential fact near the top of his consciousness, he can run a high school for getting a few boys and girls into college. But, as Thomas Finegan hammered into the Pennsylvanians, "Every child of fourteen is a high-school obligation, not to prepare so much for residence in the University of Pennsylvania as for contributing benefit to the state of Pennsylvania."

Let the superintendent see that the high-school people appreciate the hollowness of the old training-for-leadership fallacy. It was a high-sounding cymbal, mere noise. Those who had innate power of leadership, no doubt got into high schools where, in sooth, they were so diverted by scholarship and pedantry from the paths in which America needs to be led that we see our educational products playing golf on election day while the real leaders, who never saw the interior of a high school, are herding their voters to the polls to keep in power the sorriest set of statesmen to be found in any country on the globe.

Let the superintendent, while praising honest and intelligent effort of high-school people, see that they realize the growing power of Dr.

Pritchett's and Dr. Lowell's protest against rising costs, the formidable movement of chambers of commerce, of granges, of associations of mayors, and of governors, seriously inquiring whether the American people are getting a fair return for what in many localities is much the largest item in the public budget. We have the advantage of a supreme American faith in education. The marvelous growth of the demand for it should not lull us into complacency. The amount and keenness of criticism from without is growing.

Meantime our own school people have themselves developed a discontent with high-school results which no superintendent may ignore.

I see some men here who remember Jacob Gould Schurman's criticism of us at the Poughkeepsie meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, well back in the last century. You remember him deploring that we were organized on the basis of teaching subjects. "Your high schools," he said, "are bibliocentric, or themocentric, directed towards imparting the contents of a book or covering a course of study. What the country needs is a more paidocentric service in which the high school will determine what the boy is, who comes; what he ought to be, who leaves; how he can be made to grow from one to the other." "We need a service," he said, "which shall deliver that kind of American who will render the social, civic, political service for which the makers of America instituted public schools and made them a tax on all people whether parents or not." You remember at that meeting J. McKen Cattell proposed that by tests and measurements we should determine whether high schools are doing their work. It seemed Utopian. Yet now comes Henry Morrison with the most talked-of book of the time and shows us that by centering on the subject, by mere covering of the lesson, we have seasoned society with a distressingly large proportion of people who know education as a partial performance of tasks only up to a low average that will relieve the doer of requirement to undertake them a second term. It is a cause for congratulation that the proposition of Cattell and Rice and Ayres and others, to devise a means of knowing how well a school is succeeding, is worked out in this enheartening Morrison book to a system of simple mastery units for every high-school activity, with means of demonstrating in greater accuracy than ever before that they are really mastered.

You will remember, too, James E. Russell's excursions through German schools before the war and his book, the essence of which is that those people know what they are aiming at and how to hit it; ours don't. Now comes David Snedden with a whole book on "What's Wrong with American Education." The theme of his high-school chapters is, "Nobody Knows." "Nobody knows why Latin, plane geometry, and chemistry are taught in high school, nobody knows whether English as taught in high-school functions as worthwhile culture, nobody knows whether history in high school has well defined objectives of civic conduct." "Of belief and faith, we have much," he says, "but of sound, dependable knowl-

edge, none." It reminds you of Paul Hanus's figure of the high school: A great ship with all sails set and going nowhere; or, of the subject of a New Jersey Education Association meeting: "Resolved that the high-school is a chaos." In the notable number of books on high-school management coming from the press in the past five years, the conclusion by both the Douglasses, by Hollister, by Uhl, by Barr and Burton, by Judd, by Snedden, is "the work of the high school leaves much to be desired."

The constructive, optimistic Morrison declares the result of these four years upon our youth, at the time when their duty in the world begins naturally to dawn, is "the making of an adult incapable citizen albeit he may be legally entitled to vote and hold office."

Supervision, the answer—What is the remedy? All the students of productive organization answer, "supervision." The workers require guidance. Percival Hulson, who was awarded one of the Sachs prizes for an essay on high-school improvement, reaches the conclusion that the teachers are not prepared for what the high school should do. Edward Fitzpatrick, the other prize winner, reports thousands of instructors, whose only teaching preparation was for English, found in charge of classes in geometry, French, and domestic science. Hundreds of high schools are like a fake hospital whose specialists' qualifications are that once they had the measles or the smallpox. William Burton's book puts first the training of teachers now in the service. John W. Withers makes it the immediate paramount need. Barr and Burton feel justified in saying that supervision is already recognized as the foundation on which school procedure must be built. They add these requirements to training those already in service: Second, employment of only teachers who are adequately trained for teaching; third, reorganization of the school activities with definite human abilities in view; fourth, testing and measuring the results and improving them; fifth, appraising the work of separate teachers and replacing those who fail to meet requirements.

This is a formidable task, enlisting the highest ability and courage of superintendent and principal. "It is not," said the progressive Professor Inglis, within a short walk of this spot, "so much of a problem to improve high-school supervision as how to get any." While, a thousand miles further west, Professor Judd responded, "The part of the high school job poorest done is supervision. It needs a tonic dose of honest self-criticism."

Obstacles—To have such agreement among the bookmakers that supervision is the high schools' greatest need is something, but who thinks human nature rushes gladly to the benefits conferrable by the supervisor? Douglas Waples ought to know. His book is the result of wise acquaintance with us. He remarks, "Few high-school teachers get any supervision. They don't want it. It is considered bad form for a teacher to admit the need of help with school problems." Out on the shores of the Peaceful Sea, where every prospect pleases and only man is vile, a gentle and sympathetic woman, Susan Dorsey, grieves over "teachers who,

shouting for liberty refuse freedom by creating an atmosphere of strife in their own souls against the imagined bondage of supervision. Tell them that all the tests establish that the best method is this one; they immediately want to do differently."

On the eastern coast is Hosis declaring that "where supervision is functioning there is little excuse for agitation for democracy in the school system. Under the disguise of academic freedom they want the liberty of wasting youthful lives and setting up the ugly form of teacher Bolshevism."

Let the superintendent realize that a principal who sets out to get each member of his corps to use the road which surveyors have agreed is the safest and best often has a backwash of teachers who flood the offices of the superintendent and of board members with complaints which would make workers in other lines laugh and wonder. New York held meetings of protest against the raising of requirements of new entrants into teaching. "Teachers to arms," read the circular, "Your rights are assailed. A tyranny more dire than that against which your fathers fought is upon us." In Chicago, a circular assembling the friends of freedom recounted that the principal invaded the classroom, sat in a back seat, took notes and imposed them on the teacher. These things impress the honorable, the members of the board of education. A distressed gentlewoman, tastefully clad, inevitably awakens the chivalry of the layman. He who would dismiss a neglectful home nurse, however beautiful, will gallantly champion a handsome incompetent if she is merely wasting the lives of a few score of other people's children. Let a superintendent support his honest and thorough people against the opposition of his board and note what happens to him. Ettinger resents the proposed replacement of hard-working progressive Edson, Ettinger protests the promotion of an unscrupulous woman school politician, Ettinger insists that the judgment of a school system shall be based upon the measured accomplishment of it as shown by standard tests. Ettinger refuses to permit a political school board to violate the law secured by years of struggle against political domination. What does his board? Discontinues him. Finegan reorganizes the supervision of the schools of Pennsylvania. By the opinion of all those open-eyed observers, the travelling bookmen, Pennsylvania schools came up into the van. What happens to Finegan? Politicians pinch him out. What did Baltimore do to Van Sickle and West? Newark, to Corson? Terre Haute, to Engleman? What were the deeds of that choir invisible, the company of superintendents that were? Winship has told us that more school men lose their positions for improving the service than for leaving it as it is. This leads your John Beveridge to tell the life insurance men that school superintendency is the most hazardous of all occupations. This leads to a type of supervision by principals and superintendents of the sort that justified Dr. Eliot to tell this Association that school service is fifty years behind the science of it. This produces the "inspirational address" and a sort of evangelical supervision

in which the Third-Napoleon-fallacy persists in telling teachers how noble, conscientious, and able they are, with no other basis for the declaration than a desire to please.

Coffman sneers at us when he quotes a well-known superintendent of 1917: "The business of a supervisor is to cast a genial influence over his schools, but otherwise he is not to interfere with the work." As long as I can remember, the favorite pose of principal and superintendent has been that of a dear little Coué, saying to all his school people, "Every day in every way you're getting better and better and better." The result may be a coming Gravelotte and Sedan. It may be a setback resulting from the protests of the Pritchetts, the Lowells, the granges, the chambers of commerce, and the associations of the mayors and governors. But that is not the main consideration. The question is what is the chief end of principals and superintendent? Truly there is no respectable theory of their service other than to do their stint in a thorough and workmanlike manner, let the axe fall where it may.

Let them each, therefore, throw away those shiny baubles of long ago: poise, pleasing personality, and the attainment of popularity. Nobody really loves a lazy commander. The old conception of principal as foster father to delightful boys and girls is not satisfying the Pritchetts. "The principal is on the platform; let all the school keep silence before him," hasn't brought us any whither worth coming to. Let the superintendent now say, "My son, your main business is with teachers; not with pupils and parents. Let me see your plan of organization. Simple Simon had not any, but he is dead at present. The motto of efficient service, as Thomas Briggs reminds us, is organize, deputize, supervise. Let me see your plan. Your institution is part of the public school system. I am responsible for it. I want to know how you deputize the supervision of the English teachers, of the Latin teachers, and of all the people who teach anything. I want to know what you do to see that the habits of penmanship, language, and other things that we have built up at much expense in the lower schools are preserved in yours. I want you and your deputized supervisors to get into those schools enough to know how they are doing things so that you may direct your people to work accordingly. Head-architect Burnham had the planners of every building in the great World's Fair inspect the whole works every morning to get unity, harmony, and completeness. I want you to tell me what abilities you expect your children to have at definite periods. I'll send somebody to go and find out by tests whether they have those abilities. What book on high-school supervision do you set most store by? What have you learned about the attention-holding quotient of your various teachers? What mastery units have you decided on for your history? Have you made them few and simple enough to leave the teachers time for their favorite and valuable hobbies? Understand, my son, that I am not trying to dominate you. Dear no! I merely want to be sure that you are making a business of your business and not running a Sunday school in

which nobody interferes with teachers. I want you to understand I'm with you. Your success is my chief desire. If you have superintenditis, I consider that all right, too. Although, to tell the honest truth high-school principals are happier than superintendents. So organize, my son, organize and deputize, and supervise. I'll back you. Tell your teachers they mustn't run to me. I'll hear them, of course, but never unless you're present."

That ladies and gentlemen, is high-school supervision from a superintendent's standpoint. He can't help high-school education much unless he can get principals to roll up their sleeves and remake their high-school systems. They need sympathy and help. They have inherited a silk mill, built and equipped to weave the most delicate threads into ornamental patterns. A cataclysmic change has dumped among their raw material wool and flax, sisal, hemp, and wood pulp. The principals must be helped to so reorganize as to deliver a well-known useful fabric suitable for stout sails for the ship of state.

Who despairs?

So far as I can see, every one worth knowing is glad that the hundred researchers in the laboratories of the schools of education and, under their inspiration, teachers in the classrooms of high schools, are reducing our profession from a mess of glittering generalities to a nearer approach to a science of surety. We want to be in line with the progress of those material constructionists who can build a car that inevitably runs, who manage a railroad that gets you to your goal. We want to be in the class of those engineers in human welfare who know they can prevent cholera and yellow fever, who know an increasingly large number of diseases they can cure. All around us in the humbler occupations we see the conquering of uncertainty as in that beautiful rhythmic sign in Albany, "No woman so fat but we can make her stylish," or that other proud boast of a master of trade on Warren Street, New York City, "You don't have to try on the pants I make for you."

From these ridiculous examples to that sublime realization of the hope of the fathers is a step, long enough, no doubt. But the best men of our time have faith that the schools can take it, for from Washington to Coolidge it has been the faith of the fathers that the schools are the hope of the world.

WHAT TEACHERS WANT IN SUPERVISION

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When one considers the topic "What Teachers Want in Supervision," another question arises in the mind demanding instant solution, "Why is supervision?" Mature consideration of the two questions brings to light the fact that there is little if any difference between what teachers want in supervision and what other thoughtful educational workers want.

The ultimate aim and measure of all supervision is the progress of a child. All school machinery exists that his growth may be guided in the right direction. That teacher is greatest who creates within the school an atmosphere of freedom, growth, and responsibility. That principal is greatest who gives teachers the maximum freedom and who secures the largest growth and self-imposed responsibility. That superintendent is greatest who is most able to develop principals and teachers and to keep them free in their work with the children. That system of city or state supervision is best which fosters the finest adaption of the schools in each local community to the highest needs and ideals of that community.

Supervision has been influenced in spirit and method by the shift from autocracy to democracy in the management of human life. While there is still much in our educational practice that belongs to the middle ages, steady and substantial progress is being made in the direction of wiser and more wholesome methods of handling people.

This is nowhere better illustrated than in the epoch-making Sixth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence on the Development of the High School Curriculum. This yearbook is literally an example of supervision. It is the vision of the best minds in American education working on the greatest collection of facts relating to the secondary school ever brought together. Its aim is not uniformity or standardization in the narrow sense, but diversity and the adaption of the school to the needs of individual children and of the various communities. Its aim is not to enslave the teacher to a fixed way of doing things, but to free the teacher by bringing out the facts and the principles so that they may be applied in the readaptation of our secondary schools.

This is a democratic attitude. In this yearbook is also found a clear statement of the responsibility of the secondary school for all adolescent youth rather than merely for a part of them. The high school of the past may have excluded many pupils because they were restless or uninterested or could not profit from what it had to offer. The high school of tomorrow, following the lines laid down in this yearbook, will find a way to meet the needs of all adolescent youth. It will recognize clearly that the pupils who tend to drop out at early ages are often the ones who need the atmosphere of the school most. Supervision developed in accord with this ideal will lead teachers to elevate student growth above the mere mastery of subjectmatter. This does not mean that we shall value scholarship less but rather that we shall value growth and the all-round development of young people more.

Modern supervision recognizes the simple principle that children grow through their own activity. It seeks therefore to guide and direct their activity and not to repress it unnecessarily. Through the teachings of John Dewey, which have profoundly influenced educational theory and practice there runs the doctrine of guided growth. This great philosopher emphasized the need of a kind of supervision which shall give to the individual child greater freedom and responsibility. Under the Dewey dis-

pensation each school is a little society in which the embryo citizen under simple and guided conditions is enabled to make his mistakes and learn his lessons protected from the exploitation and the penalties of a selfish and competitive civilization. If a child is to grow there must be things to do that involve more than mere verbal situations. Progress is not made by don'ts and stop's. Necessary as these may be at times, they are not the normal approach to growth, and joy, and power.

Just as the supervision of children has been made more constructive by the modern educational advance, so has the supervision of teaching become a profession in itself. The development of the departments within the National Education Association suggests this growth. The Department of Secondary School Principals is larger than the whole Association was a few years ago. It is a far cry from the so-called early supervision which consisted of an occasional visit to the school by the district trustees, to the highly trained, sympathetic, and efficient supervision of the modern school principal and his staff.

This development has been made possible by the improvement in the status and training of teachers. If teachers are to be free and effective in the larger sense—if they are really to be great technicians as well as fine and noble personalities—they must be well-trained. It is for this reason that the National Education Association has said that every teacher should have four years of training beyond the four year high school.

The growth of the teacher-training movement is most encouraging. Normal schools are becoming teachers colleges. Two year normal schools are becoming three year schools. Attendance at summer schools is increasing. During the summer of 1927, according to figures published in *The Journal of the National Education Association*, 250,000 teachers took courses in education. Study on the part of teachers in service has also grown until in cities like New York, Boston, Cleveland, and Detroit there are thousands of practicing teachers who take extension courses from the best talent in the teacher training field. Cincinnati put into operation in September a salary schedule which encourages training for all teachers through the four year level and beyond.

Directing the work of a corps of teachers such as is being built up in Cincinnati is very different from the sort of petty direction required for many teachers in rural communities who have had no professional training at all. This petty supervision, which may have been inevitable in the pioneer stages of teaching, becomes less and less necessary as teachers improve in training and working skill. Early supervision was often unwelcome because its real purpose was misunderstood both by the teacher and by the supervisor. Sometimes supervision is not kindly received because of the personality or spirit of the supervisor himself. But such cases are growing rarer as the principles of supervision are becoming better understood.

Supervision has to do with the improvement of the teaching act, the selection of organization or subjectmatter, testing and measuring, and the improvement of teachers in service. Everyone grants that the principal

aim of supervision is the improvement of teaching. This end will be accomplished by inspiring and encouraging the good teacher to further study and experimentation, and by redirecting and improving the work of the average and the poor teacher.

Good supervision has definite, well-understood standards and a well-organized program. It is essentially a cooperative procedure. It supplies the means which enable teachers to live up to the set standards and to carry out the authorized program.

One who goes about as an inspector or detective will not gain cooperation. He will never see the best work of teachers, because of the nervous strain to which he subjects them. A dictator is of no real assistance to teachers! What teachers need is inspirational leadership. Much that is superimposed is valueless. Encouragement and suggestions together with helpful demonstrations will build up a teaching morale worthy of the name.

In their supervisors, teachers hope to see the qualities they themselves should possess and more. They demand in them a certain amount of personality and enough power to inspire confidence in their professional ability. They want them to have a thorough knowledge of the art of teaching and willingness to make, occasionally at least, a carefully detailed study of a recitation before entering upon any criticism of it. In conference, teachers would have their supervisors speak sincerely, make a simple straight-forward statement of facts, and give them an opportunity to do likewise.

I must pause to make a special plea for better supervision in rural schools. In spite of our theory that every child should have a fair start in life, it is possible to find in many states of the union wonderful city schools side by side with rural schools that are utterly inadequate when measured by the needs and standards of modern life. Too often county and even state superintendents are selected for petty political reasons rather than for educational qualifications. The National Education Association has said in its resolutions that such officers should be chosen by lay boards—that they should be selected not from the small areas they are to serve, but from the best talent available anywhere in the country.

Only thus can we bring to rural schools the professional supervision which they need even more than city schools. In spite of the rich educational materials that lie at its very doors; in spite of the crying needs of rural life for a curriculum that will develop men and women able to deal with rural problems in a large way, the course of study in rural schools is in sad need of revision. Few workers are trained to undertake the task. It has been made evident by the studies of the Curriculum Commission of the Department of Superintendence that the typical high school is still the small semi-rural high school. And yet how few there are at work on its problems!

Beyond the work of the principal there is in every school system a wider direction—perhaps more accurately called administration than supervision—which concerns intimately the growth of every child and teacher. Consider for example the sweeping implication of the course of study itself—a schedule of work which largely determines all school activities.

Every educational system which tries to keep its education abreast of the needs of a rapidly changing civilization must wage a constant battle to keep its course of study flexible enough to be in accordance with the needs of the children. Courses of study reflect child needs best when they are the product of the cooperative effort of teachers and supervisors. Curriculum building has proved one of the best means yet found for training teachers in service. As such it yields advantages to the school system in ways not obtainable through other processes of supervision. It helps to train each teacher to study the problems of the individual child. It encourages them to seek a new content in education and to vitalize the old content by more effective forms of organization and interpretation. It inspires to wider vision.

Supervision once meant inspection. Later it meant petty dictation. Now it means inspiring leadership. For the masses of teachers this leadership will be associated more and more with supervising principals of broad training and fine personal character.

As van Dyke sang the praise of the unknown teacher, may I sing the praise of the unknown principal? Great superintendents plan school systems, but the principal leads and guides the teachers. He communicates his own joy in service and shares with them the treasures of his mind. He lights many candles which in later years will shine back to cheer him. This is his reward.

I have chosen to develop the meaning of supervision in this broader setting rather than in its narrower definition, because it has seemed possible thereby to emphasize the new ideals that are guiding not only school management, but also sound management in business, in industry, and in the home.

What teachers want—what we all want—most in supervision is leadership, human, constructive, inspiring. We want our leaders to be men and women of sterling character, possessed of penetrating discernment, boundless sympathy and an insatiable desire for the complete development of youth. We want them rich in experience and culture, open-minded in training, clear-eyed in purpose, embodying in their personalities high ideals of work, lofty standards of achievement and a keen dissatisfaction with less than their best.

CAN HIGH-SCHOOL SUPERVISION BE MADE SCIENTIFIC?

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High-school supervision cannot be made scientific without arduous labor. There are unfortunately some people who think that science is easy to inject into all kinds of situations. For example, a principal writes to a college professor as follows, "Our school has a six-period program; each period is 55 minutes in length. Do you think this program is too heavy for pupils of high-school age?" The college professor who gets this letter

knows that the principal who wrote it is in trouble with a local physician, or with the president and secretary of his parents' association. What the principal wants is a document that he can lay before his board with the statement that it comes from a scientific expert. There is a quieting effect on some boards of education in the words "scientific expert." The local physician is scientific; members of boards of education know about scientific business management. If the principal can get a pronouncement from someone far enough away from his town, he may be able to convince his board that he is operating under the sanction of science.

I shall not pursue this matter of the correspondence between the principal and the college professor further lest it lead to revelations which probably ought not to be made public. My purpose is served if I add the statement that no one knows whether that program is too heavy or not until he has studied the situation with sufficient care and detail to arrive at a verifiable conclusion based on facts not supplied in the off-hand letter. The get-scientific-quick method of extricating oneself from supervisory difficulty may serve the temporary purpose of quieting an aroused community, but it is not a safe or valid method for scientific control for the schools.

There are some principals who are willing to go further than to write letters to supposed experts. They go so far as to take a summer quarter course or two in the science of education. They establish themselves after these courses on the firm ground of one of the leading scientific generalizations and begin operation. There came into my hands some time ago an application for a fellowship. The applicant was a high-school principal. Among the achievements which he enumerated as entitling him to favorable consideration was one on which he laid great stress, evidently considering it a mark of the most advanced training and an evidence of his determination to be in the front rank of educational scientists. He said, "Since I came to this school, I have completely reorganized the method of marking. Every teacher in this school now follows strictly the normal curve in distributing his or her marks."

I have a vivid picture in my imagination of the way in which the teachers in that school have been browbeaten into adopting the normal curve. I can see the pride with which this enthusiastic youth looks over the bookkeeping which he has perfected and reports to the neighboring county institute the unqualified success of his efforts to bring science into a situation which was formerly conducted in utter ignorance of the findings of the best educational research.

I trust that no one will misunderstand my position. The normal curve is a most useful instrument in the hands of one who understands its value. I know of no more stimulating method of inducing teachers to study the whole problem of developing an equitable system of grading pupils than to have them compare the distribution of their own marks with those of other teachers and with the normal curve. On the other hand, I know of nothing more stupid than to dictate as a matter of invariable rule that the normal curve shall be followed rigidly by all teachers in the distribution

of their marks. The trouble with the young applicant whom I quoted is that he had too slight an acquaintance with the normal curve.

It would be possible to offer an endless number of examples of what may properly be called ignorant enthusiasm for the science of education. The latest which came to my attention was in the form of an article submitted for publication to the *School Review*. The article in question was written by a professor in a university department of modern languages. He had evidently participated in some of the testing initiated by the national commission in charge of the Modern Language Inquiry. Evidently, also, he had never heard of the long labors by which educational tests in other fields have been refined. He wrote in glowing terms of a new educational era when other subjects in the curriculum will adopt the practice which the modern languages have found to be productive, namely, the practice of judging the success or non-success of instruction by tests. He pointed out that tests will show any teacher exactly how the results secured in his class compare with results secured elsewhere. The writer of this article urged all schools and colleges to use tests. The author evidently felt it to be his duty to bring the overwhelming importance of tests to the attention of a hitherto unenlightened public. Our editorial board considered seriously publishing this article as a means of introducing a little humor into the sometimes too somber pages of the *School Review*.

There would be very little justification for the present paper if it could contribute nothing but examples of the misuse of the science of education. I have ventured to report such cases as I have cited because I believe the science of education is in critical need of a kind of support which the great body of administrators do not fully understand. The science of education requires at this moment the expenditure of an enormous amount of energy. The science of education is understaffed and undersupported. The number of workers who are attempting to carry on educational research is pitifully small and wholly inadequate to the demands. I have thought of this occasion as a strategic opportunity to make a plea for a new type of support for the scientific study of high-school problems. I shall try to persuade you that the high schools of this country must think of their task in a new way. I shall try to convince you that it is expedient and economical for high schools to become centers for the scientific study of the problems of adolescent education.

Let me be concrete. I remember some years ago visiting the New York City High School of Commerce when the late Mr. Shepard was principal. There was a record in the principal's office of the activities of each of the teachers in the school. The record showed what subjects the teachers taught, how many pupils were in each class, how many pupils passed and failed, and so on. There was one item in the record which interested me very much. It showed how many pupils in each class elected a related subject during the year following instruction by a given teacher. I was interested in this item because it revealed very clearly the fact that some teachers influenced their pupils positively while others did not. I recall

that there was one teacher of mathematics whose pupils in large percentage went on with advanced courses in that field and that there was another teacher working under almost identical conditions as to subjects of instruction and numbers of pupils whose influence was almost zero as shown by subsequent elections.

It required some energy to compile the records to which I have referred and there were a number of items on which information was collected year after year which did not seem to be as significant as the one which I selected for special comment. The energy required for the compiling of the record undoubtedly lessened the amount of time which someone could expend in supervising extracurriculum activities or in holding conferences with parents or teachers or in performing some of the other duties which principals ordinarily think of as normal routine. I do not hesitate, however, to assert that such careful and complete records kept in every school in this country would give an objectivity and precision to high-school supervision which are at present largely lacking.

Why is there so little work done in high-school offices in the preparation and study of scientific material on which supervision is to be based? We all know the excuse commonly offered. It is said that there are no funds available for such records. Or it is said that the principal is so fully occupied that he cannot find time to think of such matters.

At the risk of making a statement that will not be palatable to some of the members of my audience, I shall say what I believe to be true and I shall depend on your good nature to hear me through in the hope that we may ultimately part on amicable terms. It is my firm conviction that the reason high schools are not scientifically conducted is not that resources or time are lacking, but that high-school principals are as a class uninterested in scientific methods of investigation. It is my belief that if principals were scientifically minded, they could persuade communities to provide the necessary energy to put high-school education on a thoroughly sound and valid basis.

In making this assertion, I do not for a moment overlook the fact that the high-school principals of this country are a highly educated and highly intelligent group. Many of them are thoroughly grounded in literature and history and some are productive scholars in mathematics and physics. They were, in many instances, transferred overnight from the field in which they were doing effective work as teachers and were transformed into principals without being changed internally in any respect. The result is that they do their thinking, when they indulge in that higher form of intellectual exercise, in the fields of literature or physics and they carry on their activities as supervisory and administrative officers with no more special skill than would be brought to the task by ordinary men.

What I am saying does not imply that these non-scientific principals are failures in conducting their schools. Quite the contrary, many of them are men of such good sense that they find what seem to be in most instances adequate solutions for the problems which arise among teachers and pupils.

The solutions which are adequate are, however, seldom of the type that can be defended as well founded on scientific grounds. The high schools of this country are, for the most part, conducted with the best of intentions and with a high degree of success, but by methods which are only vaguely defined and often quite tentative and fluctuating.

The remedy for the present situation does not lie in mere individual change of attitude. If some principal becomes aware of the necessity of finding scientifically defensible grounds for his action, he immediately discovers that he is an isolated individual. There is very meager information about the practices of high schools in general to which reference can be made by any individual who begins to study high-school problems.

Let me cite a few cases in point. It has recently been said of American high schools that they administer curriculums which are "ropes of sand." This rhetorical phrase is, I admit, somewhat vague. I am interested in emphasizing the fact that when one begins to refute the charge, one finds in the literature of high-school supervision very little definite material with which to answer or confirm what is said. An answer from a single school is inadequate. We ought to know much more than we now know in a definite way about the extent to which the studies pursued by individual high-school pupils really weave themselves into coherent curriculums.

Again one hears the statement that there is here and there an oversupply of teachers. What constitutes an oversupply? How does an oversupply in one city—assuming that it exists—affect the supply in other centers?

Additional examples of uncertainty in regard to the conduct of schools appear when one tries to find out what are the relations of a high-school principal to the city superintendent of schools. Or what are the relations of a principal to his teachers in such matters as the determination of the methods which shall be followed in the classrooms, in the disposition of disciplinary cases, and in so fundamental a matter as initial appointment.

There must be broad general principles to which appeal can be made in dealing with matters of the various types mentioned. These broad general principles cannot be ascertained through purely personal endeavor. The profession must address itself as a body to the study and scientific solution of the general problems of high-school administration and supervision. A thoroughgoing science of education will be possible only when cooperation is established on a sufficiently broad scale to supply a vast body of energy and full use of the facilities for experimentation furnished by all high schools.

At the present time there are a few men in scattered university centers, in state departments of education, and in a few isolated high schools who are carrying on studies on the margin of time left after performing other duties. Each man does a small piece of work periodically and timidly publishes his results. The stream of common practice flows on very little affected by these side eddies. The magnitude of the educational enterprise is enormously great; the magnitude of the scientific output is relatively insignificant.

Very often scientific research is seriously limited by the fact that the man who would be interested in carrying on the research is without the authority necessary to permit the work. Colléges of education have tried in many instances to secure opportunities for scientific work by organizing schools under their own control. Individual investigators have often found themselves so entangled in red tape and so inhibited by tradition that they have been completely blockaded in their inquiries.

The fact is that schools are organized as operating concerns. Means for the study and criticism of school operations have not been provided as a part of the routine. This appears in the fact that an ordinary principal of a middle sized high school has more distracting duties than would be assigned in industry to any kind of supervisory officer. While industry has learned to set up well-equipped laboratories and to guide its activities by the exercise of the most drastic scrutiny of its results, schools have been asked by the public to use every ounce of available energy in operation. If fifty new pupils come to a high school, the board of education may employ a new teacher, but it will certainly not think of providing an assistant to the principal. Among new pupils there may be problem cases which call for careful diagnosis; some of the pupils may come ill prepared and be, for this reason, in need of special attention; they may be undecided in their interests and in need of training of a type not commonly provided in the school. Does the community supply expertly trained research people to study the fifty new pupils? Not at all. It is commonly believed that the principal who is now dealing with seven hundred pupils can take on fifty more without any recognition of the fact that his duties have been increased.

The public is not wholly to blame for its attitude. Very few principals have ever asked for facilities with which to make a careful study of teachers and pupils and the public does not know that teachers and pupils need to be studied. I must repeat in substance what I said a few moments ago. The profession must become scientifically minded or the schools will continue to be supervised on the basis of purely personal judgments.

Since I have urged the profession to take up scientific studies, it may be thought that it is my duty to outline plans which will insure the achievement of the end which I have advocated. I have several concrete suggestions to offer.

First, I suggest that high-school principals develop as frequent opportunities as they can for conferences with one another regarding the problems which they encounter and regarding successful devices for meeting these problems. Principals in neighboring communities could very advantageously meet at least once a month and ask one another regarding such a matter as their respective methods of judging teachers. President Eliot is said to have formed his judgments regarding the teaching ability of members of the Harvard faculty by reading the examination questions which these teachers set for their classes. A canvass of the school supervisors of the country would undoubtedly bring to light a number of other useful plans. My colleague Morrison has suggested that the extent to which a teacher

holds the attention of his or her class is an objective indication of the degree of the teacher's success. Principals could well afford to spend much time and energy gathering suggestions of this type.

Another question which principals might discuss in conference is the question of how far the results of tests are to be used in rating teachers. I know one great school system which holds that the results of tests are not proper bases for the rating of teachers. It is argued that the individual teacher is not responsible for the kind of pupils that are sent to his or her class through promotion, nor for the curriculum which is required to be administered. Why, then, should the classroom teacher be responsible for the results of tests? It is the obligation of the central officer to adjust matters if pupils are found to be deficient. In direct contrast with the attitude of the school system to which I have just referred is that of another system where the curriculum is assumed to be correctly standardized and where promotion is thought of as properly adjusted. In this second system, teachers are rated strictly in accordance with the showings made by their pupils on the tests arranged in the central office. I can think of nothing that would furnish a more appropriate theme for a principal's conference than the problems suggested by this contrast in attitudes on the value of tests.

In suggesting that principals meet and discuss such questions as those proposed, I am not assuming that the science of education will be directly advanced by the early meetings. I am confident, however, that after men have discussed such questions, there will very soon develop an interest in supervisory problems which will inspire the participants in the discussion to seek objective evidence on which to base decisions and practices. There will begin to appear a scientific mind which is essential to participation in the productive study of school problems.

My second suggestion is made in the belief that a scientific attitude once established will seek and find means of promoting widespread research. I suggest that principals go about the task of converting boards of education and the public to an understanding of the fact that decisions about school policy should be reached in the light of facts. We are in a period of serious jeopardy to school interests. The expenditures for schools have come to be so vast that all kinds of sinister forces are beginning to seek places in the councils of public control of education. Conscientious educators are so busy with their daily tasks that they seldom take the time to show the public the real character and complexity of school supervision and management. The result is that the public consumes the energy of school officers in meeting trivial demands. The public seems blind to the fact that absorption in petty details interferes with the real interests of pupils. The principal of a high school who with sensitive conscience gives all his time to answering miscellaneous office callers is not really serving the public as he should. As the leader of the school, the principal ought to take time to plan for the development of the institution and he ought to devise ways of convincing the public that he is

serving them when he works behind closed doors. The principal ought to prepare reports which will keep the public reading.

In direct line with this suggestion is another of like import. The public ought to pay for expert research assistance in every school. There is nothing so convincing to the public as a draft on its purse. The public will not understand and appreciate educational research until it has paid for it. At present, the public pays most of its money for teaching and appropriates only a small amount for supervision. The public pays outside of the schools a great deal for science. I have waited in the outer office of my oculist, as I dare say the rest of you have done, and I have contemplated with respect the difficulty of securing his services and the amounts which he is likely to charge me. I have noted the eagerness with which people await their turns. He is a scientist. When he decides that I do thus and so, I do it. I have been unable on occasions when holding such meditations with myself to avoid contrasting the way in which the scientist disposes of people with the way in which people impose on educators. I repeat what I said a moment ago. The public must be taught to pay for expert research of high-school problems. I suggest that every high school with ten members on its faculty employ an expert to gather information about teachers, pupils, and curriculum. The public is getting less education for its present investment than it should. The public deserves to have its educational problems subjected to the most critical study. Let us give the public what it needs.

One of the chief reasons why a school should be supplied with time for scientific study of its problems is that records may be kept which will make possible comparisons of different schools with one another. One of the most striking indictments against the high schools of this country is that they demand of the colleges that credentials of graduates shall be asked for only on uniform blanks, but they do not, so far as I know, exhibit the slightest interest in uniformity of records in any other connection. High schools have their private methods of registering pupils, of reporting grades, of keeping account of discipline, of crediting extracurriculum activities, and of recording the activities of teachers.

The financial officers of schools long ago discovered the advantages of comparisons which are made possible because of the existence of uniform methods of bookkeeping. Principals seem to be wholly unaware of these advantages. The highest ambition of each high-school principal seems to be to invent a new blank on which academic records are to be recorded. I know a great city in which the high schools of the single system are so divided in their practices with regard to records that scientific studies through comparison are impossible, even if there were anyone in that system interested in the science of education.

The high-school principals of this country will some day keep uniform cumulative records of their schools. Even a change in administration will not result in a destruction of records or a break in the continuity of standard information. The profession as a whole will dictate as a

matter first of response to the demand for public information and second as a contribution to scientific studies that academic officers do as well as financial officers and as well as the best public utility corporations. It is an astonishing fact that it is impossible in many high schools to ascertain what courses of study were offered ten years ago and even more impossible to find out how many pupils elected certain subjects four years ago. The state of public high-school records is chaotic beyond all possible defense.

My next suggestion is a negative one but it is offered with all the emphasis that I can put into words. High-school principals should not expect educational science to be brought to them in the form of simple rules of conduct which are merely to be followed. Projects are undoubtedly good when they are genuine, but there are times when school work cannot be cast in the project mould. New type examinations are very useful when one wants an objective measure of the extent to which pupils have absorbed one hundred items of information. There are occasions, however, when an examination should test the pupil's ability to formulate a train of ideas into a coherent discussion. On such occasions, the new type examinations should not be used. He who is truly master of scientific research will not think of projects and new type examinations as devices to be used without discrimination. Science is above all analytical and discriminating. He who would use science must become critical and discriminating in his own personal thinking. The science of education is a stimulating body of thought. It is not a series of rules to be slavishly followed.

I picture to myself the future principal of a high school, the man who fulfils in the most complete measure the injunction to approach his task as a scientist should. This man will be equipped with such information as others have collected and made available in educational literature. He will know the types of pupils who have been measured and described through tests and laboratory experiments. He will understand the various learning processes by which pupils respond to instruction in different departments. He will be acquainted with the discoveries that have been made in regard to methods of teaching. He will be familiar with the devices of supervision used by his fellow principals. He will be employed by a board of education who will say to him that it is not his duty to cater to the wishes of every parent and teacher. He will have time to use his scientific training and he will approach each of the large problems that confront him as his professional colleagues, the doctor, the lawyer, and the engineer approach their problems. He will have a reasonable number of assistants and he will be responsible for results of a superior type.

I am frank to say that I do not expect to find this type of principal where men have been catapulted late in life into supervisory office after spending their best years specializing on Virgil, or physics. I expect to see the principalships of this country occupied by men trained in the methods of scientific supervision. Then supervision will become scientific

exactly as all the other modern undertakings have become scientific because they are in the hands of competent men who have learned that success depends on the collection of objective facts, on the derivation of broad principles of action from these facts and on the discriminating application of these principals to the emergencies of practical life.

THE WORK OF THE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT

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We are completing a comprehensive analysis of the duties of administrative offices, including those of the different types of superintendents and principals. We have read 1167 books and articles written in the field of administration, and have drawn from them all the activities that are mentioned in them. We have collected by correspondence a list of duties from over 1000 administrators, and have utilized all the analytical studies that have been included. From all these sources, we have gathered together approximately 18,000 statements of activities including duplicates.

The following are a few illustrations of the activities as handled by us: Accompanying the board of directors through the school; addressing teachers; addressing Y. M. C. A. organizations on the value of the high "Y" to the school; assigning playground activities to teachers; substituting for a teacher during illness; participating in campaigns for the chamber of commerce.

Upon these duties we centered the processes of classification, and as we did so, we found that we might use either one of two types of classification—the structural or the functional. The first of these types of classification deals with the thing, the object, the materials, the people with which the administrator works. Roughly speaking, they are the nouns in the sentences. So upon this basis it is possible to classify all duties under the nouns and secure such headings as parents, pupils, teachers, schedules, attendance, records, truant officer, athletics, games, and courses of study. We have collected over 5000 things with which the administrator deals. With these concepts selected as the major divisions of the analysis, we then proceed to classify and list the activities that the administrator carries on in connection with, or by means of, these objects. To illustrate: When we use such a term as pupils, we find that the administrator accompanies pupils, addresses groups of pupils, adjusts difficulties in connection with pupils, admits them, advises them, awards honors to them, commends effort, and disciplines. By this procedure we are able to set forth all the parts of the school and community machinery, and in a complete survey, we can tell what the administrator's active relations are with each of these.

On the other hand, we might resort to a functional analysis, in which case, we consider the activities that the administrator performs, and classify those, according to type. From this point of view, we find that

he accepts general responsibility, accords support, he advises, arouses interest, assigns, beautifies, constructs, distributes, employs, formulates, finances, and trains. These you will see, are roughly the verbs in the sentences which express the activities.

Then when we proceed to an analysis of the next level, we have a sub-classification of the objects of the activities. For instance, he accompanies boards of education, parents, pupils, teachers, school officers, visitors, and community officials to various places.

I do not have time this morning to describe in detail the nuances of this analysis. Rather, I must stop with the approximate statement that it is possible to have a structural analysis by paying attention to the nouns, or a functional analysis by paying attention to the verbs. In one case, the nouns are made major, the verbs minor; in the other case, the activities as verbs are major, and the objects as nouns are minor.

When we made the functional analysis we discovered that the activities of administrators were expressed in the canvassed sources in terms of verbs, or activities, and these when classified can be condensed into a list of 87 type activities. It is unnecessary to introduce a complete list because the verbs will be published later. But a sample of the first 15 verbs will be given. These run as follows: Accepting general responsibility for; accompanying persons; according support to; acting as official in contest; addressing groups; adjusting difficulties between people; adjusting difficulties relating to school procedure; admitting pupils; advising; announcing matters of interest; arousing interest; arranging materials; articulating activities; assigning duties; attending to correspondence.

It may seem at first glance that the selection of one or the other type of classification is a matter of little moment. But on more careful thought, the fact is revealed that the picture of the administrator's job is changed if we shift the type of analysis from structure to function.

This can be best illustrated by a consideration of two types of courses that might be offered for administrators. First, the usual professional textbook in the schools of administration is organized on a structural basis, and deals with such topics as the state school system, the county school system, city school district, boards of education, superintendents, the teaching corps, the courses of study, tests, the health department, attendance, the library, costs, records, and reports. The list of these headings indicates clearly that if the administrator covers the text, he deals with one part, or object, or instrument, of the school system after another in serial order, and presumably under each as a minor topic he considers the activities that the administrator carries on with each.

As a result of this arrangement major attention is given to the structure and only minor attention is and can be given to the activities, since there is a limit to the size of volumes and length of courses. Consequently, very little attention is paid to the technics of the activities which the administrator carries on in connection with each of the structural units of the school system.

If now, we turn to the other approach through the activities, we find a quite different situation, and in the last analysis, a different content to the courses. So different is this content that I think the course should have a different name, and perhaps should be called the technics of administrators activities, or if the less comprehensive view were taken of the course, it might be dubbed the psychology of school administration. In such a course I should want to consider each type activity in terms of five headings. We would obviously want to know what the objectives of the activities are, what are the standards by which successful performance is measured, the difficulties encountered in carrying on the activities, the solutions for these difficulties that have been worked out by administrators, and the principles upon which these administrative measures are based, where any principles are discoverable.

Let me put some flesh upon this skeleton. First, we shall consider the simple activity called accompanying. Here we find that the administrator accompanies boards of education, parents, pupils, visitors, and so forth. If I were considering this question as a unit in a course on the technics of administrative activities, I should want to inquire, first, "What is the object of accompanying teachers, or pupils, or boards of education?" Why should the superintendent spend time doing that or in having it done by a subordinate? We shall have a discussion of the reasons for there are a variety which influence the superintendent's technic in carrying on this activity. He may want to accompany school visitors, for instance, from motives of vanity to show how efficient his school is, for unbiased and searching criticisms from visitors, or to illustrate a principle in which he believes. And the objective definitely influences the procedure that he follows in carrying out the activities.

Second, it is important for him to have criteria by which to know whether it has been worthwhile to carry on this activity. What are the signs by which he will know whether or not he has properly impressed his visitors, or has secured the criticisms that he wanted, or has put the principle across? Without constantly measuring his activities by substantial criteria, the superintendent cannot be sure which of his efforts pay and which do not.

Third, he should then be interested in finding out what difficulties he encounters in accompanying persons. They may be lack of time, lack of intelligent interest on the part of the visitors and so forth. Obviously, it is important to know what these difficulties are, if one wishes to be efficient in carrying on the activity. If it is worthwhile for a superintendent to accompany visitors, he needs to study the technics in order to discover the causes of the poor trips. Fourth, when these difficulties have been located, it would be of interest to know how the difficulties can be eliminated. How, for instance, is it possible so to handle intelligent visitors that the superintendent will feel that his accompanying was successful? Or how can he find the time? From many sources this information can be collected, partly from the books, but chiefly from the experience of

other administrators who have met the same problem. Finally, I should like my young administrator to know the principles of psychology and sociology which are applied in the use of successful methods of accompanying people.

The foregoing example illustrates a quite simple and unimportant activity of an administrator, but the same treatment can be applied with equal facility to more complicated and significant activities. For instance, one of the activities the satisfactory performance of which marks an efficient administrator is securing the confidence of the school community; and here again, the same five rubrics are applied. We inquire, first, "Why secure the confidence of the school community?" and the number of objectives can be listed. The administrator may wish to secure this confidence for the good of the school or for his own personal advancement, even, specifically, for having his salary raised. We should want to know also the criteria by which the successful securing of confidence is known. When can a superintendent feel that he has secured the confidence of the school community? This is a very important and crucial question, and for it he should have definite criteria. Quite clearly, it would be worthwhile to consider the causes that lead to lack of confidence on the part of the individual. This diagnosis is fundamental to successful administrative work. When these causes have been discovered, it would be necessary to collect methods of removing this lack of confidence and substituting for it a wholesome attitude of approval and good will. Finally, it would be very important for the administrator to have a knowledge of the principles of psychology and of ethics which lie beneath the methods of securing the confidence of a school community.

May I be permitted to give another illustration? The administrator has to secure official consideration of important matters by the school board. According to the treatment that I have outlined, he would ask why he needs to have official consideration given to matters, and the answer to this is easy. The criteria by which he can judge of the success of the effort are likewise simple. But when we come to a consideration of the difficulties encountered, we are dealing with a much more complicated subject. Yet the topic is important because the activities of many administrators are seriously hampered by the failure to get official consideration. The board may be indifferent, dilatory, opposed to the superintendent, or even possibly dishonest. Then, when these possibilities are canvassed, it will be of equal value to find out how one can know the methods that are used to get action out of an indifferent board, or one that puts off action, or one that is opposed to the superintendent, or one that is dishonest. Finally, again, we should want the administrator to know whatever principles of conduct can be applied in a case such as this.

I maintain that these are vital problems to which too little attention is given in our courses for administrators.

The administrator likewise advises. There it is again important to know why he should advise in a particular case, and how much advice should

be given. If he has to give much advice, he ought to know whether his advice is sufficiently successful for it to be worthwhile for him to continue to give it. It would be very valuable for him likewise to canvass the difficulties encountered in giving advice. He may find difficulties in the sensitiveness of the person seeking advice, lack of intelligence, background, and unwillingness to follow the advice. Then, he will be greatly benefited by a discussion of the technics for giving advice successfully. Many of us frequently feel that much of the advice we give is wasted, and if we are quite efficient we may decide to restrict the amount that is given in the future. Again, there are principles of psychology which may help in guiding us in our operations.

The administrator does not carry on the activity of commending effort as much perhaps as he should. Yet, it is one of the duties of administrators, and as such is worthy of more or less careful attention. Here again, we would inquire into the objectives of commending effort. Some of us feel that it has to be handled with great care for fear we commend too generously. Others by nature feel that commendation is not necessary. But serious consideration needs to be given to the question of what and how much commendation should be given, and for what purposes. This we follow by a consideration of the criteria for such an activity. We may commend, for instance, to promote morale, create happiness, and stimulate effort. If it does not do these things, or accomplish other acceptable results, it is not successful. It is important to consider the difficulties, the handicaps, in the way of giving commendation, due to the personal peculiarities of either the one commended or the one commending. Undoubtedly, it is a matter of quite considerable importance to know the technics for commending effort efficiently. Sometimes commendation on the part of some individuals seems to be insulting to the one who is being praised. Often, it is tactless and ungracious, and frequently lacking in charm. Sometimes, it is too obvious and at other times too subtle. Any consideration of these technics would be greatly strengthened by the intelligent use of the principles of psychology.

I might continue these illustrations indefinitely to cover the whole round of type activities, but that is unnecessary. I might have ceased with the first illustration, but I have given others because I want to get clearly across the differences between structural treatment in conventional courses, and this functional treatment which I advocate. I believe that if the material has been properly presented, the audience will agree with me that there is something to be gained by a course such as this, for, as has been said, in the structural treatment, the activities are treated incidentally, and time is not given for the development of their technics. In a course with this functional organization, the technics are made prominent, and an opportunity is given to describe them in detail, with the result, I believe that an administrator who has studied his activities from the functional angle, either in class or on the job, and has discovered resourceful methods of handling them, will be in a better position to handle the activities than

he would be had he merely studied the structure of his tasks and given only incidental consideration to these activities which he applied in handling them.

I am not advocating the substitution of the functional treatment for the structural treatment. As a matter of fact, the textbooks which are built on the structural basis describe some of their activities and have a combination of structural and functional treatment. Indeed, the list of activities which we have organized has some traces of both. But I am firmly convinced that the art of administering school systems would be greatly benefited by an attack from the functional point of view, at least as a supplement to the structural attack.

My reasons for proposing this approach to administrative activities are easily summarized. In the first place, the performance of activities is crucial. Superintendents rise and fall on their ability to perform these effectively. In the second place, the only conditions under which these technics can be learned at present is on the job by trial and error, and supplemented by occasional advice from experienced superintendents. In the third place, while the specific methods to be used in overcoming the specific difficulties are for the most part unrecorded, it is easily possible, with the research technics already available, to collect, organize, and interpret them. No technical difficulties need to be encountered in collecting the material. Time and clerical help are the only consideration. In the fourth place, from these and other sources, a body of general principles to be used in carrying out these activities will emerge; and finally, while skill in administration is made artistic only on the job, the fundamental principles can be presented with profit to administrators in courses in teacher training institutions.

Botany and zoology have in the recent past swung from the structural to the functional approach. Thirty years ago we studied the parts of plants—root, stems, and leaves. Today, we study reproduction, osmosis, and nutrition. And it is possible that with the analysis that is now being prepared, an impetus will be given to a similar shift in administration from the materials and people with which the superintendent deals to a corresponding consideration of the activities that he carries on.

THE QUALIFICATIONS OF THE PROFESSIONAL SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS

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The topic assigned me assumes that school superintendence is a profession.

What do we mean by a profession? Dean James E. Russell defined a profession as "a vocation in which specialized knowledge is applied rationally, skilfully, and ethically in the affairs of men." Professor George Palmer of Harvard defined a profession as "an occupation entered upon after a long and vigorous preparation—maintains definite standards, and

gives unmeasured service." These are the two most satisfactory definitions of a profession we have found. One classifies a profession as a vocation, the other as an occupation; both agree substantially in the differentiation in the latter part of the definition.

In our discussion then we may assume that the professional superintendent has acquired special training for that work; that he has had long and vigorous preparation; that he will apply his knowledge rationally, skillfully, and ethically; that he maintains definite standards and gives unmeasured service to the community in which he works.

Other professions meet these requirements. The exceptional lawyers maintain that a satisfactory lawyer should have four years of collegiate training followed by four years in the law school and two years in an efficient law office before he can really become a practitioner.

One of the leading physicians of the Middle West stated to me only a few days ago that his son was preparing to practise medicine, that he must put in ten years before entering upon this practice—obtaining his Bachelor of Arts degree in Harvard University, taking four years of medicine and two years of interne-ship.

Superintendence differs from teaching. We must understand that the work of the superintendent of schools differs from the work of the teacher in school. The work of the principal is different from the work of the teacher as many elementary principals will bear witness.

A great superintendent of this country said to me less than a year ago that the superintendency of a public school system was ten times more difficult than that of the president of a university. He may have been wrong. I recall a statement in one of our leading magazines to the effect that one president of the United States seemed to find the work of the chief executive of this country rather easy in normal times in comparison to that of being the president of a great university. What then may be said of the superintendency? The successful administration of a public school system, with its multiplicity of duties and the difficulties incident thereto, is an opportunity worthy of the ability and of the ingenuity of those most ambitious.

No attempt will be made to give all the qualifications necessary for so difficult a position but to suggest in mere outline a few that seem to be fundamentally essential.

We use qualification in the broad sense as meaning "any endowment which fits a person for a place or an office"—here, superintendent of schools.

Scholarship—The superintendent of schools should be well qualified in scholarship. It may not be possible for him to be a profound scholar as he pursues his profession with the multiplicity of its duties and entanglements. But he should possess that scholarship which merits and maintains the respect of his associates in work—teachers, principals, supervisors, and deans.

No one should undertake to be a superintendent of schools who does not have a mentality that will compare favorably with the best of those with whom he is associated in his own school system and those in the community where he works with the mentalities in other professions. Such data are available to show in general (some exceptions, of course) that a man's success in business and professional life has a rather definite correlation with the standard of scholarship he demonstrated in his collegiate training, that there is also a satisfactory correlation between his work as a high-school pupil, as a college student, and in the professional school.

Past-President Thwing, the "historian of higher education in America," states that he has found no exception in the records of any American college to the general rule that those who "achieve most before graduation are likely to achieve most after graduation."

A careful study was made about ten years ago of the success of the class of 1894, Harvard University. A committee of three carefully-chosen men selected twenty-three men of marked success in this class, then chose twenty-three men at random from the same class. This committee then secured the undergraduate grades of the several men thus selected. "To the credit of the successful men were 196 A's, to the credit of the other men, only 56." (Foster, *Harpers Magazine*, Vol. 133, page 615).

Caution: One must be careful, however, that his academic training does not spoil his education.

Background—The professional superintendent should have a wide background of knowledge, information, experience, and contact. Says one, "To be professional requires a superior education."

He must not only possess specialized knowledge of his own specific work, but must be able to meet men in other occupations and professions, confer with them, with some degree of intelligence regarding their own interests; he must be a fair conversationalist, a good listener with some knowledge of music, art, and dramatics, with a good basic knowledge of literature and literary activities, such as will make him a satisfactory member of the several types of social groups.

He must be able to meet professional, industrial, commercial, and financial men and women in such a way that he may secure and maintain their respect.

The necessity for a good background of knowledge and experience in the successful operation of any undertaking is well illustrated in the life of a great insurance salesman, Doctor C. E. Albright, who in twenty-one years paid for 45 million dollars worth of life insurance in his own company and at the same time placed large amounts in other companies. He was an honor student of the Rush Medical College, assistant medical examiner for a well-known insurance company for fourteen years. He was a constant student of men and methods, applying the scientific spirit to this part of the insurance work during his fourteen years of service

as an assistant medical examiner. When he definitely decided to enter the selling side of insurance, he resigned, spent a year and a half in Europe getting a broader background so that he could more easily meet the type of people to whom he wanted to sell life insurance. If an insurance salesman finds it necessary to have this broad background of which I speak, how much more should the professional superintendent of a city school system strive to get the background which will enable him to render the highest type of service? Doctor Albright has found it valuable in his business as an insurance salesman to be associated with members of the board of directors of many large financial institutions. Such a connection, even in a small way, is valuable to the city superintendent.

Knowing the job—It is a fundamental principle of any business or profession that one must know his job. No board of directors would entrust a bank to a manager who was not familiar with the banking business; no manufacturer would think of appointing one to the head of a department in his factory who did not know thoroughly the work of that department; and no board of directors would think of appointing a man president of a great railway system who did not know the railroad business. You would not select one as a salesmanager who had not had experience in salesmanship. And so you would not think of appointing one as a superintendent of a school system who is not familiar with the principles of teaching, who did not understand supervision, who is not familiar with school construction, school equipment, the organization and direction of people.

The school superintendent should be a constant student of the work of executives in other lines of endeavor. He can learn from the banker, the manufacturer, the railroad executive, the insurance director, the department-store manager. He should be a keen observer, a willing learner, a careful practitioner.

The importance of knowing thoroughly the job of the superintendent is emphasized by a number of my coworkers whom I asked to write me directly giving the ten most important qualifications of the professional superintendent. More than half of these superintendents indicated the importance of knowledge of the job. Eight of the ten points given by one superintendent commenced with the statement "a knowledge of." Four answers of another superintendent and three of the third were based on knowledge of the job.

You would be interested in the kind of knowledge that was suggested by coworkers. The types of knowledge considered necessary by these superintendents are—

Knowledge of—1. School finance, buildings, equipment, supplies; 2. organization; 3. the aims, ideals and goals of education from the elementary through the senior high school; 4. a grasp of the specific objectives of the American public school; 5. technic and methods; 6. principles underlying curriculum and instruction; 7. budgetary procedure; 8. child accounting.

Courage—The professional superintendent must have that courage which is begotten of a knowledge of his work, a student of the problems incident to his profession, not arbitrary, not dictatorial, not seeking vain and personal glory; but courage resulting from a careful analysis of the problems that confront him and the cultivation of a judicial-mindedness—the courage that will enable him after data are collected, organized, and conclusions reached, to march forward toward the goal, remembering that the world steps aside for the individual who knows where he is going. He should have then “no fear, no cowardice, no flinching under-fire.” Such courage is the heart of ethics.

I do not believe that a man can be truly ethical in his profession without courage. He should have that courage to resist being unfair or taking advantage of ignorance, inexperience, innocence, or stupidity. He must ever remember that in the beginning right is seldom always on one side, therefore he should be open-minded, willing to listen and evaluate the suggestions of others. It sometimes takes more courage to acknowledge that you are wrong than to maintain that you are right.

You may have acquired in life the habit of always having your own way. It is barely possible that you might make a mistake. It takes fine courage to crush such a habit and quietly, unheralded, and unsung gain the victory over self—and this suggests another attribute of the superintendent—selfcontrol.

Selfcontrol—Not infrequently the attitude taken by irate parents, meddlesome propagandists, unfair taxation leagues, unscrupulous members of boards of education, unwise enthusiasts for a good cause, test the temper and control of the most philosophic, the most optimistic; but if you can be calm, maintain peace, quiet, an element of reserve, reasonable silence, and firm selfcontrol, the chances are in your favor.

Power of resistance—The superintendent of schools should have power to resist “purblind enthusiasts” who wish to have the school program set aside in order that opportunity may be given to promote personal propaganda, and keen, clever, astute commercial organizations, which, realizing the value of the schools as powerful advertising medium, insinuate themselves into the schools under a pretense of educational contributions which these organizations are making to society.

Human nature—The prince of poets, the greatest of dramatists, is credited with having had a profound knowledge of human nature. No qualification of the superintendent is more important than a knowledge and understanding of people.

It was said of Goethe that he did not follow the regular course of study in his college life but that he did attain what was more important to him—knowledge of men.

You will recall that in the first twelve months of the World War, America was asked to furnish munitions for France and England. Edward R. Stettinius was chairman of the commission which undertook the task of making a survey of the plants in this country to find out which ones

could most rapidly and efficiently manufacture munitions. A survey was made of steel plants, automobile plants, locomotive works, etc. The conclusion reached was that we should be guided less by the nature of the plant than by the character of the men at the head of the plant; personnel is more important than machinery and equipment; men are more important than material; it is not a question of tools, but of brains and character. The commission of which Mr. Stettinius was the head proceeded on the theory that $97\frac{1}{2}$ percent of the efficiency of any plant lies in its men and $2\frac{1}{2}$ percent in bricks, mortar, and machinery.

When Alfred Smith was president of the New York Central Railroad he stated that 95 percent of the efficiency of any organization was in its men and not more than 5 percent in materials, machinery, and equipment. What better evidence would you want than this?

The superintendent needs to know and understand people. He must select and assign teachers, principals, supervisors, and directors. There is no member of the personnel of the organization who is not either directly or indirectly responsible to the superintendent.

He must work with parents and pupils, members of the board of education, with leaders in social, civic, and economic life of the city. With all due respect and with the utmost consideration for members of boards of education who are sincerely devoted to their work and serve ably in this capacity, the superintendent should be able to know something about what the members of his board will be thinking a year hence. He should know their interests and tendencies, their hobbies, and sometimes their follies.

Due credit is given to an assistant superintendent of schools who recommends that the superintendent should be most careful in the selection of his wife—that he should select as his life companion one who would be so brilliant and tactful that apparently she hears nothing, knows nothing, and says nothing about schools. Probably the idea in the mind of this assistant superintendent was that what one does not say does not get him into entangling alliances, or perhaps the thought was that gossip is the most dangerous trait of human beings.

Personal—Men and women forgive some of the shortcomings of the superintendent but they are not likely to forgive one who is not capable of managing his own personal affairs so that he meets his financial obligations and pays his honest debts.

The superintendent is expected to be honest, fair, and just in his dealings with pupil, teacher, patron, or member of the board of education. The same qualifications should be met in the management of his personal affairs and his business life.

The superintendent of schools is recognized as a leader in his community. He should make a good personal appearance. While clothes may not make the man, they evidence to some degree one's tendency. The superintendent should acquire fairly good taste in clothes, in manners, in language, and in social standards. The community is entitled to a

cultured leader—one who does not deviate decidedly from recognized standards of culture.

An eminent member of your own organization suggests that the superintendent should be well born, that he should have or acquire habits of good breeding, engaging manners, refined speech, and freedom from pedantic conceit. Another states that he should have liberal culture, high ideals and a pleasing manner, acquired by extensive association with people of culture and refinement, a third that the superintendent should be generous-minded and have "an unselfish desire to serve humanity and wherewithal to endure contumacy, suffer defeat, and see without envy others no abler win financial success and greater esteem." He should devote himself unselfishly to the cause of education and to the welfare of the community of which he is a part.

An organizer—A professional superintendent should have a thorough knowledge of the best methods of organization. Good organization spells economy of time and economy of effort for the members of the personnel constituting the organization—obtaining maximum results with a minimum of effort.

Organization is not for the day or the week or the month alone, but for the year and indeed the better organization, for five or ten years ahead, perhaps more. It is as necessary to budget your time as to budget your income.

As an organizer, the superintendent will surround himself with able associates, assign them to jobs for which they are especially fitted, have them proceed with authority, and give them responsibility.

The good organizer does constructive thinking, makes careful plans, appreciates the efforts of others, discriminates between the essentials and non-essentials, and keeps faith with the organization.

Leadership—We have already mentioned leadership as a requisite qualification of the professional superintendent. May we suggest a few characteristics of good leadership.

1. A leader should have the ability
 - a. To think through an idea and reduce it to written form;
 - b. To present orally, concisely, and definitely what he has thought out—to speak fairly well.
2. He should have mental alertness—a moving mind, moving to new thoughts. Mental inertia does not produce leadership.
3. He must know his business well and be open-minded and always willing to learn more about it.
4. He must have the courage of his convictions.
5. He must be a man of action. A man who is doing something all the time and is right most of the time will get much accomplished.
6. He must have what someone has called "the gift of people." Possibly the biggest problem of life is getting on well with associates, making proper human contacts.
7. He must have the ability of getting others to think as he thinks, to see as he sees them, and to act accordingly.
8. The leader must accept responsibility, to be a buck receiver, not a buck passer.

Leadership requires a positive personality—not negative. A positive personality enables its possessor to be an executive—a director of affairs. The negative personality makes him a follower. The positive personality makes decisions—the negative stands in doubt. The positive goes direct to the point—the negative wavers, qualifies, dawdles, vacillates. The positive personality ventures in life. The negative is afraid to take the risk. The positive knows he believes a thing—the negative is not sure. The positive person is dynamic—the negative is static. The one has confidence, the other lacks it. The one plans his actions and puts them into practice—the other follows a beaten path. The one has energy, courage, and conviction—the other weakness and indecision. Which way are we headed?

THE RELATION OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS TO LAY CONTROL

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Boards of education are fundamental to democracy in school administration. We do not believe in America in benevolent despots. We are committed to a theory of government which defends the right of the people to make their own decisions and pay for their own mistakes.

The fact that in many individual cities the public has failed to accept what may generally be regarded as sound principles of school operation must not make us unmindful of the great and general improvement which has gone steadily forward during the last twenty-five years.

As a group of superintendents we believe that the schools should be professionally administered by men technically trained for the work. This theory frequently finds itself in conflict with selfish, personal, and political considerations.

Chicago, as an example, has made itself the laughing stock of the world, and Chicago is by no means the only community in which the efficient management of the schools has been interfered with by organized and hostile influences.

Whatever declaration of principles this Association may adopt will only have value as the public may be persuaded to accept them. All that we can do is to declare what we believe to be the system of lay control best calculated to produce the most efficient results in educational service. Fixed responsibility in the hands of a superintendent trained for educational leadership and secured in its exercise is a wise prescription for any community desiring the best in educational results.

A steamship is owned by the company stockholders; the policies controlling it are determined by a board of directors; it is operated by a captain. The functions and responsibilities of all three are clearly defined. Substitute for this arrangement a situation in which every employe on the boat from stevedore to first mate, except the captain, is hired for

life and paid on a blanket scale without regard to merit; make every decision of the captain in the operation of the ship dependent on the caprice of the board of directors; take a frequent plebiscite of the crew, the stockholders, and the passengers; and then, to make confusion certain, divide the ostensible authority of the captain among two or three other officers and you will have a condition not unlike that obtaining in some of our American cities in the operation of their schools.

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING OF SCHOOL EXECUTIVES IN THE UNIVERSITY

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The profession of school administration has been developed during the past fifty years. Preparation for this most important service has been secured through apprenticeships; by the process of trial and success; and by training in our universities. There is evidence in the larger salaries paid to school executives and in the freedom with which they move from place to place across state and sectional lines of an appreciation of the service rendered by these executives. But it is still true that lay boards of education sometimes choose men without special training and without administrative experience for the position of superintendent of schools. We have been negligent as a profession, in setting up standards, the application of which would protect the public.

Superintendents of schools have been responsible in large measure for laws and for regulations which control the admission of men and women to the teaching profession. There are few school executives who would be willing to employ teachers without professional training. Indeed it is becoming more and more evident that we must have specific training for each of the many different types of service to be rendered in the elementary and secondary schools. In one state it is necessary to have a Master's degree with highly specialized professional training in order to qualify for a position as high school teacher. It is clear that we have accepted professional training as essential for those who are to teach in our public schools.

There has been a belief not always clearly expressed, that teaching furnishes a sound preparation for the work of the school executive. Whatever may be the importance of service in the classroom in giving an appreciation and understanding of the work of the schools to the administrator, it can be asserted without fear of contradiction that neither teaching nor the supervision of instruction will afford sufficient training for the school executive; not even the responsibility of administering a high school will afford the experience necessary for one who is to assume responsibility for the direction of the affairs of a school system. The major problems of

the school executive are unique. If he is to develop skill in the solution of these problems he must have highly specialized training or he must acquire his skill on the job.

Men and women in teaching or in minor administrative positions in the school system have often secured their preparation for work as superintendent of schools by virtue of an apprenticeship not fully acknowledged but nevertheless occupying a considerable part of their time and effort for a period of years. Training of this sort assumes highly specialized ability upon the part of the executive under whom they are working, that he has a large amount of time available for this purpose, and that he has an inclination to undertake this important task. Even at best this type of training is likely to be limited to the special fields in which the chief executive is particularly interested at the time, and may be still further conditioned by the pressure for the solution of problems of purely local significance.

The university school of education is in a position today to offer as significant a training for the profession of educational administration as it is to offer professional work in law, medicine, engineering, or business administration. In none of these fields does the professional school send out a man whose training has been completed. It may equip the student in training with knowledge of his profession and with skills not yet fully perfected. The graduate of a professional school should have an appreciation and understanding of the work to be done, knowledge of the methods which have proved most efficient, and command of technics and skill which will enable him to render important service.

Professional training requires the application of theory to practice. No professional student is qualified for his life work until he has command of the technics employed by successful practitioners in his profession. In ever increasing degree professional schools are offering the opportunity for the solution of genuine problems and for practice which will develop skill. The engineering student works in the factory, on the railroad, or irrigation project, or in some other industrial enterprise as a regular part of his training. The medical student applies the theories that he has learned in classroom and laboratory in his internship in the hospital. The student of law acquires ability in his profession by the study of the case presented for his consideration in the light of the decisions of the courts. Business executives are trained through the consideration of the problems of plant organization, personnel management, marketing, and finance. In like manner, training for the profession of school administration requires that we provide opportunities for the consideration of the varied problems of the superintendent of schools.

The job analysis and problem attack as a method of teaching is not intended to substitute debate for knowledge of the field. Nothing could be more fallacious than to propose that students debate the issues of administration without command of all of the scientific knowledge available. The advantage of the problem attack is to be found in the organization

of the scientific knowledge available with particular reference to professional problems which the superintendent of schools will have to solve. It seems reasonable to propose that as a result of this type of organization the student will command the knowledge available more thoroughly than he would were he merely asked to read books or to report on scientific investigations.

The solving of problems cannot take the place of the work which should be done in the laboratory or of the experience which can be gained in field work under systematic supervision. In order to learn to represent graphically the facts with which the superintendent of schools deals the student will have to practice the drawing of graphs and submit them for criticism. If the intending superintendent of schools is to become acquainted with the adaptability of calculating machines for the work of his office, he must have these demonstrated for him, and still more important, he should practice upon them. To become thoroughly acquainted with modern practice in filing the student needs laboratory experience. Familiarity with photometer, the sling psychometer, the projecting lantern, or the moving picture machine is necessary for one who is to use these instruments, or to know of their availability for use by his staff. A thorough understanding of accounting will require that the student spend hours of work in the laboratory making entries and checking up on the accounts which he has developed. Familiarity with the reading of plans and specifications in the laboratory will furnish the only sound basis for the criticism which a superintendent of schools should be able to present to the architect or to his board of education. He must be familiar with all of the forms of records and reports in order that he may choose wisely in the development of the records to be kept in his school system.

In like manner, many problems occur in the survey of school systems which demand the application of the scientific knowledge which the student has come to command in the solution of the problems which have been discussed in class. Each community has its peculiar problems of organization and administration. What is the relation of the school administration to the general municipal, county or other local administration? What modifications in the school organization promise to add to the efficiency of the service? Which type of organization will make for economy? These are among the problems which recur in every field study.

The local issues having to do with taxation and finance with which the student has come in contact in a school survey will bring to his attention scores of problems which are identical with those with which he must deal later in his work. Variations which occur in the business administration of schools, the purchasing, storage and distribution of supplies, the maintenance and operation of buildings, budgetary procedure, attendance service, school health administration, the organization of the administrative and supervisory staff, and the like, will contribute most significantly to the more complete understanding of the problems which the superintendent of schools has to meet.

And so for practically every other administrative problem, whether it has to do with forecasting the need for new school accommodations, the management of personnel, the classification and progress of children, the development of more adequate curricula and courses of study, the supervision of instruction or the relation of the school to the community, all become intensely practical problems in the situation which requires the student to do his best to find the solution which is to be proposed and even more important to be carried out by the local school system. Practice in field work is the logical next step after the student has gained considerable command of the field through the solution of problems in the classroom.

We have in our professional schools now three groups of students: (1) The men who have had experience in the field of administration, and who desire further professional training. These men can ordinarily be expected to profit by one or two years of intensive professional training. (2) Among the experienced group are a few who are interested in research. These men can with profit continue their work a third year during which they will spend a large part of their time on some special problem of investigation.

The emphasis in these researches should be upon the problems of the superintendents of schools. There is a sharp distinction between the type of investigation which is entirely justified in the field of pure science and that which should characterize the advanced work of the professional school. Certainly research is not less worthy because it is devoted to the solution of problems which confront the professional worker. It is most worthwhile to inquire concerning the technics to be employed in the development of a school building program, the way to secure more adequate janitorial service, the most efficient organization of a department of census and attendance, the most equitable method of distributing state support, the necessary budgetary provision to be made for the equipment of new buildings, or the most efficient method of acquainting the people with the work of the school system. Indeed, it may be proposed that there is no detail of the work of the administrator that may not properly become the subject of intensive investigation by those who are candidates for the doctor's degree in the professional school.

The third group, and one which I hope may grow larger, consists of young men with little or no experience in administration, who should spend one year in the university in preparation for an internship in a superintendent's office. This latter group, if they are to gain the most from their one or two years in the field, should be placed where they may have a variety of experience under competent direction. It will not pay ordinarily to send them out to do a routine job. These young men, if they have been well selected, can go into a school system and accept a variety of assignments in the superintendent's office, with satisfaction to this executive. Their year of training will have equipped them with many

skills. They need the direction and check that can be offered by the superintendent of schools or some member of his staff. The university has an obligation to keep in touch with them in order to know what progress they are making and of the type of opportunity which is provided for them. It is from this group of young men that I believe we will recruit our ablest superintendents of schools in the future. They will have had sound professional training before they attempt to meet the responsibilities of the school executive. They will have the good fortune to have had their first experience after having a sound background in knowledge of the field of administration and in skill in solving many of the problems which they must meet. The fact that they are placed with competent executives for their initial experience will guarantee them against making the mistakes which so often discourage the man beginning the practice of our profession.

Training of the younger men might be even more adequate if we were able to arrange university courses and practices in the field for alternating months during a period of two years. This type of professional training has been found most satisfactory in engineering. It would seem to be equally valuable in our field. We are able to get something of the same result through the field work which is now organized as a very important part of our university courses in administration. The practice in the laboratory and work in the solution of problems also contribute their share.

After this younger group has had from one to three years in the field as internes or assistants, they should be brought back to the university to complete their professional training. They may reasonably be expected, after one or two years more of training, to go into positions in which they will assume full responsibility as school executives. Some of them will, because of their intelligence and because of their personal qualities, move rapidly forward to positions of great importance. For those who remain in the smaller places the training which has been secured will guarantee a quality of service not now commonly available in these smaller school systems.

It is of the utmost importance that the highly technical work of the specialized courses be paralleled with other training in the theory and practice of education. No one would seriously propose that a man was fit to be a superintendent of schools unless he was well grounded in the philosophy of education. Many of the administrative problems which he will have to meet will require a knowledge of the principles and of the results of investigations in the field of psychology and sociology. The success of the superintendent of schools will often be determined by his knowledge in the fields of public finance and municipal administration. Much light would be thrown upon many of the problems with which the superintendent has to deal by courses in comparative education.

In addition to his study in these fundamental fields which furnish the background for the technical courses the superintendent of schools should

have contact with other professional work in the school of education. The more he can learn with respect to the subjectmatter and method of instruction, the more certainly he is acquainted with the detail of the work of principal or supervisor, the better qualified he will be for the general administrative position. The ideal situation would be one in which those seeking to qualify for the position of superintendent of schools would have brought to their attention the work of all of these specialists in relation to the particular problems which the superintendent of schools has to solve. If the technical course is dealing with the problem of equipping the elementary school building, the specialists in kindergarten and primary education, in household arts, in industrial arts, in library maintenance and operation, in physical education and health service, in music and art, should be called into conference and should propose and defend the recommendations with respect to specialized equipment. In like manner, if the issue before the superintendents' group is that of curricula, subject-matter specialists and supervisors responsible for the teachers' growth should play a large part in the solution of the problems presented in the professional course.

It is important that the courses in psychology, the history and philosophy of education, in taxation and finance and municipal administration be presented from the point of view of the administrator. The examination of any one of these fields will make apparent the validity of this contention. It is not just psychology that the superintendent of schools needs, but rather the application of the principles of psychology and of the investigations that have been made to the problems of the organization of schools, the classification of pupils, and the validity of methods of instruction. In the history of education the administrator needs most of all a discussion of the practices which have prevailed in the past and particularly those which have been developed in his own field, rather than a consideration of historical theories.

But the principal emphasis in professional courses for the training of superintendents of schools must be upon the analysis of the work to be done, and the development of the technics essential to the adequate solution of the problems the administrator must solve. The more certainly the student deals with genuine problems during his period of training, the more likely he will be to meet with success in the field. Knowledge of the facts of educational administration cannot be substituted for practice in applying these facts to the solution of administrative problems. It is certainly possible to provide definite professional training for the superintendent of schools.

Has not the time arrived when superintendents themselves will propose the professional training required of those who would enter their profession?

THE TRAINING OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS WHILE IN SERVICE

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In the evolution of the profession of teaching, it is becoming more and more apparent that a new technic of training is being developed—a technic which has hitherto been largely ignored in the established professions of medicine and of law, and which has not yet come into general acceptance in education.

This technic involves two phases or steps, first, a preservice preparation, long adhered to, and second, an in-service or post-graduate training, which is the real characteristic of the new technic to which I allude. It may be, that in the field of public education we are particularly fortunate, because of public responsibility for the process, in that we are able to exercise a continuous supervision over those who practice the profession of education, whereas, other professions like medicine, law, and engineering are still matters of private initiative for which the state has, to be sure, some responsibility, but by no means commensurate with that for public education. This concept introduces not only a right but an obligation which should be seized upon in educational circles, and which gives promise of carrying the profession of teaching, into a wider and more professional field than has thus far been generally done.

Preparation for teaching has long been characterized by in-service training. The enormous enrolment of teachers in our summer schools, and in extension courses, are evidences of this fact. Furthermore, expert supervision of instruction by superintendents and principals has contributed to this end. Moreover, this in-service stage of our technic of professional training, especially as it relates to the superintendent, is not the result of deliberate and original planning, but rather, has come into prominence by force of circumstances.

Inadequate funds for the support of public education as well as a limited supply of proper personnel—and these two aspects of public school administration are closely related—have made it impossible to secure a sufficiently well trained body of workers for the public schools of the nation. By this I mean to say, that there are thousands of teachers, and hundreds of administrators throughout this country today, who have come to their tasks with limited specific preparation, and who if they are to be trained at all, other than by the fortuitous circumstances of their positions, must be provided with some sort of in-service guidance and help. To supply this need is a matter of simple justice to the children who are compelled by law to attend school.

On the other hand, who among us has not observed the tendency for the past decade or more for normal schools to extend their two-year curricula to three and four years and to be called teachers colleges! And who has not seen the teachers colleges and state certification requirements

demand of prospective principals and superintendents longer periods of institutional training?

Such demands reflect the broadened extent and increased complexity of the problems of public education. Nevertheless, the approach to the superintendency is not generally, by the longer route of undergraduate and graduate institutional preparation. A shorter method is taken with undergraduate work, followed by practical experience, and later the superintendent returns to the institution for graduate study.

It is hardly necessary to call attention to the fact that such a relationship between an institution and the field has resulted in mutual benefit.

The institution gets the corrective influence of intimate association with the everyday problems of the teachers and of the superintendent, with the result that its attitude toward the problems of the classroom, of administration and supervision becomes less theoretical and less doctrinaire. On the other hand the superintendent, with whom we are chiefly concerned here, with his numerous kaleidoscopic interests, has a means whereby he may keep in closer touch with the results of the scientific study of education, and receive the benefit of a more impersonal consideration of his difficulties.

Partly because of the *impasse* thus reached between preparation and supply, but more because of a growing and refined conception of the real nature of professional education, the idea of the necessity of in-service training, for teacher, principal and superintendent, has been given increased attention, as a vital element in the true professional service of the educator.

Even a casual reading of the history of supervision of instruction, reveals the fact, that this is a history of a continuously expanding idea, and of a persistent effort to provide continued training for teachers and for principals. The dark spots in the history of supervision have been caused in some measure by deficiencies and short comings in the supervisory personnel. In addition, the clouded areas, as has already been suggested, are due partly to inadequate financial support and to insufficient preservice training. Furthermore, these spots may have been caused by the fact that superintendents have not generally availed themselves of the expanding opportunities offered through post-institutional programs of training.

While supervision of instruction and the administration of school systems have been, and are today functions to be provided locally through the superintendent's office, the in-service training of those who would exercise this supervision, and of those who would administer local school systems, must be a responsibility of a larger unit, the state. This primary agency, the state, has thus far been fulfilling this obligation of offering extended training, almost exclusively through the tax-supported teachers colleges and through the state universities, rather than through state departments of education. The reason is that these departments have not been organized for this service.

As to the right of the state to exercise general control of those interests which affect all the people—and public tax-supported schools are one of these interests—there is no longer any question. This authority has been established by constitutional provision, and statute law, supported by court decisions. The obligations of the state should be assumed as necessity seems to demand.

It is at this point, therefore, that it would appear that the state department of education, under whatever title it may operate in the several states, has a distinct duty to perform in relation to all those matters which concern public education. It is at this point also, where the demand is imperative that the state shall provide a truly professional department with dynamic leadership. Should perchance that leadership be lacking, owing to untrained personnel, limited financial resources, or interrupted by brief and political tenure, you, the town, county and city superintendents representing the field should, I believe, be among the first to insist upon a change.

Of course, in those states where the teacher preparation institutions are under the immediate administrative control of the educational department, the possibilities are greatly enhanced for coordinating, with the institutional preparation of teachers and of administrators, all forms of in-service training.

I am simply trying to emphasize the responsibility and the opportunity which belongs to a state department of education. It must concern itself with the whole range of interests relating to teaching, from the earliest academic preparation of the teachers and superintendent, on through the professional schools and out into the field of active service. After all, graduation from the best institution means only preparation to begin. Professional growth and skill come with the doing, and fortunate is the teacher or superintendent who may still have guidance and help, when needs arise.

To the teacher, such guidance and aid come through a principal or superintendent. Who is to help the superintendent? This, I repeat, is an obligation of the state educational department. No other agency is in an equally strategic position to render this unique service, and furthermore it is not too much to say, that this service may be properly regarded as one of its most important functions, viz., that of supervision or professional leadership, the others being administration, instruction, research, and publicity.

To summarize the position taken thus far: It can be maintained that the state educational department is the one agency set up by law, to exercise general control and supervision of the educational interests of the state. Further, it is an agency to advise the legislature concerning wise state policy, so far as it is necessary to express that policy in statutes. Moreover, it should be clear, that in its relation to the local administration, the department's position is one of constructive leadership. Its purpose is to carry out the policies of the state, as these policies are expressed in law and defensible in practice. It must at the same time use its influence to encourage better and wiser legislation. In addition, the educational department

is a means of securing such unity of thought and action among its local and delegated agencies, as may be necessary to make effective better educational practices. Finally the department through its supervisory and technical staffs, should set up programs of attack upon specific problems of supervision, of organization of administration, and of finance.

In the last analysis, the educational progress of the state depends upon the unified and cumulative efforts of its local officers. It is therefore to these local professional workers, the superintendents, that the department should bring stimulation and help by offering various types of in-service training, which shall furnish them with the best of the new thought in education, and help to show them how to make it effective in better school practices. So much then for the state's obligation.

It may now be asked: What are the superintendent's obligations? Some have already been implied. Obviously institutional training cannot anticipate all the conditions under which a superintendent must do his work. He is fortunate indeed if he leaves his professional school knowing how to attack a problem, and with a body of knowledge and vicarious experience. Here it should be noted in recognition of a desirable tendency, that certain graduate schools of education are coming to equip students decreasingly, with vicarious experiences, and increasingly with specific technics designed from actual administrative situations. At best the superintendent's preservice preparation will have developed a desire for growth, and have provided him with a method with which to make an estimate of a new situation, involving as it may supervisory, administrative or financial factors, either singly or in combination. Furthermore, he will come to his task with the technics and skills that are necessary for securing the whole-hearted cooperation of his staff and the intelligent support of the public in carrying his plans into effect.

The thesis would be easy to defend, that the more thorough his preservice preparation, which should, of course, include graduate study, the more keenly alert the superintendent will be to the existence of possibilities for more effective administration, and the more willing and anxious he will be to receive help, from whatever source it may appear. A consciousness of a need of help is the first step toward securing such aid. It is at this stage that his true in-service or post-institutional study begins. The fact that he has a genuine professional attitude toward his work will keep him constantly a student of its possibilities, and furnish the necessary motive for action.

Whatever the method by which a person comes to the superintendency, whether by the route of specialized training, or by the rapidly disappearing method of exercising mere political sagacity, or by transfer from a teaching position to an administrative post with increased salary, the need for a broadening experience will be felt by all progressive administrators and supervisors.

If the strategic significance of the position and its possibilities are sensed by those who have been better prepared to take up the duties of the office of superintendent, how much greater is the need for those who have come into the field of administration with only a meager professional equipment? Consider for a moment how the science of education has grown, how greatly our knowledge of the mental and physical characteristics of human beings has increased. Scientific investigation has provided us with vast stores of information and knowledge, much of which is still unrelated to school life. We employ new instruments for measuring and appraising school processes and results. New methods of accounting have become standardized and available. The procedures involve pupil and teacher personnel, finance, and plant. In recent years more intimate relationships have been established between the school programs and the school buildings in which they are to be housed. Classroom equipment and teaching appliances have multiplied with astonishing rapidity. And so one could go on with the enumeration of the increasing facilities for the work of the superintendent. A knowledge of the foregoing becomes a legitimate part of the modern administrator's stock in trade. If a superintendent does not possess such professional equipment he will be unable to adequately serve his public or retain his leadership among his more recently and relatively better trained teachers, and professionally equipped principals.

Furthermore, the very isolation of a superintendent, often caused by the extreme localism of a system of schools, or by his own complete absorption in a routine of duties, has a tendency to cause him to fail to hold a proper perspective toward his task. In these situations the state department of education has a duty to perform and must exercise its rightful leadership.

In concluding the discussion of the question, what are the obligations of the superintendent, I am strongly of the belief that it is primarily the obligation of more completely realizing what he already has felt, viz., that life itself means growth, and that broad and enriched experiences, including new and accurate knowledge, are agencies of such growth. The inscription over the door of a New Jersey normal school, "He who would dare to teach must not cease to learn," expresses the attitude of the true superintendent.

Given the obligation of the state department of education and also that of the superintendent toward in-service training and professional growth we may now ask, What are some of the means whereby this growth may be realized? For obvious reasons the discussion of this phase of the larger subject can be but suggestive. I shall therefore indicate but a few of the elements of a broader program, and briefly discuss a concrete state department, in-service, supervisory project. The elements of such a program are these:

1. A state department of education so organized and defined by law as *not to impede the carrying out of its functions of educational leadership*—This may involve constitutional changes but, certainly statutory changes,

in some states. With the acceptance of the doctrine that education is a function of the state, then the state must provide the legal instrumentality for making that doctrine operative, in all its phases.

2. *A personnel in each state department of education consisting of highly trained and relatively permanent experts in the several fields of education—*

The compensation of such officials should be commensurate with their educational worth. For such a staff of selected men and women removed from political control, there is probably no more feasible and economical use of extended state funds. For instance, one hundred thousand dollars added to each state department of education throughout the country would provide in a single year ten additional leadership agents in each state with necessary expenses and clerical assistance. This would cost for the United States as a whole on the average about 3.7 cents per capita. What would not five years of such leadership produce?

3. *An adequate program of activity—*Such a program would involve (a) Fact finding, through a division of educational research competent to carry on either independent scientific investigations or to lead in coöperative enterprises with groups of superintendents; (b) Institutional efficiency, especially in relation to the preservice preparation of teachers. Where such institutions, normal schools and teachers colleges are integral parts of a state department of education, unity of purpose and of program becomes more easily possible. In any event, for a thorough-going program of in-service training coordination of all agencies is a basic necessity.

A fourth and final element of the proposed program is effective publicity. This will involve presenting in various forms either through letters, bulletins, or monographs, the results of scientific investigations and the summary of findings of the supervisory conferences and from other sources. These publications become the basis for further study and utilization.

Further publicity should be provided of such a character as will serve to bridge the gap between the ever progressing policies of education as conceived and formulated in harmony with modern conditions and the public school as viewed by those who were trained under conditions other than those which now prevail.

In conclusion, the state through its department of education has a responsibility for the in-service training of its superintendents; the superintendent is increasingly conscious of his obligation to grow; and finally, such developments of in-service training as have been made are but an earnest beginning.

THE ENDOWED INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION —ITS RELATION TO PUBLIC EDUCATION

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Why a division of the National Education Association devoted to the interests of the public school systems should be asked to listen to an address from a college president, that most distressful of all educational function-

aries, on a subject in which the members at best can entertain only a very mild and tepid interest, may well occasion critical inquiry. As to the first part of the issue, I am quite unable to satisfy your curiosity, although my assumption is that my presence on this program is due to the eccentricities of your program committee. The subject chosen is largely of my own responsibility. I desire to find, if possible, a topic sufficiently non-controversial to make my presence here safe, and sufficiently vague to allow opportunity for almost any observations which might suggest themselves to the ruminating mind. That either arrangement can be justified remains to be seen.

By a delightful perversity of phrase, the English public school, so-called, would on this side of the water be designated private, and the private American college or university is essentially public, all of which goes to show how little there is in a name. Indeed, so far as concerns the American institutions of higher learning, if the overworked traveler from Mars were to be introduced without previous warning into some of our larger metropolitan institutions on private foundation and were then suddenly transported to certain of our tax-supported universities, he could discern few or no material differences, either in aims or ideals or procedure, and certainly would encounter no external evidences of different sources of support. He would find both overcrowded with students; in both, many underpaid teachers; in both, an impenetrable thicket of student organization, largely monopolizing active student interest; in both, a rather noisy and naive student loyalty, chiefly centered in athletics; in both, a pervasive faculty conviction that its members were boss-ridden by the administration and that the trustees were mainly opinionated absentee creatures of the Wall Street interest or of the local Tammany organization. In both he would find some, though not too many, brilliant and powerful teachers; in both, a small group of scholars of distinction; in both, the great majority of staff striving faithfully to discharge their full obligations.

The privately endowed institutions undoubtedly contain a greater range of variation in the extremes of type represented than can be detected between the two groups, public and private, taken enmass. In both groups there are instances of particular institutions with sharp individual peculiarities or characteristics.

Before proceeding to certain more specific issues, it may be well to gain a general impression as to the relative magnitude of the interests involved in the two classes.

The latest available report of the United States Commissioner of Education lists 913 institutions of higher education, a figure which is inclusive of professional schools of various kinds. Of the entire number, 769 are in private hands, and 144 belong to the public. In other words, the privately-supported group is more than five times as numerous. In the endowed institutions were 290,000 men and 176,000 women, a total of 466,000 or more. In the publicly-supported institutions were 167,000 men and 88,800 women, a total of 255,000. That is to say, of the entire number of stu-

dents, approximately 65 percent were in the private institutions and 35 percent in the public institutions. Taken in connection with the previous figures, the far greater average size of the public institutions is easily inferred. It should, however, be remembered that the dividing line between the groups, so far as concerns support, is not always sharp. Not a few institutions resting on private foundation receive, or have received, public funds. Indeed, in some states this circumstance has led to very unhappy and at times almost scandalous conditions. This may be true in the states, some of which are here represented today.

Many state institutions have been the beneficiaries of large gifts from private sources and have accumulated considerable endowments of their own. The University of Michigan, the so-called mother of state universities, oddly enough, received no direct money from the legislature of the state until fifty years after its legislative creation and thirty years after its actual opening.

Moreover, insofar as the endowed institutions are exempt from taxation, and that is the general rule, they may all be said to be under a constant though indirect form of government subsidy.

The figures just quoted disclose an astonishing contrast to the corresponding figures for secondary schools. I will not tire you with the statistics, but suffice it to say, as is generally well recognized, the public high school is in the overwhelming ascendancy over the private or secondary academy, both as to the number in existence and as to the number of pupils enrolled. Assuming the accessible report to be approximately correct, about 93 percent of the children are in the public secondary schools. Without more ado, this makes it clear that both public and private institutions of higher education receive the great mass of their students from these schools. A few of the older institutions on the Atlantic seaboard still get the larger number of their students from private preparatory schools, but in this respect, they are eccentric to the rest of the country.

Historically, the endowed college is much older than the public institution, and generally sprang from a religious motive. In the early colonial days, this was the desire to train a scholarly ministry. Later it has often reflected the wish to supply to the youth of the coming generation a college home in which there should be a strong religious atmosphere, and one reflecting the special tenets of some particular sect.

In Western Europe, education of every kind was for centuries under the charge of the church. It seems doubtful whether if private initiative had not led the way, governments either here or abroad would have committed themselves to the otherwise precarious experiment of public education as we know it. When it finally arrived, the state university derived from essentially Jeffersonian principles, represented the political and philosophical conviction, that education is a fundamental interest of the state and that the state should provide opportunity for the most advanced studies in every and any field.

This objection was combined, be it said, with distinctly continental ideals regarding the internal organization of the university, and with a marked aversion to the schoolmasterly methods prevailing in the American collegiate institutions of the day. Moreover, the tendency, since the foundation of the federal government to separate sharply the interests of church and state, led state institutions in general to eschew completely all effort to give training in the field of theology. On the other hand, be it said not a few state institutions have in practice conducted religious exercises and even offered courses in the field of religion.

We are so habituated to the public education idea that it hardly occurs to us that things were ever otherwise than they now are. Essentially, free public education and compulsory education up to a certain age has become a sort of fetish and is accepted as a cardinal principle in our political philosophy, which we challenge only when the bills begin to get uncomfortably large, and yet not only have private foundations usually led in the past, but even in recent times much of the best and most fruitful experimentation in these secondary and primary field has been in privately-supported schools. Indeed there are not many public school systems in which even now these more venturesome programs can be readily entered upon. On the other hand, while much excellent pioneering has been carried out in the endowed colleges and universities, the state institutions have, many of them, shown great energy and initiative in employing progressive policies. This is especially true of the last decade.

During the preceding century we have in a large number of the states slowly worked out to essential realization the picture of a public education which takes the child at the earliest school age and puts at his disposal almost without price the opportunity for the completest education he is capable of receiving, ending in the most advanced university work of a professional character, and with no material exception save that of theology.

In completeness of its provisions for everything of interest, in its genuine accessibility to children from every social and economic level, it has certainly never had its equal, and indeed hardly its like anywhere in the world, and with all its shortcomings, most of them presumably incidental to the novelty and the magnitude of the undertaking, it is justly a source of unrestrained pride. It is easy to exaggerate the importance of the source from which educational resources are derived. Ultimately, the money all comes from the pockets of the citizens, in the one case more or less willingly and voluntarily, in the other case under the compulsion of taxation. Both groups are beholden to the constituencies which support them, the one group to federal, state, county, or city officials and the people behind them, the other to secondary agencies, to patrons or to alumni. If the one group is sometimes subject to outrageous political interference—and one naturally thinks at once of Mr. McAndrew and his experiences with the eminent historical scholar who presides over the destinies of Chicago—the other has at times suffered not less from the pausing hand of religious bigotry and

the industrious meddling of graduates. No educational institution is or ever will be completely foolproof.

So far as concerns the contemporary relations of the endowed and the tax-supported colleges and universities, there are obviously two contrasting forces, either of which might be defended. The endowed institution may simply share the white man's burden with the other type of institution, the two dividing the load between them and with no special effort to differentiate the functions and the special service of the one from the other. Under the present conditions with the existing press of students, this procedure would certainly have much to commend it. On the other hand, if the endowed institution can achieve something essentially different from that open to the public institution, and vice versa, such a specialization of functions may well be desirable, for we certainly need wide variety in our educational institutions. All avenues for potentiality should be kept open.

As a matter of fact, both courses are apparently represented in the current practice. A few comments may make the matter clear. As I have already indicated, not a few of the endowed institutions are so similar in ideals and methods to state and municipal universities that their educational function can hardly be differentiated from the latter. They may in some instances and at some points do their work better or less well than the public institution, but in any case they are serving a similar constituency by similar methods and their relations to public schools are in practice essentially identical. There are, however, many frankly sectarian institutions which are attempting to reach ends that the public institution neither would nor could undertake. Certain of these have their main relations with sectarian academies and only in a minor degree with public schools. These colleges are serving a function which is forbidden in some parts of the world, but which can hardly be objected to under our Constitution.

Moreover, the number of students concerned is relatively small. In some parts of the country the chief stock and trade of these colleges has been the allegedly Godless character of the state university.

A third group is one emphatically to stress the conception of liberal education and to indulge in harsh language regarding whatever or whoever suggests vocationalism, and especially to shrug the academic shoulder and to lift the academic nostril at any mention of the school of technology or the state university or the state college of agriculture and mechanic art.

It scrutinizes with peculiar ferocity any school record which hints that typewriting or stenography has been indulged in and bookkeeping comes in for a glance only a shade less black. These institutions regard themselves as set to keep alive in a Philistine world the torch of pure learning.

Liberal education is a fine thing, nothing finer when justly conceived, and if these institutions succeed in achieving it in a higher degree than the tax-supported institutions, they deserve every encouragement and an ungrudging approval of all who are interested in producing the highest types of the human spirit, but whether it be earlier or later, there comes inevitably a time when liberal studies must give way to the acquirement of some type

of specific proficiency, and one may hardly condemn to utter oblivion the youth who begins this process at nineteen instead of at twenty-one, or the institutions which make it possible for him to do so.

In a final group are found among others certain of the oldest and most powerful of the endowed institutions. They are called universities. Their entrance standards are in general the most severe now employed. Their academic ideals are high. They attract a very high type of student, along with some of lower moral attitudes. They have on their faculties, judged by the Cattell tables, much the largest share of the leading scientific men, and presumably an even greater proportion of the leading humanistic scholars. Their professional schools are literally in the forefront, and taken as a group, they stand by themselves in the distinction of their personnel and in the completeness of their scholarly equipment. It is said that they are not wholly unconscious of the situation. And that they tend at times to a certain condescension of manner which is not the more gracious nor more popular for being largely justified.

I see no reason to doubt that in general these endowed institutions, with the exception of the first group described, tend to stress more, and perhaps more successfully, the ideals of a more purely liberal education, and that as a group the tax-supported institutions emphasize rather more the early preparation for a particular cause, though I know not a few in which both the standpoint and the technic of liberalism is highly developed.

These distinctions, such as they are, reflect neither credit nor discredit, except in the measure in which each adopts and enforces severe and searching methods to gain its ends. No matter how valid and how worthy the ideal of liberal education, if the actual procedure by which a college attempts to realize this purpose, results in a thin, vapid, spineless course of study as it often does, it will leave its victims untouched by most of the finer values of a liberal culture and wholly despoiled of the discipline of severe, continuous and vitally motivated study.

On the other hand, no vocational curriculum taught by trade school methods and with a merely trade outlook, can do what a college should do for its youth, whereas such a curriculum, illuminated by breadth of outlook, sound fundamental training and inflexible thoroughness on the part of the teacher may itself be essentially liberalizing in its effect, to say nothing of the admirable technical training which it may convey. Nor would I be understood in these comments to be criticizing the trade school, nothing is further from my intent, but its methods are not collegiate and should not be.

The public and the endowed institutions alike have been facing one crisis upon which I wish to say a few words, namely, the overwhelming increase in students. There is a curious disposition which one sometimes encounters in dealing with this problem to assume that at last we have reached the peak of the load, and, therefore, we need not worry about the future. So far as I can ascertain, this, too, has almost nothing upon which to rest, provided we assume that substantially the same educational standards are

to be enforced as at present and that the economic conditions of the country are not to change markedly and permanently for the worse.

This is neither the time nor the place to discuss the extraordinary details regarding the character and the distribution of this recent increase, but the fact of its occurrence is obstinate and we have by no means approached the upper limit. If I correctly interpret the reports of the United States Commissioner, the college student numbers more than tripled in the decade from 1914 to 1924. The figures earlier quoted indicate that the endowed institutions are already carrying the lion's share of this load, and while some of the weaker ones still proselyte and are keen for more students, many of the stronger ones have set limits and declined to receive applicants beyond such limits.

The endowed institution obviously has two alternatives. It may take the position as some conspicuous institutions have until recently done, that it is under obligation to accept all properly qualified students who apply and thereupon proceed to try to secure the resources with which adequately to care for them and teach them. If the effort is made to secure the necessary means by running up the tuition charges, the result is at once a deplorable social and economic selection, throwing out a large part of the children of the less well-to-do, a consequence which most institutions are loathe to permit, especially as those eliminated are likely to include the very desirable children of men in poorly paid professional groups, such as ministers and teachers and college presidents.

Another possibility is to teach in huge classes, which as a general solution of the problem is, educationally, extremely objectionable. It leaves untouched also the housing problem, which for many institutions is very embarrassing. If tuition increases be not resorted to, or only in minor measure, then additional endowment must be sought. Many institutions have preferred to choose the other alternative, although it has some disadvantages not likely to be disregarded. They have accordingly set student limits beyond which they will not go. For example, the institution which I have the honor to represent has for some years limited its attendance and it rejects considerably more bona fide freshman applicants than it receives, while in its graduate medical school it takes about one applicant in twelve. It has set these particular limits not because of any *a priori* prejudices as to what constitutes an ideal number nor by any desire to assume a pose of aristocratic exclusiveness. Had such conceptions been determined, doubtless a much lower set of limits would have been chosen. It has been guided solely by the considerations as to its actual existing facilities, beyond which it could not expand without greatly increased expense. I understand that other institutions which have adopted limitation have been guided by similar conditions.

I cannot doubt that as time goes on more and more of the endowed institutions will be driven to this same policy, and just in proportion as this occurs will the burden on the public institutions increase. Personally I

do not believe that new endowed institutions will be created rapidly enough to take up the pressure and for a variety of reasons the existing ones will be reluctant or unable to expand with any appreciable rapidity. How the public institution will meet this situation remains to be seen. You gentlemen who conduct the great school systems will undoubtedly exercise a marked influence on the policies adopted and your colleagues in the state and municipal universities will have to settle the issue. You may resort increasingly to the junior college procedure, despite the acrimonious criticisms which this system has elicited and the small favor which it seems to enjoy in part of our fair land.

You may create new state universities or enlarge those which you have; you may create new municipal universities, but unless college entrance standards are changed sharply and very appreciably upward, the problem will have to be faced much more vigorously than it has been up to this time. Just what the ultimate saturation capacity of the private institutions may be, I cannot predict, but we are certainly approaching its limit and in any event there are many students who will not go to the endowed institutions, at least not to those that are within their reach, geographically and financially speaking. Even in this state, where you can hardly put your foot down without stepping on a college, I understand there has more than once been a very vigorous effort to create a state university.

I have long felt, and have more than once urged, without any gain in popularity, that whatever may be said for giving young people a substantially free education through the high school period there should be appreciably more severe and essentially competitive selection of those who are to go on to higher education, and particularly if this is to be at the expense of the state.

I entertain this view not less in the interest of the young people affected by the procedure than as an item in my political philosophy. Approximately free education at the taxpayer's expense is only warranted if the state actually gets back value received in trained discipline and public-spirited citizens. Merely to multiply the number of college youth who go back into the community ranks with no vivid sense of obligation to capitalize for the benefit of the commonwealth the training they have received is quite as likely to prove a curse as a blessing for the state. Moreover, to tax the less gifted merely to afford the more gifted opportunity for sheer personal and selfish aggrandizement, whether of mind or of purse, commends itself to no thoughtful person.

The mortality statistics of our institutions show a lamentably imperfect adjustment of entrance requirements to actual college demands, and whether responsibility for this fact be laid at the doors of the school where the college authorities place it or at the door of the colleges where the schoolmasters put it, or at both places, where some disinterested observers have placed it, the fact remains that somewhere along the line there has been a faulty process of selection.

There is a very good story I would like to tell you if I didn't have to tell it through a loud speaker. Telling a joke through a loud speaker is a good deal like pumping up an automobile tire with a hand pump. It can be done, but—I will make it very brief. It runs this way. Of course it is always the open season for abusing the colleges, you know, despite what Mr. Gwinn said about the president. Somebody was abusing the colleges and it occurred to a college professor, being of an inquiring turn of mind, to follow this up. He found, of course, that all his college colleagues said that the trouble was with the high schools, that they were certainly rotten institutions, and they sent a very poor type of young person up to the college, and you naturally could not expect the college to do much with them. So he went to the high schools and inquired of the teachers and principals what about it. They said there was some, though not much, truth in it, but that if he would go down into the grades and see the young savages who came out of the grades into the high school and then saw what the high school was asked to do in four years, he would see how impossible it was to send on much better stuff to the colleges than they did. He thought that the trail was getting warm, so he went to the grade school and inquired of the principal what about it. She said, "There is a measure of truth in what the high-school principal said, but if you will go down into the kindergarten and see these young barbarians who are sent in from the families for us to deal with, with absolutely no assistance from the families themselves, if you will see what we have to do with adjusting that mass, you will understand why we cannot pass on to the high schools very much better material."

So the trail led to the kindergartener, and she said in turn that there was some truth in it, but if he would come into the room where these children are and see these unlicked cubs that were sent out from the families, he would understand how impossible it was for the kindergarteners to do anything. So he went back to the families to inquire about the unlicked cubs. The first place he called he found the mother, fortunately, at home. He went in and asked her about the matter. She said it was true that many of the neighbors' children were really very difficult, and of course William sometimes was a hard child to deal with, "but," she said, "after all, you know his father's people are all like that." But of course that is the great American game of passing the buck, and it is always the open season for that.

That, of course, is part of this story about the mortality statistics, but I have a more serious set of observations to make, if not more truthful.

Some of the schools desire to be exempted entirely from any responsibility on the score of college entrance preparation. If students wish to go to college, well and good, let the colleges take them if they will, but let it be recognized that the school's commanding obligation is to the great majority who do not go on to college and not to the small minority who do. Many school men, perhaps most of them, do not believe that the

same course which is best for the college-bound youth is also best for the lad who is to stop his formal education on high-school graduation, and they accordingly wish to be free of any obligation for meeting college entrance requirements.

The schools maintain that they have been terribly bullied in this matter by the colleges. Doubtless in the past there has been some ground for this complaint, and it has been accentuated by the frequent and irrational unwillingness of the colleges to establish more uniform requirements, each desiring to be a law unto itself. But these good old times are in many parts of the country long past and the shoe is now rather on the other foot. The powerful metropolitan high schools at least are often delectably frank in expressing their concern about anything other than college entrance requirements. I do not know that in this matter the schools entertain more acrimonious sentiments towards the endowed institutions than they do to the public ones, though the former have doubtless been more conservative, but if their views should prevail, the first result would be a great development of private preparatory schools, a process that in response to rather different motives is already going on rapidly in certain parts of the country.

These private schools are, to my knowledge, in many instances accomplishing an admirable work and one which in many respects the public schools could under no conditions undertake, but I should regard it as nothing short of calamitous to have the high school adopt so arbitrary a position as to take it wholly out of the field of college preparation.

After all, our college population is one of extremely great consequence for the commonwealth, relatively small though it be in numbers, and it would be tragic to have the high school alienate itself wholly from this connection. Some give and take there must be as between the schools and the colleges, but there should be no complete breach, and I do not believe that on second thought either the school men or the supporting public would endorse it. The college authorities must be accorded some competency to speak on this matter, and in my judgment at least the entrance requirements of many of our collegiate institutions are educationally extremely reasonable, and if they err, I believe it is on the side of too soft and too superficial demands, but this is a matter on which there may be an honest difference of opinion. I should deeply deprecate anything which would aggravate social class consciousness, and to hand over college preparation exclusively to a group of private schools would certainly have this result.

We have long heard much of the superficiality of our schools, of the diluting of our curriculum, of the great expense of public education, of the retarded delivery of the finished product, of the poor showing compared with Continental and English schools, and so on and so forth.

In general, these criticisms seem to me rather unfair if they take no cognizance of the circumstances which have produced the present condition, although many of them reflect ideals which appeal to me as absolutely sound. I know it has been repeatedly demonstrated in American schools

that children can be better educated than is at present common practice with a saving of from one to two years in time. This is not a theory, it is a fact. I have no question, either, that more continuity of subject-matter than some of our high-school curricula provide is *per se* intellectually newer, but now that the public schools have been staggering under a burden unparalleled anywhere else in the world, that the supply of really competent teachers and executives has been wholly inadequate, that the academic standards have, as a consequence, often been lax, that the funds necessary to secure and retain well-trained personnel and to do their work satisfactorily have often been denied, that political interference has at times been insufferably destructive, in general, with due allowance for grave shortcomings, I believe they have accomplished an extraordinary job.

I think much the same series of statements, both critical and laudatory, could be made of many private schools as well as of our colleges and universities, although in the case of private institutions, political interference would be rare and sectarian or individual interference more frequent. Schools are a good deal like folk, some are good and some are bad, and so far as concerns the actual achievement of the public schools, academically speaking, I was interested in the report of the elections to our Yale Chapter of Phi Beta Kappa last week in which, in an institution where the public school boy is in the ratio of about one to two with the private school boy, almost exactly half of the elections to Phi Beta Kappa were from the graduates of the public schools.

It certainly is not my purpose or function on this occasion to criticize the schools. They may be as bad as some authorities declare, although as I have just indicated, I doubt it. But the whole political educational conception under which we are working is too largely that a college or university education is open at little or no cost to anyone of moderate capacity and still more moderate powers of application. There is little or no sense of privilege about it, and practically no sense of obligation.

I understand that one state university is presenting to its students the view that they are in effect the employees of the state, being trained like the cadets at West Point and Annapolis, and that as such they are under obligation to give of their best in return. Failure to evince such purpose is, I assume, to be followed by ruthless exclusion. Moreover, I understand that this state expects, on the same principle, with the active cooperation of the high-school authorities, substantially to advance the qualifications for entrance. This program seems to me all very much to the good and if it can be enforced, it ought to produce highly desirable changes in student attitude.

I believe that in all this matter the public school can most vitally help the college and the university, whether public or endowed, if it will assume as a part of its function a more active discouragement of young people who have neither the ability nor the attitude toward life and work to

gain from the college anything of serious advantage. Many schools are taking on some responsibility for vocational guidance. Why in all conscience should they not advise against college those who are obviously unfit? Perhaps they do. I hope so. They might serve a great public function and spare many a youth a wasted, unhappy experience. The colleges are all suffering from the invasion of young persons who have come for any one of a dozen motives remote from the desire to exploit those values that college is established to conserve and promote. Some are there because parents have made it so unpleasant that to go is the lesser evil. Others want the athletic rewards the college holds out; others the social rewards and the supposed social prestige. Many are persuaded that business and professional success are furthered by friends at college, if not by college training, and so they take as little college as possible in order to get as much of the social life as possible.

The critic of our college inquires, "But why do you take these youth?" It is a fair inquiry, and the answer is that many of us will not take such students if we know the facts, but some of them are quite clever enough to get by entrance examinations and other hurdles set up by ingenious college officials, even in interview they may make a presentable appearance, and then having forced the walls of the educational Eden, they lie down in the lotus garden and are heard of no more until some time in the freshman year the garden gate clangs with them on the outside. And again the critic asks, "Why, having let the lad in, do you not stir his latent enthusiasm, appeal to his modern ideals and save him for a respectable academic career?"

The reply is that we sometimes do succeed in just this process, but often we fail, and largely because the lad's own attitude is at the outset so essentially perverse. It becomes clear too late that he ought never to have come, and here again the experience of the public and the endowed institution are one. In this matter the public institution has, if possible, a greater stake than the private one, for it is on the average larger and its processes of academic digestion are by so much the more difficult. Furthermore, it is often less able to protect itself by relatively arbitrary barriers and entrance. No one wants the hard working, seriously intentioned student robbed of his chance, but on the other hand, there is small reason for expending money and human effort on young people who deliberately mean not to cooperate with the institution or who lack utterly the traits, moral or intellectual, to gain from the college that which it is designed to give.

After all, ladies and gentlemen, a country's greatest resource is the untrained talent of its rising generation. To search this out and give it full opportunity is surely a good philosophy for a democracy. Whether we represent endowed or the publicly-supported institutions, there rests on all alike the imperative obligation to exercise to the uttermost such creative imagination as we can command, such wisdom and energy and devotion to meet the bewildering educational needs of our time and

people. If the greatest experiment in selfgovernment ever undertaken by man is to avoid the pitfalls of pervasive vulgarity and meretricious ignorance, masquerading as sophisticated intelligence, if it is to survive the sinister influences of political corruption and commercial greed, if it is to come into its heritage of great intellectual and spiritual achievement which shall furnish the indispensable counterpart and complement to its unprecedented material accumulations, it is chiefly to education that we must look, and education whose development will call for all those human qualities of courage and vision and self-sacrifice which we justly esteem most high. We may well pray that we be not found wanting in this supreme test of our national life.

THE STATE UNIVERSITY—ITS RELATION TO PUBLIC EDUCATION

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The state universities of America are an expression of the spirit of the pioneers who settled west of the Appalachian Mountains. True, they had their origin in democratic Virginia, but their expansion and development came with the growth of the Central West. Since then they have spread to the South and across the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific coast.

The state universities represent the culmination of democracy's effort to advance itself by education. They have thrived and flourished where democracy has thrived and flourished. Wholly unsympathetic with every attempt to transplant an alien university system to American soil, the great body of citizens in the Mississippi Valley, and later to the South and West, sought the establishment of institutions of higher learning, open to all, sensitive to public need, supported largely by taxes levied upon all, and designed and administered to promote the public welfare.

The state universities and the public schools evolved out of the same set of conditions. The arguments for the establishment of the universities were essentially the same as those for the establishment of the public schools, only raised to a higher power. The public schools were intended to be free schools; the state universities were intended to be as nearly free as possible. The doors of the public schools were to be wide open; likewise the state universities were expected to admit those who had completed the work of the next lower unit of the public schools. The public schools were maintained to provide for each individual that training by which he could profit most; the state universities offered additional training for those who were capable of pursuing their studies into still higher realms. Both the public schools and the state universities were founded on the assumption that society's welfare is best promoted by providing as nearly free and equal educational opportunities and privileges as possible. Indeed

from early colonial times this conception has been assumed to be one of the surest guarantees of civil liberty.

But of late, a tide of criticism of the public schools in general and of state universities in particular has begun to flow. Today it is a report of one of the great corporations that arraigns the cost of the state universities in most vigorous language and declares that they have become the victims of mediocrity. Tomorrow it is a report from one of the great foundations declaring that the students should pay the cost of their instruction. The next day it is an address from one of the distinguished citizens of America in which the same declarations are made. Then follows another report, brilliantly written, comparing the best of European secondary schools with American secondary schools of lower grade, discrediting the work of the American schools. Then comes a report from the manufacturers' association calling for new limits on child labor legislation and the extension of the privileges of work for children. Then follows a report of the United States Chamber of Commerce presenting figures showing that education is costing too much. One cannot view an array of samples of this nature without stopping to think. If these criticisms and others like them mean anything, they mean that we need to clarify and to redefine our philosophy of life and of education, for it is obvious, even to the casual observer or student, that a wide difference of opinion exists between the dominant philosophies with regard to education.

The state universities and the public schools from the beginning have been maintained to provide freedom of opportunity. One of their fundamental doctrines has been equal opportunity for all to reach their highest attainments. They have stood vigorously against class education. They have provided educational facilities for all alike, the rich and the poor, the boy and the girl, the Gentile and the Jew, the Fundamentalist and the Modernist, the Conformist and the Non-conformist, the Religionist and the Atheist. Free of denominational control, the state universities are nevertheless Christian in spirit, Christian in ideals, and Christian in fellowship. They are open alike to those of social station and to those without. Long ago they learned that genius and talent do not belong to any class based upon wealth or social position. The only differences they recognize are differences due to ability and to a desire to achieve. They recognize that not all can achieve alike or move forward at equal rates of speed. They know that some must fall by the way and that some attempt that which they are not qualified to pursue. But they are not willing to condemn those of less talent merely because they have less talent. They propose for them just what they propose for the more talented; that is that each shall be permitted to progress as rapidly as his abilities will permit to the approximate limits of his attainment. The student of few talents shall not be denied his opportunity while the student of many talents is given his.

The state universities and the public schools have persistently maintained that they are training the common people for the common weal. They have believed in the unlimited potentialities of the individual. In maintaining this as an ideal they have merely been expressing the spirit and philosophy of the free people who support them.

Let the state universities set themselves up as class institutions and the support which they have hitherto received will quickly vanish and other institutions will arise out of the soil which gave them birth to take their places.

All other criticisms notwithstanding, if the American people have any great passion, it is a passion for education. They may not all be imbued with a flare for learning, they may not all be endowed with a "divine afflatus" for truth, but of this one thing we may be certain, no matter how vigorous the criticism of college and university education may be, the people of this country, those who vote and pay the taxes and support its institutions, will not permit their children to be deprived of their inherent privilege to attend college. They will establish new ones if they have to, even though the taxes must be increased to support them.

It is claimed that the average ability of the student bodies in these days is lower than it was fifteen years ago. This may be true; but based upon *a priori* evidence, this claim is difficult to establish. The standards of admission to college and the standards of college work certainly are higher today than ever before in all of the history of American education. This is as true of the state universities as it is of the privately endowed universities. If one listens to much of the current criticism he despairs of the college student, but he takes heart when he observes on commencement day that thousands of those who were supposed to be mentally incompetent have completed to the satisfaction of the faculty all of the requirements for their degrees. And it should be remembered that those requirements for the most part are determined by those of alleged superior intelligence of a generation ago.

We hear much about mass education, and the absence of the personal touch between university teacher and student. All of the teachers of a generation or so ago did not hold personal communion with their students either; a few of them did; most of them did not. A student then often got very little intelligent advice concerning himself; today he gets advice scientifically determined concerning his health, mental makeup, emotional maladjustments, and vocational potentialities.

We probably forget that there were not very many dynamic personalities on the teaching force in earlier days. There were a few, praise be, and most of us acknowledge their strength of character and personal influence. One of the educational myths is that all of the teachers were of this type. Far from it. We should remind ourselves that there are dynamic personalities who are forceful teachers on the teaching staff today and that twenty years hence, they, too, will be remembered with affection by their students.

Not all state university teachers are of the type which R. L. Duffus, a writer for the Sunday supplement, New York Times, January 8, describes, "For himself (that is, the teacher in the state university) he needs the arts of the orator quite as much as those of the scholar. He must be ready with stories, with amusing illustrations. He must possess the ability to dramatize his subject, so that the dozing student in the last row will every now and then wake up and grasp a fact or principle." Without claiming that teachers should be entertainers, perhaps a little of the power of lucid presentation may be good for a teacher wherever he is. Experience has clearly demonstrated that men who place themselves rather than the materials of their subjects in the forefront, are condemned by faculty and students alike.

In moments of great exultation Americans in general are disposed to praise their schools and the profession of teaching. They view with pride the public schools and the state universities as the agencies of the greatest experiment democracy has ever undertaken. It is the experiment of providing or of attempting to provide, largely by taxation, for the education of the children of all men and of offering to them, as nearly free as possible, equal educational privileges from the kindergarten to the university. The burden which the present generation has to bear in maintaining this experiment is incomparably lighter than that which our sacrificial forefathers bore to establish this great system of popular education. Certainly it is true that the torch of American civilization has been passed from generation to generation, not by tradition, but through the processes of an expanding education. Shall some generation in the comparatively near future witness the dimming of that torch because it provides the maximum opportunity for the children of the favored and denies the maximum opportunity for the children of the less favored?

Americans have long maintained that equality of opportunity is essential to the development, the safety and the perpetuity of democratic institutions. And by equality of opportunity none but the most uninformed have ever thought that it meant equality of ability. Equality of opportunity has been relied on to produce a worthy democratic citizenship.

Education has been supported as a social investment. It has been assumed that society's contribution to the education of its children is returned manyfold in service, progress, and wealth. And the facts, I believe, fully justify that theory. One only needs to point to the states that have neglected education as contrasted with the states that provide generously for education, to find evidence in support of this assumption. If one will take the five states that have provided most liberally for education, and compare them with the five states that have provided most parsimoniously for education, he will find that the average earnings of the families in the former are almost twice those of the latter, that the amount per individual in the savings banks is nearly ten times greater per individual in the former than in the latter, that the number of books

in the libraries and the number of magazines and newspapers subscribed to is vastly greater in the former, and that the living conditions by and large are much superior in the former.

One of the things we are sometimes prone to forget is that we pay for the things we don't have as truly as we pay for the things we do have, but we pay in a different kind of coin. One has only to sweep his eye over the world to find abundant support for this statement. The nations that have been unwilling to spend on education are the victims of ignorance, superstition, destitution, and of all the wretchedness that comes in their train. America has achieved her station, not by a withholding but by a generous spending. And she has done it by refusing to close the gates of educational opportunity. Generous donors and generous states have kept them open. Shall she now turn her back on the past and, heedless of its lessons, initiate a new philosophy, one which provides the best of higher education for the privileged few who possess the money to pay for it? Or shall she continue to hold steadfastly to the theory that democracy in the final analysis is a process of continuous education and that this nation can keep her place at the forefront among the nations of the world by providing more, not less, generously for the education of all?

If society is growing more complex, as most of us believe, its problems more numerous, more intricate and more difficult of solution, then more, not less, education will be required for their solution. How tenaciously did our forefathers hold to the doctrine that the progressive advancement of democratic institutions depended upon an educated citizenry! An able attorney said to me recently, "Mr. Coffman, civilization has been ruined by education. Do you suppose you can make people competent to vote on public questions by giving them an education?" My only answer was, "I know of no other way."

And if the education of a generation is to become increasingly more selective, as some advocate, so that only the gifted possess knowledge concerning the complex problems of modern life, which we are constantly called upon to consider and, we have thought, to assist in solving, if college education is to be only for the select, then it becomes alien to the spirit which gave birth to public education and to the state universities. If pursued to its logical conclusion, this doctrine means that free government, based upon universal citizenship, cannot endure. We are not ready to admit, without adequate trial, that the great American experiment has failed. We are not yet ready to create by deliberate act an uneducated and uninformed proletariat.

We know that there are many who maintain that too many are in school and that too many are being graduated from college. There does not appear to be any trustworthy information showing that the professions, in general, are overcrowded. And we do not seem to have too many persons with a knowledge of government and of the other institutions of men. Where trained intelligence exists there we seem to

have the best citizenship. And is not citizenship a function which all classes of people are expected to exercise? Shall we deny those who are to traverse the humbler walks of life the outlook of the trained mind? If we attempt to do it we shall probably find ourselves reckoning without our host, for as Lincoln said, "God must have loved the common people. He made so many of them," and they still rule in the land.

The state universities and the public schools have had still another common interest, an interest to which reference has already been made but which is deserving of further consideration. This interest may be best described by reference to an address which I heard a gentleman deliver recently before a distinguished midwestern club. He said, "College education, and perhaps secondary education, to some degree at least, should be based upon wealth. Those who are able to pay for it should be privileged to get it; those who cannot pay for it, should be denied it." Here we have a doctrine, stripped of all veneer, that education in its upper reaches should minister only to an aristocracy of wealth.

It is a fact that there are almost no free universities any more in this country. The fees charged students by state universities have been increasing but they are not so large, nor have they increased so rapidly, as fees charged by private universities. If they must now be increased so that the students pay the full cost or approximately the tuition cost of higher education, then one of the original primary purposes of the state universities will have been defeated.

The gentleman to whom I referred a few moments ago, declared that all education is simply a matter of charity and that the costs of education should be compared with the money given to charity. Viewed in this way it is clear that education is absorbing an unreasonable proportion of the nation's wealth. He stated also that the disintegrating effects of such charitable giving become even more pronounced in the case of students in colleges and universities and especially if the students are being trained for the more lucrative professions. He demanded that this pauperization should cease because of its deleterious social consequences. It requires a type of reasoning which I am as yet unable to comprehend to understand how those who have themselves been the beneficiaries of this social charity and who because of it have achieved wealth and recognition in their communities, should now suddenly discover its harmful effects and seek to deny the children of others and even their own sometimes, the advantages which they themselves enjoyed.

Suppose it should happen that the great privately endowed universities should become even more select and that men of means and the great foundations should continue to endow them with increasing millions and the state universities at the same time were unable to make corresponding progress, then we should, indeed, have what some claim we already have, provincial education in the private institutions and a cheap variety of education for the less favored thousands in the state institutions. Far

be it from me to look with envy upon large gifts to private universities. I am especially happy to see them prosper, but I hold at the same time that the state universities, if the common weal is to be served, should prosper in corresponding degree. Education should be looked upon as national, not as a local enterprise; as a common, not as a class undertaking.

The country as a whole will flourish best if there are many rather than a few centers where distinguished men of art, of literature, and of science are perpetuating their own kind.

The last proposition to which I wish to call attention is likewise one to which reference has already been made. Stated more directly, however, the state universities and the public schools are unwilling to accept the doctrine of a self-appointed aristocracy of brains as their sole or primary function. They fully understand that there is a somewhat popular impression that wherever "mass" education exists, a term which I deplore, for I believe there is no such thing as mass education, but wherever it is said to exist, it is believed, there is no training for leadership and yet training for leadership is, in the opinion of many, the only justification for higher institutions of learning. Leadership, it should be remembered, is a relative term. Probably no one is a leader in everything; he leads in some respects and follows in others. Intelligent followership may be quite as important in a democracy as intelligent leadership.

There are those who maintain that the efficiency and value of the higher institutions of learning are determined by the selective and eliminating processes; the fewer they admit and the more they eliminate the better they are. Some on the other hand measure their progress by the numbers of students they attract. Neither of these measures is adequate and neither can be applied without reservation to state institutions. A state institution will eliminate those who cannot do its work, but it will not refuse to give the individual who can do its work a chance to spend more than four years in accomplishing a given task if there seems to be good reason for it. It is unwilling to accept slowness as a sure sign of incompetency.

And admitting large numbers of students does not mean that the state universities are not training for leadership. If they are not already doing so, they should be offering every opportunity for the talented and the gifted and they should be encouraging them in every possible way. In discoursing upon this matter former Dean Eugene Davenport of the University of Illinois said a few years ago, "We hear too much about educating for leadership. What the world wants is not leaders of whom we have a surfeit, but rather information and trained habits of thinking that it may select its leaders wisely. This all means the closest possible working relations between the institutions and the citizenship of the state, between those who, feeling the pressure of unsolved problems, realize the need of better information for those whose business it is to

supply the need. A university so guided will remain close to the people and close to its problems. A university that so functions will not come very far from fulfilling its highest usefulness."

Two documents dealing pointedly with this general problem have recently appeared. One of them is the January issue of Ginn and Company's leaflet on "What the colleges are doing," and the other is the annual report of President Butler of Columbia University. The Ginn leaflet is a series of extracts from articles or bulletins, which reveal a common theme; they favor rigid selection of students.

Among other things these authors have set up a new conception of social justice. They argue that fewer students should be admitted and more should be eliminated, because the mediocre students are trespassing upon the time and rights of a high-minded faculty who are giving generously, and with high altruistic motives, of their energy and ability for the advancement of society; because the mediocre students are depriving the brilliant students of that opportunity which they covet of maximum achievement, and because the mediocre students are defrauding their parents, friends, and society in general out of the greater returns and rewards which would accrue if society invested only in the gifted.

The statement is made that "the stampede into college life today is in a great measure blind, ill-considered, and without high motive," that the college market is saturated with mediocrity, that the keynote of the college world is the tragedy of the unfit, that the colleges are engaged in a wildcat exploitation of youth, that education for democracy should cease, and that education for aristocracy should take its place.

One of the articles in particular seems to hold the colleges responsible for the ills and sins of society. "For not a third of all that graduate see in their own intellectual growth sufficient compensation for the labors of a college career. Most, on the contrary, feel that they have sacrificed time and energy, and for the loss thus sustained they mean to recover from society. Is the legal profession being prostituted by the practitioner who brings with him into practice the ethics of the bootlegger and the heart of the pawnbroker? Then the remedy is not in stricter requirements for admission to the bar. The evil originates at the threshold of the law school or earlier, and there it is to be combatted or abandoned."

I have long known that the schools of this country had their weaknesses but never before did I assume that they should be held primarily responsible for the sins of men. I knew that they had been forced to assume many burdens which did not belong to them but not until I read these articles did I understand that the colleges of this country because they have not been exclusive, are responsible for bootlegging lawyers and medical fishmongers. Were this true I should say that it were high time that Jehovah direct his destructive thunderbolts at these dens of iniquity.

The common theme running through the series of articles is education for the elect. To this doctrine we agree that those who cannot profit by college training should not be permitted to attempt it or to remain at college. Those who can profit by it but will not, likewise should not be permitted to remain at college. Colleges should not be regarded as playhouses, eleemosynary institutions or rest stations. At the same time there are those of us who remember with gratitude that talent and genius were not the sole requisites for admission to college in our day.

The authors of these articles say they are thinking in terms of social justice. I maintain that their doctrine is the doctrine of individualism concealed under the cloak of social justice. The conception of social justice advanced by these writers is new in the field of education. While it has been advanced here and there by writers, it never before could be dignified as a movement. The focus of our attention, educationally speaking, years ago was upon the individual; more recently it has been upon those things which minister to the common welfare. The scene in education has been shifting from man to his activities; from individualism to the common good; from personality to commonality; from what is best for the individual to what is best for the community. And the common good has not been conceived as depending upon the training of the gifted alone, but upon the training of all who are competent to profit by training.

In his annual report, President Butler distinguishes between universities that reside in the sphere of liberty and universities that reside in the sphere of government. He defines the institutions of liberty as those supported by benefactions while the institutions of government are those supported by taxes. "Free men," he says, "have themselves erected government and have given to it for domain and occupation a very small part of all that constitutes their activity, physical, intellectual, social, moral, economic, reserving the vast and unlimited remainder for themselves as the sphere of liberty." And again he says, "The vast advantage which a university erected in the sphere of liberty has over a university erected in the sphere of government is in its freedom from bureaucratic control, from partisan political pressure and from those urgings which are the unhappy result of compromise between clashing convictions and conflicting public policies. A university in the sphere of liberty is master of its own destiny and is responsible only to its own ideals and to that larger public which has brought into existence both the sphere of liberty and that of government."

The obvious inference from this is that state universities are greatly limited as to domain and occupation, that is as to the scope of their usefulness, while the endowed universities are practically unlimited as to the scope of their usefulness. If it be true that the social justifications lying back of these two types of universities, possess these sanctions, then it is clear that these two types of universities do not operate and are not

expected to operate in the same field. Furthermore, it is clear that we are dealing with differences in kind as well as with differences in degree when we think of the service these two types of universities render. It may be that society must rely even more heavily in the future than in the past for its leadership upon the dwellers in the sphere liberty, while institutions which it itself provides shall be for the training of citizens for the more modest and humbler walks of life. I suspect that if public universities can continue to develop citizens and, if I may dare to say it, "true leaders," as they have in the past and in increasing numbers, no imaginary line will ever be drawn between a school in the sphere of liberty and a school in the sphere of government.

A second inference to be drawn from Dr. Butler's statement is that endowed universities sustain no interference with their freedom while state universities do. There is abundant evidence, I believe, in support of the opinion that endowed universities, generally speaking, are influenced, controlled and frequently governed quite as directly, oft times more obviously, by the donors of their funds than state universities are by the taxpaying public. The fundamental question of public concern is not that of control versus freedom, for all institutions are controlled. It is the question of whether the control always seeks to advance public interest.

This distinction of President Butler's raises again, and from a new quarter, the question of the purpose and place of the two types of higher education in a democracy. No matter from what source universities receive their support, they should, in my opinion, seek an atmosphere of freedom in which to do their work and they should view with disfavor any movement or attempt, whether it be directed at state or endowed institutions, to curtail their freedom. The subservience of one institution must eventually menace the life of the other. A state university must, if it is to be worthy of the name university, be as truly a republic of minds where truth is fearlessly sought and taught, as is an endowed university. We cannot have two classes of true universities in America, one serving in the Empyrean fields of liberty and the other with its hands and feet of clay serving in the field of government. Each must serve in both fields, if both liberty and government are to survive.

And now in conclusion let me say that both the public schools and the state universities represent the struggles of a free people to establish a system of popular education. The relationship between popular education on the one hand and democratic society on the other, is one which the American people still feel with responding devotion. The freer the political institutions of men the more widely scattered are the schools for everybody; the more restricted the political institutions of men the less widely scattered are the schools for everybody. The chief means of control in a democracy is some form of popular education. It is no mere accident of time and place that Americans have fostered public education for all. None recognized the truth of this more than Thomas

Jefferson who declared that a free government cannot endure without public education. He gave a mighty impetus to its cause. From then until now the public schools and the state universities have advanced, sometimes with uncertain and halting steps, but the movement in general has always been forward. Could our forefathers have looked into the future, they would have known that this great experiment in democracy was secure, for its foundations are rooted in the idealism of the people and in provisions which they consider wise for meeting the necessities of their social and political structure.

THE RELATION OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS TO HIGHER EDUCATION

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It is not my purpose on this occasion to strike a discordant note by dwelling on the shortcomings of either the public schools, or the institutions of higher learning. Those shortcomings are all too frequently set forth by the one or the other group from the angle of its respective grievances. It is a matter of common knowledge that the college deplores the inadequate preparation of entrants, objects to their light and easy ways of life, their lack of serious purpose, their propensity to show more concern for athletics than for study, and their immediate and complete absorption on entering college in making a fraternity to the exclusion of the more important consideration of orienting themselves educationally and making a fine start on what is supposed to be the reason for college residence, namely, the furthering of the business of becoming educated.

It is also matter of common knowledge that the proponents of the public school frequently inveigh against the domination of the higher institutions which seek to impose on the preparatory schools subjects and methods along with the scholastic standards and ideals of the university. The leaders in secondary school education criticize what they choose to call the desocializing and dehumanizing of instruction so prevalent in the lecture system and in some of the research work. They deplore the exclusion from college of large numbers of promising youth because of deviations in their preparation from what are decried as unimportant and meticulous academic requirements as set forth in the college prospectus. It is true that in the same breath in which the public school people complain of the exclusion from college of large numbers of deserving youth, they object to the crowds on the campus and the consequent lack of supervision of college youth on the part of instructors.

With none of these matters of controversy are we concerned today. This, rather, is our inquiry, What should be the common objective of all education and the respective relations of public schools and colleges to that common objective which, if discovered, will determine their rela-

tions the one to the other? Of the many definitions of education (and they are as numerous as the books on that subject) there is one that states its own objective; education is the experience of acquiring and organizing knowledge for the purpose of conserving and increasing human excellence, our own and that of others. With such an objective before us, in seeking an education for ourselves and in furthering that of others, it is apparent that some types of knowledge, experience, and instructional technic will further the end sought and others may prove a distinct hindrance. It must, therefore, be the constant effort of public schools and of higher education to discover and organize that knowledge, to provide those experiences, and master those technics that have definite value in raising the levels of human excellence.

May I be pardoned the expression of an opinion that in recent years the public schools have been quite as keenly conscious of their obligation to function as promoters of the general good through education as have the schools of higher learning, perhaps even more so, nor do they deserve any special credit for their increased concern and activity in the direction of achieving something noteworthy by way of general improvement through education, for, as a matter of fact, a few years ago, with the enactment of compulsory education laws in many states, they found themselves confronted with the entire mass of the nation's children, with no right to pick and choose their clientele and with no power to exclude any save the dangerously diseased and the idiot; only recently in at least one state has it been made possible by law to exclude even the dangerously diseased and idiot. Under such conditions, the schools have been forced to find a way of breathing light and life into a chaotic mass of childhood, the brilliant and the stupid, the clean and the unclean, the strong and the anæmic, the capable and the handicapped, the fit and the unfit, or sink under the oppressive weight. Realizing that there was no possibility of escaping the uttermost handicap and difficulty of perverse, ignorant, neglected, and starved childhood, the public schools on the passing of compulsory education laws set to work with courage and determination to raise the levels of thought and behavior in their respective communities by clearing the path for childhood; no matter what the hindrance—poverty, hunger, physical handicaps, mental disability, or depraved environment, the schools little by little have become brave to make the way plain for youth. It has been a great experiment and, I may say, an unparalleled demonstration in the conscious and controlled evolution of humanity, inspired by an impelling belief in the improvability of human nature and life.

It may be appropriate just here to make clear through a few references to public school efforts and projects just what is involved in this obligation to receive all children and direct education so that their lives may be benefited and society improved. Perhaps no more impressive example of the organization of knowledge to the ends of human improvement can be had than the eager adaptation of the results of the scientific study of the human intelligence and the consequent improvement of instruction,

not only for the well-favored child, but more especially for the one mentally handicapped. Not for one moment have the public schools permitted themselves to think that any child with a degree of mental inferiority at all educable might be shunted into the discards. Their whole-hearted allegiance to the proposition that it is the business of education to increase human excellence has urged them to overlook no group, the neglect of which might lessen the chance of success in this great human enterprise. To this end, no time or effort has been spared in the adaptation of the materials and technic of instruction to the intelligence of the child of low mentality. One marvels, for instance, at the patient trials of devices in the interest of the non-reader; one marvels more at the successful results of those efforts, as evidenced in the acquirement of reading ability. To this same end, also, is the care taken to relieve children of the sense of failure by grouping them on the basis of their ability to progress, so that those who must advance slowly may use the time in acquiring the essentials of a particular grade, thereby securing promotion, while those who are able to progress rapidly are given enriched courses, or are permitted to cover the work of the grades in less than the allotted time.

But human excellence is hard to attain and the public schools have found it necessary to draw upon all knowledge and expert skill in their efforts to lift the levels of life. Because the mal-nourished, tubercular, deformed child is a drag in the race for excellence, they have availed themselves of the most advanced knowledge and its best application to the requirements of health. As a particular instance of the special attention given to matters of health, it has been observed of late that there is a marked increase in heart disturbances of every sort, even in very young children. One of the great Mayo brothers of the Middle West, physicians of international renown, in a recent interview to which much publicity was given, confirmed this conclusion and stated that, while diseases such as typhoid fever and tuberculosis were now largely under control, the stimulating influences, and especially the speed of modern life, were creating a new health problem in the rapid increase of heart disturbances. An eminent diagnostician has recently given out a finding to the effect that one out of every twelve deaths is due to some circulatory difficulty. Those in charge of the health of public school children have for some time been concerned over this new menace to childhood. They have not, however, been content to accept the fact and rest there, but, true to their urge to improve life, they have set to work to establish a regimen for the relief, if not the removal, of this menacing physical handicap through proper food, exercise, and through moderation of the living pace of the young.

Thus briefly I have referred to some of the evidences that the public schools are courageously undertaking the task of lifting the levels of human excellence, and that to accomplish this they have been forced to admit their obligation to receive all the children of the nation as their educational apportionment, not merely "to have and to hold" for a period

of years, but to transform into better human material, even at the cost of many a personal satisfaction on the part of teachers.

My illustrations thus far have been taken from the remedial phases of public school work and have described efforts made to overcome such conditions as would inevitably depress the scale of man's accomplishments. The removal of the handicaps to progress, it must be admitted, does not insure an actual forward movement; that can come only from the advancing achievements of those who are ready to start at the signal. The great work of public education is, after all, its constructive program, by which the capable are made more fit through daily contacts with high standards of thought and behavior, as revealed in books, in the refinements of literature, music, and art, as gained through school activities, and above all through the teacher's attitude toward life and its possibilities.

It is frequently said that "mediocrity is the curse of democracy." There is an element of truth in this statement. The schools of America, however, are unwilling to admit that this must necessarily be true in every democracy and at all times. It is their constant ambition to demonstrate the improbability of all human nature and the entire possibility of lifting the common man to new and higher levels of thinking and feeling. They have small patience with the determinists' doctrine that the intellectual fate and, to a large degree, the educational possibilities of every child are fixed at birth. Have they not lived through a quarter century of compulsory education, during which they have verified by successful demonstration the entire possibility of endowing the masses through various intellectual experiences, if not with greatly increased native intelligence, at least with an acquired intelligence that increases vastly the sum total of human achievement?

It should be further stated that these successful demonstrations have resulted in face of the initial handicap that a technic of social and educational procedure for the improvement of so tremendous an influx of the unfit had to be set up almost over night and that the development of such technic was further complicated in the great centers of population by problems arising from the incoming hordes of the foreign-born, whose language handicaps made necessary still further modifications of educational procedure. Recall the picture of the young teacher confronted with forty little children, not one of whom can speak a word of English. Her responsibility is to educate those children on schedule time in the intellectual skills needed for life, train them in correct mental habits, and inspire them with American ideals. To her everlasting credit, be it said that the public school teacher holds fast to her faith that education is for the increasing of human excellence, nor does she falter in her will to realize that ideal.

Just at this point in its work, public education must plead guilty to at least one default. It is in not making the most of the super-excellent child, that child who, if educated to the full measure of his capabilities and consequent responsibilities, is the finest hope of future progress. The

grade routine of the public schools has been more or less of a leveler, permitting too little elasticity of program to take care of the higher degrees of intelligence and small chance for accelerating the progress of the one who should quicken his pace. Not the least of the embarrassments of the administrator in his efforts to meet the schools' obligations to the superior child is the lack of understanding teachers, those able to select the appropriate materials of learning for these eager minds and so guide their social adjustments as to keep these children on good terms with their kind and still mentally enriched and emotionally stabilized. At any rate, it should be said that the schools are at least awake to their possibilities and responsibilities in this most important particular. Everywhere there are stirrings that indicate a realization of a deficiency to be met and of an obligation to bring about such adjustments of school procedure as will make more possible the suitable and accelerated education of those of superior intelligence.

Thus far in this discussion the relation of the public school to institutions of advanced learning has not been indicated, and yet such relation is implied. We of the public schools have the enviable opportunity—and I say that in sincerity—of helping all children to a fuller realization of their possibilities; we have the further obligation of determining in large measure who of all this vast throng have shown in the public schools an ability and disposition so to acquire and organize knowledge and interpret experiences as to conserve and increase human excellence, their own and that of others, since these, and these only, are they who should enjoy the great and costly privilege of four more years of advanced learning. They may be rich, they may be poor; they may be brilliant, they may have only ordinary comprehension; they may be socially experienced or otherwise; they may be expressive or reflective in disposition—it does not so much matter as to their circumstances, their dispositions, or their mental acumen: it does, however, greatly matter whether they have grasped the significance of life and the meaning of education in terms of human excellence, whether they have mastered in some small way, such as could be fairly expected from those who are still young, the art of discovering and assembling knowledge, of discriminating between the essential and non-essential in any situation, of holding judgment in poise until the evidence is all in, of tightening the leash on emotions until they can be expressed in appropriate and constructive behavior. The privilege of going to college, already great and costly, I would make exclusive, but exclusive not in terms of birth, social privilege, athletic prowess, intelligence quotients, or any single qualification, but in any combination whatever that would insure to the world a college graduate who senses that the great business of the educated man or woman is the conserving and increasing of human excellence. None others can with justice claim the right to what should be held a mark of distinction.

With so many in college without adequate preparation in the way of a mastery of the technic of the learning process, without any sense what-

ever of the privilege accorded and of their obligation to society for the great opportunity, without any objective which they could state other than that going to college is the correct thing, that it gives one social prestige and makes desirable business contacts more assured for the future, is not cause for congratulation on the part of the public schools which prepare and recommend these youth. Nor do I think that such a standard as that indicated above, namely, an appreciation of the value of knowledge as an instrument of world progress would necessarily lessen the numbers seeking admission: it would, however, immeasurably increase the mental and ethical quality of the candidates, always granting that high-school principals undertake in serious fashion a program of college guidance early enough in the life of the student to capture his attention before it has been riveted upon less important matters. By this college guidance, I do not mean a mere setting forth of the number of units of this and the other subject that must be taken in order to enter the one or the other college; that is important—but more important, both for the high school and the college, is that guidance which inspires in the students genuine respect for knowledge as the instrument by which forever the life of communities and states must be improved, if improved at all.

The one great motive that should be urged for continuing the education of youth beyond that point where they have mastered the tools of learning and have gained an understanding of their natural and social environment is that they give fair promise of belonging to that group whose minds will be quickened and whose natures will be ennobled to react intelligently and constructively to the acquiring and organizing of knowledge for human betterment. How can we expect the young to attain this understanding if our talk of college is always in terms of subject units, if during those high school days there are always football, track, school paper, and school play assemblies, assemblies for all manner of “asides,” but rarely or never a “going-to-college” assembly, if we discuss the advantages of a college education in terms of social prestige, of enhanced business prospects, of pleasant memories, of “no more delightful way in which to spend four years of one’s life,” but exhibit little regard and less understanding and appreciation of the priceless value of the knowledge and thought power to be there acquired?

However much the college may be found wanting in its service to youth, it still remains true that the public schools do not themselves prize knowledge and its use for the increase of human excellence so highly as could be desired. It still is true that our college guidance of youth is most faulty. I grant you that the institutions of higher learning are themselves at fault for an overemphasis upon subject requirements, which amounts to a constant suggestion to high-school principals and teachers to forget other weighty matters of college guidance, which have been here set forth, and consider their work of direction complete when, after many a mad scramble, the college entrant makes his last subject hurdle and lands on the college campus.

To sum up the situation as regards the relation of the high school to the college in this particular, namely, who shall be entitled to attend the institution of higher learning, there is, as I see it, a need for more serious attention on the part of both the high school and the college to their common objective, the increase of human excellence. To secure this great objective, the high school should develop the right sort of college guidance, and the college should relax somewhat of its too meticulous subject requirements in the interests of the student who is genuinely intelligent and understanding about the value of knowledge and its application to the betterment of life.

And what of the place to be taken by higher education under this common obligation of the schools to raise the levels of human excellence? I approach this part of the discussion I hope with modesty, as becomes one who is not in a way to make first-hand contacts with the educational attitudes and aspirations of the college and the university. From the point of view of the interested observer, my conclusion is that, despite the countercurrents that sometimes compel a notice quite disproportionate to their real importance, the great stream of higher education is pouring on majestically, that, while in its progress it may not leave so generous an outpouring of common benefits as could be desired, it is at least not devastating society with floods of propaganda based on irrational and insufficient premises; rather it seems that the stream of higher education is broadening with the broadening of human vision and that its depths will yet fathom the uttermost of human needs; for the heart, as well as the head, of higher education is in the main right.

It is sometimes said that it is the business of higher education to train the leaders of the nation and that only on those fit to lead should the nation's money be spent in providing education beyond the common schools. We could hardly set before the colleges an educational aim that we should hesitate to reveal to the students themselves as one worthy to become their own objective. Granting that many college graduates are destined to become leaders, granting that the nation has a right to expect leadership from those who have enjoyed and should have profited by advanced education, one can hardly think of a college president admonishing its graduates to advance upon the world forthwith and proffer their services as leaders. That is not the spirit of the great and good anywhere; rather this, "Whosoever will be the chief among you, let him be your servant." And that is the spirit of higher education, also; it commends to its graduates the consideration of such a legend as this, "To whom much has been given, from him shall much be required." It suggests that those who have enjoyed the privileges and advantages of higher opportunities owe to society a debt of service commensurate with society's investment in their young lives.

As one reviews the achievements of higher education and their bearing on the problem of increasing human excellence, it may not be inappropriate to suggest that at this time additional emphasis should be brought to bear

at two points, on the humanizing of knowledge and on the encouragement of the creative spirit, and that such added emphasis is almost sure to result in raising immeasurably the levels of human achievement.

May I point out that largely in one line only, that of the physical and material, has the wealth of scientific knowledge gained through the past few centuries been organized and adapted to the improvement of human life. May I further suggest that too much of the vast accumulations, the result of scientific research, has not been made available for the use or understanding of ordinary men. If it is sometimes urged as a reproach that, in spite of the efforts of the schools to educate youth to an appreciation of choice literature and to establish habits of good reading, as soon as the teachers drop out of the situation, these same youth read only trash, may it not also be urged that less trash would be read if the interest and curiosity of the ordinary mind were met with books in which the knowledge gained by the higher reaches of intelligence were couched in more readable, understandable form? May it not be that higher education owes society an obligation to court its lofty isolation less assiduously and to express its findings, at least outside its own scientific caste, in less abstruse and baffling terms, in order that the common, busy men and women may also have an entree into the sacred precincts of learning? There is surely great need that the knowledge now in the possession of higher education, that would be serviceable for the improvement of the social attitudes and spiritual natures of men, be made understandable and available for such service to a degree, if possible, somewhat commensurate with the contributions already made to the betterment of man's physical environment through scientific discovery and invention. Such knowledge is needed by the ordinary man as a stabilizer, for there is nothing he yearns for quite so much as a sense of stability and security. In his search for this, with what ease, for example, does he fall prey to intellectual quacks and imposters who, under the name of psychology or mental hygiene, or other worthy title, peddle their wares to an inexperienced public, promising in a few lessons to make the learner successful in every affair of life. We are emerging, let us hope, from the period of the patent medicine fraud, but spiritual quackery was never more menacing. The common man, for the very stabilizing of his intellectual and spiritual nature, needs not the disregard, but the help of higher learning, needs to have the findings of that learning interpreted so that he can understand what it is all about and what benefit he should reap from the vast output.

Pardon a very simple illustration, taken from one field of human activity, of how the simplifying of scientific findings may aid the busy person. A superintendent of schools is sometimes obliged to make this sort of appeal to his psychology department when that department has submitted a report all bristling with scientific terms that most skilfully conceal the information desired, "Now, just what are your findings, anyhow, just what do you mean? What I want to know is whether spelling in this

grade, or reading in that grade, has improved, or not? Just where in this abstruse report, in this medley of technical terms, of graphs and symbols, are the simple facts of progress, degree of progress, or deficiency, set forth?" The administrator in business, in schools, in any line of work, has not time to struggle with translations of the technical language of research, with which he is none too familiar, in order to secure a simple answer to a simple question, "Where do we stand now and in what direction should we next proceed, and how and why should we proceed in that particular way rather than another?" Frankly, much, so much, of research does not justify itself because it ends in research; and never eventuates in the improvement of any attitude of the public mind or of the organized processes of life.

If some of the instructors and assistant professors in our colleges were to find an outlet for their worthy ambitions not in a restless effort to get into the ranks of higher research, but in the equally useful function of interpretation of the findings of the research of others, they would bless the world in two ways: they would become better teachers of college youth and help the great intelligent public outside of the university to a few crumbs from the table of those rich in knowledge. At the present time the public must depend largely upon the journalists in the daily papers and current literature for scrappy, inexact, and sometimes grossly exaggerated and distorted statements of scientific findings.

It is admitted without a question that higher education must undertake a double task, that of instruction and research; instruction (including interpretation), in order that students may have a fair comprehension of the life of the world into which they have been ushered and their place in that world; and research, in order that new knowledge may be made available for the improvement and enrichment of human life.

To maintain a fair balance between these two functions of higher education is the serious responsibility of college administrators. To sacrifice instruction to research, especially if the so-called research is futile for any of the real purposes of society, must result in failure to meet the first obligation of the college, namely, to educate youth; to make no effort through research to push the confines of human knowledge yet a little further into the realms of the unknown is to doom civilization to stagnation and ultimate retrogression.

At the present moment, many thoughtful people are confident that instruction lags; that certain types of inconsequential research are unwisely stimulated. They believe that the function of research itself needs more careful definition and that only valid research should be encouraged and subsidized. They are furthermore of the opinion that the humanizing and interpreting of all knowledge, including the findings of real research, should be greatly strengthened in our colleges, so that the student body and society at large may constantly experience material and spiritual enrichment from its enormous investment in its schools of higher learning.

One other contribution to the increase of human excellence it is possible for higher education to make in larger measure than is now the case, namely, the encouragement of the creative ability of students. Learning in these days is so wedded to research that there is great possibility that students may be content to stop with the finding of truth and fail to realize the importance of the next significant step, that step which recombines the results of research into a new invention, a new principle, a new social adjustment, a new earth, and a new heaven. It is not too much to claim that the cherishing, encouraging, and releasing of the creative spirit in youth is the ultimate reason for being of all schools. Is it ever true that higher learning becomes so absorbed in the pursuit of its own schemes as to minimize the possible contributions of youth, and, through disregard, to discourage utterly the stirrings of the creative spirit? Is it ever true that the research imposed upon the initiate is inconsequential in comparison with issues that might result if he were permitted to follow the stirrings and leadings of his own thought? May it not be that the very first responsibility of higher education is to discover and encourage the creative spirit?

My attention has recently been called to some anthologies of student verse issued, one each year, in a western high school. Most of the verse is without merit. One poem, however, "The Prayer of Youth," because of its deep understanding of life and of its almost poignant beauty, deserves to live. Perhaps no Milton should ever be permitted to remain "mute and inglorious" with schools so abundant.

It is not, however, to creative efforts along literary lines that I chiefly refer, nor yet along the lines of mechanical invention, for there is no lag in material improvements. The feats of many a Colonel Lindbergh will yet make our hearts beat high with pride and awe. The lag that needs attention arises from weakness and failure in the judgments, emotions, and spiritual aspirations of men. We have, ah! yes, we have 20th century mechanical devices and conveniences in abundance, but we have only 19th century social vision and spiritual understanding. We try to legislate men into nobler living, but we lack the creative imagination to prevision how our laws will really operate and what new difficulties will develop through those same laws that in turn must be met.

Life itself, in and through its institutions, needs to be reinterpreted, and to that end, its religious, social, economic, and political institutions must have the help of creative minds to rebuild them with proportions to fit the broader outlook of men and nations, that outlook that sweeps the world and faces the challenge of the oneness of all human life, accepts the fact that the fate of every man is in the keeping of every other man the broad world over, that no one can finally be well and prosperous and content until all are equally blessed. Recently these words of Tagore, the poet of India, came to my notice: "I strongly feel that, under the continued threat of impending catastrophe likely to involve the whole human world in desolating hostilities, every individual today should realize

his responsibility for training the mind of the present generation to enable it to see all its important problems in the perspective of universal man. For the most outstanding fact of our age is that the drama of our destiny today has the whole world for its stage."

There must be more creative work in the actual equalizing of opportunities in our own democracy, in making political and business life more ethical, and, most important of all, in creating a new philosophy that will more perfectly satisfy the soul of modern life and make a convincing appeal to youth, ever eager to fare forth on some great adventure.

To higher learning we must look for the humanizing of the great accumulations of knowledge, and for the encouragement of the creative spirit that can alone vitalize knowledge and make it effective in raising the general levels of human intelligence and in securing the constant betterment of life.

AMERICA THE BEAUTIFUL

SINGING BY SCHOOL CHILDREN AND GREETINGS BY THE AUTHOR,
KATHERINE LEE BATES

President J. M. Gwinn—Now we are to have the singing of "America The Beautiful." As you know, the author is sitting on this stage. So that it may not interfere with the children's singing, I would suggest that you restrain your tendency to sing until the last stanza.

It is a matter of considerable interest that this chorus of girls represents twenty different nationalities, all singing "America The Beautiful."

I now have the very great honor, and I am certain a pleasure for all of you, to present the author of these beautiful words, a woman who stands out in Massachusetts as one of the great educational leaders, for many years a distinguished professor in Wellesley College. Her service has done much in bringing the young people from this land and those who come from foreign lands to our shores into a better understanding of American citizenship and the meaning of this country to them. I am, therefore, presenting at this time Katherine Lee Bates, author of "America The Beautiful." (The audience arose and applauded.)

Miss Katherine Lee Bates—It is a pleasure to meet here with my fellow teachers from all over our beloved country in the city of Boston.

I want to thank you all, and especially these children, for the great part that you and they performed in singing "America The Beautiful." The greeting that you have given me is far beyond anything that I personally deserve. It is not work to write a song, it is great joy, and this is, in reality, a very simple song, a simple framing of words. During the thirty years since I wrote it, I have seen such a love for America that

NOTE: The opening address at the Seventh General Session on Thursday afternoon, March 1, was delivered by William M. Davidson, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa., on "Education and the Nation." This address will be published in full in Volume 66 of the *Proceedings of the National Education Association*.

it has been made something far greater than it ever was in its original inception.

Dr. Gwinn asked me to tell you how it came into being. It is a very brief story, for I remember very little about it. It was thirty-five years ago, if my count is right, in the year of the World's Fair, that I made my first journey to the far West. My first great thrill was at Chicago. I saw America in the making, and this lovely city turned all men into poets, realizing that against the smoke-stained, sin-stained city of the day there lay the possibility of some spiritual invention that should give us cities that were all beautiful.

We went out and crossed the prairies and the farm lands and the richness of the farm lands and the great wheat fields impressed the memory of those poets, Pilgrims from East to West who were building at such cost the material prosperity of our country, and we came at last to the Rocky Mountains in all their majesty, and climbed at last the mystic height of Pike's Peak. It was during our brief stay there that summer, looking out over that great expanse, that the opening stanza was promoted in my mind. Coming down to Colorado Springs where a band of eastern educators were working for a few weeks in a summer school, I remember writing the opening stanzas in a notebook that was traveling with me, a notebook that I did not open again for two years. It was not until the summer of 1899 that I came upon that notebook and copied out this song and sent it to a Boston concern which very kindly published it. To my great surprise, people began immediately that very year to write music for it. It has been sung to many tunes.

When I found that you really wanted to sing it, I rewrote it in some respects to make it a bit more musical, and I suppose there is no line in that song but that I have received suggestions on how to improve the rhythm, and finally I had, I hoped, an authorized version.

All through these years requests have come to use the song in one way or another in our colleges, in hymn books, in one form or another. I am only too glad to give it free as my own slight gift to my country, but my only condition is that they hold to the authorized text, so that we may not have as many texts as we already have tunes.

One of the suggestions that was most insistently made in these later years was that I add a stanza to express international brotherhood. It has not seemed easy to do that, for although I long for world brotherhood and am among those who look forward eagerly to the day when the United States shall enter the League of Nations, yet the song is long enough already, and is written for one special thing. So the best suggestion I can make is that when you sing the first stanza, you think of "From sea to shining sea," as applying from the Pacific to the Atlantic, around the other way, and all the states in between, and that will include all the nations and all the people from sea to shining sea.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

BEATRICE ENSOR, DIRECTOR, NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP, EDITOR, THE
NEW EDUCATION, LONDON, ENGLAND

I feel the honor you have done me in inviting me on your main program to address this important assembly, and I am very conscious of the responsibility of being the only representative of England on your program. I feel this responsibility the more keenly because of certain comparisons which have been made during this convention, and also of a certain report recently issued, both of which I consider grossly unfair to the educators of America. I consider them unfair because they represent partial facts and not the whole picture.

I believe that it is essential that the educators of England and the United States should work hand in hand together, should interchange views, should be willing to learn from each other, for we each have our strength and our weakness. Constructive criticism may be helpful. Destructive criticism can only be harmful in both countries.

In reviewing the progress of education during the last ten years in England, one might make the survey from many different angles. I have chosen two today. First of all, from the administrative point of view. So eminent an authority on education as Sir Michael Sadler of Oxford said in his presidential address at the London University in January that Britain is to education what France is to painting. There has never been a time in which Britain's example has counted for more in contemporary education.

That is a big claim, but Professor Bagley of Columbia the other day said that in his opinion the social stability of England during the years of post-war unrest was due to the mass education preceding the war, and I think that probably Professor Bagley was meaning that our educational system is not only used in that little tiny island of ours, but extends over the seas in many parts of the world, and, therefore, has relatively more importance than it would have if it was confined merely to England.

The most outstanding event of our educational world of recent years is undoubtedly the Hadow report of the Consultative Committee of the Board of Education recently issued, which suggests the whole reorganization of our school system. It suggests that we should divide education into primary or children under eleven, and secondary, or children over eleven, and in view of the controversies, it says that twenty-five percent of the children attending primary schools would be capable of benefiting by the ordinary academic instruction of secondary schools. Only twenty-five percent. They, therefore, suggest that the ordinary secondary schools as they are known today in England should become grammar schools and that a new type of school should be started to be known as modern schools, which would take every child in the nation up to fifteen years and more, and would be benefiting seventy-five percent of the children who would not be able to benefit by the ordinary academic instruction of the secondary school.

This is an enormous step, but it is made more important when the committee goes on to recommend that these schools should be in touch with modern industry, that the curriculum should be a liberal one, that there should be a four years' course, and that a fourth year of vocational training should be given. This, I believe, is going to mean a very, very great deal, for it is the consensus of opinion among thinking people that we must extend our educational facilities and also that we must have changes in the type of education.

This, then, brings me to my second point of view, the point of view of progressive education from the standpoint of the organization I represent, the New Education Fellowship. That term "New Education," a most unsatisfactory term, is used for the want of something better, to designate certain definite principles of education which take cognizance of modern psychology, especially from the point of view of individual differences among children, and, therefore, the need of individual instruction or differences in the curriculum and in the method of presentation.

It also takes in the need for the memory; for the great reconstructive changes going on in industry, and for the wider vision that has come to many since the war. And here I think what your chairman said is of special significance, that maybe my presence here this afternoon is supplying to that beautiful song that we heard, the international aspect. The new education believes that in the great discoveries of modern years along scientific lines, the contacts of the world through better transportation and communication, that there must be a parallel in education, that education must be international in its point of view, that it must give to the children the attitude of internationalism, the attitude which will make them members of the League of Nations at heart, whatever their country may be doing in the matter.

The new education, therefore, from our point of view is more concerned in freeing the children by the interplay of scientific methods and humanistic impulses, that it may release the creative forces formed within every child, but release him also for creative service of the highest type.

This kind of education has progressed very largely in our country during the last few years, and I suppose as in your country the most advanced experiments may be found in private schools where these new ideas are tried out, and if found successful filter into the general system of the land. The best known of these schools are Oundle in Northamptonshire, Bradles in Hampshire, and St. Georges in Hertfordshire, so much spoken of by H. G. Wells. We look to these three schools to do some most useful research work along this newer type of education. In these pioneer schools we believe that the children are given more opportunity of developing from within, that in a freer environment the individual differences existing between children are able to develop in their own particular way.

In this curriculum of these schools, art and music and drama play a very important part. They are generally selfgoverned. They have rules necessary for community living and maintaining the discipline within that

community, and they are as a rule miniature communities preparing the children to play their part in world citizenship. But experimental or pioneer work in England is by no means confined to private schools. Indeed during the last ten years there has been a silent revolution going on within the public system of education. The changes are far more noticeable in what we call our infant schools, that is, the schools for the children from six to nine years of age. These changes have been largely influenced by these individual methods used in many schools. In practically all these schools they use some kind of individual material for individual work. It is very interesting because practically nowhere in the states does one find material used in the same way as it is being used in England.

Then in the upper schools Miss Helen Parkhurst's Dalton plan has had a very great deal of influence. Again it is most interesting to find that the Dalton plan has influenced the whole of England's education in a way when it has scarcely touched the schools over here. Many, many schools have some form of modified Dalton plan for their work and procedure in England. One can only account for it by the fact that we are far more individualistic as a nation and that, therefore, these individual methods have, as it were, taken in England in a way that they have not taken over here, but you see that you have given us something which has changed our whole school system, because we find that in the introduction of these individual methods the whole tone of the school gradually changes, the children have more freedom and the curriculum becomes more liberal, so there is a far more reaching effect than merely a change in method of procedure of actual teaching.

The secondary schools have changed far less. I suppose we are in the same plight in England as every other country in the world. It is more difficult to change the secondary school as long as there are examinations at the end of the secondary school period which limit the courses of instruction within the secondary school, and, therefore, there is now growing a feeling among many teachers that a combined effort must be made to try to change the examinations as they exist today and make them more in keeping with the spirit of the new education and advanced psychology.

You may see from what I have said that the change in England is not spectacular; there is nothing as spectacular, for instance, as the education which has been started in Soviet Russia. Nothing was so changed as the school system of Vienna, but there is in England a slow, steady, progressive urge toward this newer type of education. You know in England we work slowly, cautiously, toward a goal. Therefore, on the surface of things you may not see any drastic changes, any big revolutions in our educational system, but there is a tremendous change. I noticed this myself, perhaps because for years I was inspector of a board of education in England, going in and out of the public schools of England and then not going back for a number of years. Then again visiting the schools, I noticed the change very much more than those who have remained within the system consistently during the last fifteen years.

In England, of course, we have not got nearly your extended facilities for secondary and university education, and, therefore, I think it is only understandable that in our secondary schools, when we select so carefully such a small percentage of the children for secondary and university education, that the standard of scholarship is higher than when one attempts to give to all the opportunities for secondary education. Also, one has got to remember that we are always trying to give not equality of kind of education, but equality of opportunity of education, that we believe tremendously that different types of children require different types of education and that our job in a system is just as much to provide the different types of education, the different types of schools needed, as it is the job of the teacher in the classroom to provide the different individual instruction, fitted to the individual differences of the children within that school. In the nation we have these same great differences, and, therefore, we must have all types of schools. We cannot have equality of attainment or achievement unless we have equality of opportunity for the development of all that is inherent in the children of the nation. What we must guarantee as educators is that every child has a chance of developing the potentialities that lie within him.

Alas! In England we have no teachers' college. We have very little research work in England, nothing comparable to the work of Dr. Harold Rugg on curriculum research. We have very little applied psychology in the schools. You will laugh when I tell you that very few teachers have ever heard of an I. Q. Only a very little psychology of that type has as yet been attempted. The changes in education in England come far more from individual incentive than from any lead of the educational authorities. It is individual teachers inspired, and often with great selfsacrifice, who are leading education into the wider channels which I have suggested this afternoon.

We believe that education is the great need of the world today, that no country can say that it is spending too much money on education. Of course I feel very humble when I hear of your billions and your millions, because we have to talk in thousands and hundreds; nevertheless, we feel that education and more education is the need of the world today, but it must be the right kind of education; it must be the type of education that gives the international attitude of life, and, therefore, friends, I feel that we here have an enormous responsibility. You in America with your millions behind you can give to the citizens of this great country that point of view which will enable them to take the bigger point of view in the great problems of the world which beset us on every side. America and England working together can lead the world.

It is very symbolic that you end your conference tonight by paying homage to a man whom you may well be proud of, because he symbolizes that bringing together of the nations in an interdependence which has never existed in the world before, and it brings home to us that all the discoveries of science may be used in two ways—for integration, for cooperation, for

brotherhood, for a great world of united nations, each contributing its particular note to the great symphony of mankind. Or, it may be used for the destruction of our civilization. H. G. Wells has said that we are witnessing a race between the power and force of destruction and education. Therefore, friends, we are the most important people in our countries, according to the type of education we give our children, according to the attitude of mind which the environment we provide in the schools is going to give the children of today; upon that depends the peace of the world, and the progress of civilization. I appeal to you in this country, so mighty, so powerful to influence the good of the world, that in your schools you have this attitude of brotherhood and cooperation and kindness, and we in our way will do our best, that united we may give the children of today the chance of being citizens of the world, able to solve the great problems because they have something in them other than a revolution, which is faith and brotherhood of nations.

THE DEBT OF NEW ENGLAND TO THE SOUTH AND WEST

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

It is a great privilege and honor to be upon this program at the close of such a week as this. When I was invited by your president to take a place upon the program, I chose this last word. I feel very keenly that we are very much in danger in New England of patting ourselves on the back and thinking we have done wonderful things, and we have, but we have been a thrifty people and we have got big interest on everything we have ever done for education in America.

I want to say to you people that I am tremendously interested in what the South and the West are paying us for our contribution. We never wanted to do the things we have done—that is, the fellows who stayed at home didn't want to do them. Soon after Massachusetts Bay was settled they passed a law to build a highway, and they voted to build it as far as Newton Falls. They said that was as far as a highway would ever be needed, and we have lived on that theory ever since. We have always boasted, and rightfully, about what we were doing. We have boasted that we built the Michigan Central Railroad, and we did, that we built the Burlington Railroad, and we did, that we built the Northern Pacific Railroad, and we did, and the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe, and we did, and the Mexican Central Railroad, and we did, but we never told anybody that while we were doing it we built up a great banking system in Massachusetts, in Boston. Our financial standing in all these years started when we went into the railroad business, and there are people today who are living gloriously on the profit of those days.

I want you to realize how dangerous it is to have scholastic inbreeding. Scholastic inbreeding is just as dangerous as biological inbreeding, and we have had some great returns. I have been running over in my mind the

fact that today Maine has a commissioner that it found out in Nebraska, and the last commissioner before the present one we found in California, and we have been taking from the West and from the South great men who come here and do for us wonderful things. We have university presidents, many of them—Maine has had two, New Hampshire one, Connecticut has a great one now, Smith College has had one, Amherst and Williams, all of them—from the West; we had one for our city superintendent of Boston, Springfield had one, has one now, and Worcester had one, Providence had one, Manchester has one. We have had any quantity of them come here from the West, and all of them have given us a great deal of inspiration and a great deal of intelligent devotion. We have had them all along the line, and not only that, they have done a bigger thing for us, they have let us get out of the little circle in which we are. New England is as bad off scholastically as Italy or Japan. We have been seriously handicapped, but we have been furnishing college presidents all over the country; we have been furnishing state superintendents and city superintendents everywhere, and it has been our salvation that they have had a place to go and leave some things here for those who remained.

We have prospered when we have given our thought and our life to the outside world. Boston University has said less about itself than any other university here. It has today forty-three of its graduates as presidents of colleges, and it has twenty-three more living men who have been presidents of colleges, and there isn't anything to match that in the whole United States today. Why is it big? Because they have never lived up to the idea that they were a Boston institution. They took the name but they have never claimed the game.

Ten years ago Boston University established a department of education. Seventy-five students studied there that first year. Today, twenty-four hundred students are studying education in that University, and why? Because the dean and all the professors, all the heads of departments of that school, have come from Michigan, Minnesota, Iowa, Arizona. There is a larger proportion of American brains in that University than in any other university in the United States, and that is why they have done it. I stand here today pleading with you, you New Englanders, to realize that this is a great land. I happened to be present for several weeks in a great university two years ago. They gave me a reception at the close. The governor was there; every state superintendent was there. Every one of them made speeches. Every last one of them said, "Fellow Georgians, Fellow Georgians." It got on my nerves. That was my show, and when my turn came, I said, "I don't know what in the world I will do when I get home and try to say 'Fellow Massachusetts-ians.' I like to say 'Fellow Americans,' " and they cheered to the echo.

I want no one to think that there is any state in this union or any section in this country that is big enough to have controlling power. We are today living as American people. I rejoice in my knowledge of America. I rejoice that the time has come when the spark plug and Portland cement

have made America, from Jamestown and Plymouth. Until within the last twelve years everything was going east and west. All your railroad systems were east and west, all your highways were east and west. We haven't today any combination of railroads that don't have a line north and south. We have more highways and boulevards north and south than formerly, and I want to say to you that it is of the utmost importance that you teach your boys and girls that the change from the east and west to the north and south is the greatest thing that has happened in your day in American history. That means something.

We have talked about the South in the past. Five years from today anybody who talks about the South will be so far back in his knowledge that the people will wonder where he came from and when he died. The time has come when the whole thought of America is a unit, when our whole thought is bringing things together. I have been very greatly interested in this meeting. I have attended more of these meetings than anybody else living has done, and I never was in one in my life that meant so much to me as this one. Do you realize what it means to have as President of the National Education Association—the first woman who has ever gone from the classroom teacher into the presidency of the National Education Association? That woman is from Richmond, Virginia, and on the twelfth day of February, all the schools of Richmond closed, out of memory to Abraham Lincoln. I want you to realize that things are moving tremendously today, and think for a minute what it means to have the president of this Department a southerner from California! That is a great combination of South and West in New England.

I am not going to take your time; it is a great temptation for me, but I do want to say one or two things more. You had some comments here on the high schools, some criticisms of the high schools, some inbreeding scholasticism represented, but I thank the Lord reverently that tonight in this room a high-school teacher will be honored as no other teacher in America has ever been honored, and that high-school teacher from the West is more appreciated than any criticism of education has ever been in the United States. Let's realize that; it means a good deal. There is nothing in the world so silly as anybody who steps out and thinks that this country will for a minute bow to the dictates of people who think our schools are costing us too much. We have only just begun to buy education. I hope I will live just a little while longer to see these people who are so scared at the little cost of education, who are so scared lest somebody will do something that they don't know. It is absolutely useless to try to educate some people, but the world is going to know a great deal more than anybody ever dreamed of a little while ago.

I have spoken of what the West has done for us, and the South. Two universities in the South carried the name of two Bostonians who have done more to reward Boston for what it has done than anything else that has ever been done. I had hoped to have on this platform this afternoon Bruce Payne, President of George Peabody College. George Peabody was

a Bostonian. We have on this platform a man who came here to Boston forty-two years ago and carried back to South Carolina \$1500, and that \$1500 brought immortality to a man who provided that money, and then provided something more. I am going to be personal for a moment, for I think I have lived long enough to have a right to be personal just a little while. Forty-two years ago, Homer H. Seerley took over and built up the teachers' college at Cedar Falls, Iowa. He has built up the greatest teachers' college in the world. Forty-two years ago he did that, and forty-two years ago David Bancroft Johnson—I want him to rise and stand here before you now—came to my office, the happiest man I ever saw, because he had \$1500 promised him to start the first normal school in the Atlantic South.

I went to Winston College a few years ago and he was in the dumps. He was in an awful state of mind, physically and mentally. I said, "What is the matter?"

He said, "I only got \$465,000 out of the legislature."

I said, "I saw you when \$1500 made you the happiest man on earth."

"Yes," he said, "it did, but things have changed since then."

Forty-two years ago Homer Seerley started to build up that marvelous teachers' college, and David Bancroft Johnson started to build up the second greatest institution for education in the whole South, and that happened to be at the same time that I became editor of the *Journal of Education*. I have known this South as nobody else has known it, and I never should have known it if it had not been for the privileges that came to me because of my association with the spirit and the purpose and the glory of 1886.

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT, THURSDAY EVENING, MARCH 1, 1928

JOSEPH M. GWINN, PRESIDENT, DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

I wish to call attention to the fact that I have a new gavel tonight. This has been presented to the President of the Department of Superintendence by Admiral Andrews. It is made of wood from the old ship Constitution. I wish to thank Admiral Andrews and all those who are interested in the great program to rehabilitate that grand old ship. I shall prize this gavel.

If I may be permitted to take liberties with a line or two of a beautiful poem of a Scottish bard, I would say:

Oh! Young Lochinvar is come out of the West,
Through all the wide border his steed was
the best;
And save a smile and a stout heart he
credentials had none,
He rode all unarmed and he rode all alone.

It is a far call from swimming the Eshe River when ford there was none by the first Lochinvar to leaping the broad Atlantic where bridge there

was none by our Lochinvar. It is a far call from the one fair Ellen which Scott's Lochinvar carried away behind him to the millions that follow in the train of our Lochinvar.

He flew not alone to Paris but into the affections, ideals, and aspirations of the youth of the land, into the plans of governments and into the programs of business, industry, and trade. His achievements have so powerfully stirred the mind and emotions of youth and have so tremendously influenced the adult world of business, industry, and government that education, which must ever respond to the changes that come, must give attention to aviation. So, this program has been proposed as a beginning on aeronautical education.

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association is highly honored to have on this program as one of the speakers the man who made this program necessary, Colonel Charles Lindbergh. (The audience arose and applauded.)

ADDRESS

COLONEL CHARLES A. LINDBERGH

We believe in the aircraft industry that the coming generation will be greatly affected by aviation. The people now are learning to fly. Those of tomorrow will grow up with flying as we have with the automobile. Our aircraft of today are entirely practical. They can be operated at a profit on commercial air lines. They are being used even today, we might say, extensively for private transportation. Tomorrow, figuratively speaking, the plane will probably have the same effect on the living conditions and upon the cities and countries that the car has had. It is entirely possible and will probably be true in a few years that the suburbs of our cities will be greatly extended through the use of the airplane. With flying fields situated close to the business districts, there is no more reason why a business man cannot live 100 or 200 miles from his work than there is for him to live less than twenty miles from his office as is the case today in so many instances.

Aviation will affect practically all of the subjects now taught in our schools. It will affect languages, inasmuch as it will bring closer foreign countries. It will affect science through the new conditions encountered in the mediums through which the plane travels and through the new instruments brought into use. For instance, our weather forecasting will undoubtedly be improved through the coming of aviation. It will be necessary to forecast more accurately for aeronautics than it is today for agriculture. It will be necessary for the man who flies (and most of us will fly in the future) to know more about the atmospheric conditions than is now necessary to know.

As I have said, our planes have been developed to a high point of perfection, yet, with the existing information we have, we can foresee a much

greater development in the next few years. We can now fly through practically any conditions, with the exception of sleet. Ten or fifteen years ago we were held down by storm, rain or snow. Today we can fly through all these conditions, although we cannot fly in a dense fog. We must yet be able to see the ground in order to land safely.

Rapid as the development has been in the last decade, we expect it to be still more rapid in the years to come. Consequently, I believe that it is a necessity to incorporate in our school system elementary aeronautics. It is not necessary to take aeronautics in detail, but every youth even today should have a general idea of the subject in order to be able to read intelligently and understand the newspapers. Tomorrow there will be a great deal more in print concerning this new means of travel than there has been in the past.

Before closing, I want to thank you all for the attention you have given me tonight, and I hope that you will see fit to aid in incorporating in the schools of this country subjects, elementary subjects at least, on aeronautics. I thank you.

AERONAUTICAL EDUCATION

W. F. DURAND, MEMBER, NATIONAL ADVISORY COUNCIL FOR AERONAUTICS
STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CALIF.

I have the privilege to appear before you this evening to speak very briefly regarding the special subject of aeronautics in education, but before speaking of that subject, I would like to say a word about the proposed fund for aeronautics in grades below the college and university. A committee has been appointed to make a survey. It so happens that I am a member of that committee. The president of that fund, Harry Guggenheim, is detained in California at the present time, and he has asked me to appear here representing him and the fund. I am very sorry indeed that he himself could not be able to be here, and I can only express the satisfaction which I feel myself in the privilege to appear here and tell you very briefly something of how aeronautics fits into this picture.

I want to take half a moment to tell you something about the Guggenheim fund, because I find that so many people are not well informed as to just what that fund is or how it came to be originated. The picture is very simple. A gentleman of large wealth at one time had a keen insight into those trends and times of modern progress, with a definite desire to make a sincere and earnest and useful contribution to this day and age, responsive to the movement at the time. On the other hand, his son, who answered the call of patriotic duty at the time of the war, qualified himself as an aviator and saw service in France, and then began the organization of a fund for the promotion of aeronautics. That briefly explains the origin of the fund.

One of the first reservations after the fund was organized related to the field of activity, and it immediately determined that two of the chief elements in its activities comprised those features which relate to the improvement of safety of aircraft port and matters pertaining to education. So that is how the Guggenheim fund happened to be interested in education, and how I happened to be here from California in the attempt to tell you in a very few moments something of this broad subject, of how we believe it may be fitted in without undue disturbance to the general program of schools or at least to point out certain features which we believe will be well worthy of your serious consideration.

If you ask in a broad sense, What is education? we may very clearly distinguish four aims and these I would particularly describe by saying first, education from the disciplinary standpoint aims to draw out those powers and capabilities with which we are endowed. Second, education from the viewpoint of providing the individual with a vision, aims to make individuals economically independent. Third, education for the purpose of culture in the particular sense of that term, education that we get outside of ourselves, that ranges over the field of literature and history, develops sympathetic contacts with the widest variety of human activity and endeavor. Finally, education is intended to make an individual a better citizen, because no man can afford to live unto himself alone; neither can he afford to live unto his own profession or calling alone. He must take part in the great movement of his day and age; he must contribute something in the way of civic movement, matters of community, state, and national interest, and in order that he may do these latter things intelligently, he needs the widest variety of general information.

So those things, as I picture the matter, represent four major aims of education.

Now so far as aeronautic education is concerned, we should not be disposed to think of anything particular in aeronautic education as of disciplinary value, neither from the standpoint of culture in the particular sense of the term, but it does have certain very direct applications to education viewed from the standpoint of vocational education, and, on the other hand, that type of education which is characterized as general information.

With regard to professional education in aeronautics, it means instruction in aviation and in the subjects that pertain to aeronautic activities. Perhaps, at the present time, there is no subject so diversified and of such importance in the modern curriculum as aeronautics. It ranges over almost the entire field of educational activity, including such subjects as mathematics, physics, chemistry, mechanics and engineering of all sorts, psychology, physiology, meteorology, astronomy, and navigation. On these matters I shall not speak more particularly because they pertain in a peculiar sense to the higher levels of what we may call professional aeronautic education. They represent stages of the progress which will be beyond that with which we are concerned in the

matter before us this evening. On the other hand, there are two very definite phases of this education wherein we believe the schools of the country are very definitely interested. The first relates to the gaining of economic independence by way of a trade or calling, and through the agency of those types of education which we call vocational or trade schools or manual training education. They are intended directly to provide the individual with means of gaining a livelihood, or for going on into the higher levels of aeronautic training.

When this service in aeronautics is launched to a larger extent, as predicted by the Colonel, there is going to be a demand for a larger number of young men trained in this useful service, and there will be a demand for direct vocational training, specifically intended to fit the young man for activities along those lines. Those are opportunities which the schools of the country, manual training high schools, will be called upon to provide.

So, speaking for the fund, we believe that we are justified in calling this opening to your attention, and it is one that is well worthy of your serious consideration.

Again, there is another field of general education about which I want to speak briefly. There is a wide field which is really necessary if we would enter into the current news items as they appear in newspapers or magazines or books and acquaint ourselves to some degree with this general detail of aeronautic affairs. There are at least three features wherein this line of activity might well be developed. The first of these relates to the language of aeronautics. The National Advisory Committee of Aeronautics has found it expedient to define some 565 words which have recently come into specific use in the designating of aeronautic affairs, words which have distinct and different meanings, words which for the most part are not found at all in the dictionary and which need to be defined in order that there may be some attempt made to stabilize their usage in the proper way.

We believe that the average man should be acquainted with at least some parts of this vocabulary. Many of these words, of course, are highly technical in character. At least two or three hundred of them should be in the vocabulary of the average man today. The language can be very easily taken care of in the ordinary schools of the country, and will be needed by the oncoming generation if they are to have the ability to read intelligently the newspapers and ordinary literature on the subject.

Then there is the history of the development of aeronautics, a marvelously inspiring page of the general domain of historic development. We may go back to mythology and from there down we may find a marvelously interesting story of the development of aeronautics from those early days down to the present time, and those are things which, it appears to us speaking again from the standpoint of our fund, might in some way be interwoven, worked into the general program of the school, and without undue dislocation or disturbance.

Aside from all this I come again to this matter of what I call general information. General information, of course, begins everywhere and nowhere and ends at the same point. It means everything and anything. Our attitude is simply this: That we believe it will be well worthwhile if the present generation of young men and women can be made better acquainted with some of these things, for example, some little idea of why it is that an airship can be made to sustain itself in the air, why it is that an airplane can be made selfsustaining, something about the construction of the airplane, how it goes together, how it gets up from the ground, how it is controlled in the air, how it may be directed to the right or to the left or up or down, how it may be navigated from one point to another; then about those things which affect the problem of navigation, something about the instrument that makes possible the control of the airplane and its safe navigation to the degree which we have attained at the present time.

Again there are other phases as it relates, one may say, to the economic side of aeronautics. In spite of the many thousands of things that we may do, only those things are sure of a permanent place in our civilization which justify themselves in commerce. An economic test is inevitably the most certain and final test, and so we cannot justify these matters economically that are purely theoretical in their character.

The economic phase of aeronautics depends upon the distribution of the weight, in particular how much pay load it will carry. Then it will be worth while for the individual to know something about the operative characteristic between the airship and the lighter than air craft and an airplane and the heavier than air craft, something to determine the limitations, something to determine the particular thing which we may properly expect from these two entirely different things.

These are some of the things which we believe will be worth while for all of us to know more about in order that we may take our place more intelligently and with a keener sense of the situation, of the great service that aeronautics is now rendering and is prepared to render.

For many years, as you know, aeronautics has been rendering a very definite and significant purpose by way of air mail, but after all, we haven't come to really appreciate the advances which made possible that service, the tremendous problem that it was necessary to solve. As the Colonel said a moment ago, if nothing more, its service is going to be one of increasing magnitude, increasing significance, increasing importance.

When you speak of a service to the community, a service to the state, a service to the nation, it immediately suggests two different classes of people. First, those who render the service, and second, those who receive it. That again indicates the difference in the type of education that I spoke of a moment ago, because those who render the service must have an education of the vocational or professional type, but in order that this service may be properly rendered and may be properly set in the fabric of our modern civilization, there must likewise be an education on the

part of those who receive, and the public is the recipient of this service. So we see very clearly that there is a definite significance in furthering the education of the public with intelligence to perceive and understand and put in place this great service that aeronautics is now rendering and the larger service which it is rapidly becoming prepared to render.

I make it very clear that the board of directors of the Guggenheim fund have no desire whatever to probe themselves unduly in the affairs of the schools of this country and probe themselves in the affairs which are the responsibility of school teachers and school systems of the country. That isn't our attitude at all.

Let us direct your attention possibly to certain opportunities, certain ways in which we may make your work a little more responsive to the lines of evolution and growth which would seem to us are going to characterize the years before us. Then, again, there is another point. We know beyond any question there is a tremendous enthusiasm at the present time in the youth of our country regarding the subject of aeronautics. There is a tremendous exhilaration all through the youth of the country in regard to this particular subject, and now it seems to us that it would be well worth while to educate the youth and try to capitalize that particular interest, and so again from the standpoint of the fund we come to you today to note this keen and living interest that the youth are taking in the subject of aeronautics. Is it worth while to capitalize that interest, make use of it, and turn it in as an effective agency in carrying out your program of education? So, then, these are the reasons why we believe that this is a timely subject: First, the ability to capitalize this very keen and definite interest of which I have spoken, and second, the opportunity to take advantage of a real opportunity which we believe offers itself to better prepare the oncoming generation to take an intelligent and useful part in the great progress to characterize our advances in civilization.

In closing, let me again thank you for the opportunity of appearing before you on behalf of the fund and explaining in this very brief and sketchy way why we believe that these topics may be well worth your serious and careful consideration.

EDUCATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF AERONAUTICS

WILLIAM P. MAC CRACKEN, ASSISTANT SECRETARY FOR AERONAUTICS
DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

You have gathered at the concluding session of this great Department of the National Education Association to consider an addition to our educational program and to pay tribute to an outstanding member of your profession. You have heard that great educator, Dr. Durand, who has devoted many years of arduous labor to aeronautical subjects, tell of the plans for the furtherance of aeronautical education. In the few minutes that I have, I want to speak very briefly about what education has done

for the development of one phase of aeronautics. I limit the subject to aviation, not because I lack any sympathy or any faith in the lighter-than-air program. I think it is as worthy of consideration as aviation itself, but simply because the subject of aviation, the accomplishment of flights in heavier-than-air craft dates back a few months less than a quarter of a century, and I think that perhaps that is sufficient for the time allotted.

First of all, may I recall to your minds the fact that for a century man has yearned to soar through the air like the birds. At various times he has been taught that that would be utterly impossible; not only that, he has been taught that the desire was sacriligious and should not be entertained. It remained for a school teacher of Dayton, Ohio, in conjunction with her two brothers, to solve the mathematical problems of aeronautics and to make flight in heavier-than-air craft a reality. That school teacher was Katherine Wright.

Another one of the pioneers in aviation in this country was Glenn Curtiss. He received his education in the high school and grammar school of Hammondsport, New York, and from that took up the practical work in developing aircraft hydrocraft. It was not until as late as 1914 that what we call our institutions of higher learning first established a real course in aeronautical engineering. That course was established at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology across the Charles River. Today, practically all of the great engineering schools of this country are giving more or less extensive courses in aeronautical engineering and subjects pertaining thereto. Not only is it in the engineering schools but the economics of air transportation are being taught in the business schools and in the colleges.

To go back just a minute, some of the outstanding airplane designers of today in this country are the men who learned this aerodynamics in their teens as members of what are known as model airplane clubs. As boys they built and flew these model airplanes. They never got outside of the secondary schools or the high schools as far as their general education is concerned, and so I want to stress upon you as strongly as possible the importance of inculcating accurate information in the minds of the boys and girls in the high schools with reference to this most important subject.

We can't, in a brief quarter of a century, expect to have the general knowledge of this subject that we have of the subjects which have been taught for centuries back in our institutions of learning, but certainly it is true that the teachers of mathematics, of physics, and of kindred subjects have played a large part in making possible this great development in aviation, whether they know it or not. And it is equally important, perhaps even more important, that those who carry on the work from where they left off should do it, realizing full well the importance of their task, and so it is that Colonel Lindbergh, the Guggenheim fund for the promotion of aeronautics, and Dr. Durand are here advocating that this great organization take it upon itself to see not merely that a course in

aviation or in aëronautics is added to the crowded curriculum of the secondary school, but rather that in all the courses, as I understand it, there shall be disseminated accurate information and knowledge pertaining to this important subject.

In conclusion, may I state that the educators of this country may well feel proud of the fact that it was one of their important profession who made the greatest contribution to the cause of aviation in this country and in the world. Mrs. Evangeline Lodge Lindbergh has given to the world not only an illustrious son but by her modest example, courage, and faithfulness to do has exemplified that age-old adage, like mother, like son. She has endeared herself in every mother's heart, and countless sons have been inspired to emulate her son, and I say without fear of contradiction that the greatest contribution that has been made to the cause of aeronautics has been made by her whom you honor and her son.

*PRESENTATION OF LIFE MEMBERSHIP AND EMBLEM IN
THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION TO
MRS. EVANGELINE L. L. LINDBERGH*

Joseph M. Gwinn—It is a source of distinct pride to the teachers of America that the youth whom the nation has so singularly lionized is the son of a fellow-worker, a teacher of science in a Detroit high school. For being the type of a mother that the nation needs to rear the children and for characteristics of modesty and devotion to duty, both as a mother and as a teacher, the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, as a slight token of the high regard in which Mrs. Evangeline L. L. Lindbergh is held by more than 180,000 teachers in all parts of the country, constituting the membership of the National Education Association, has the honor to present to Mrs. Lindbergh a life membership in the National Education Association, and a medal, a specially designed badge of that membership.

I recognize Superintendent Frank Cody of the Detroit Public Schools.

Mr. Frank Cody—The Detroit school system is particularly honored at this time, and it is a pleasure, and an honor, Mr. Chairman, to present one of our staff, Mrs. Evangeline Lindbergh. (The audience arose and applauded.)

President Gwinn presented to Mrs. Lindbergh the certificate of life membership and placed around her neck the specially designed chain and emblem.

Mrs. Evangeline L. L. Lindbergh—Mr. Chairman, Mr. Cody, and Teachers—There are only two words with which to express gratitude—thanks and appreciation. I say them both to you sincerely. I should like to here pay tribute to two of our great living teachers, Calvin Coolidge and Myron T. Herrick. These men teach the doctrine of emancipation, emancipation from useless selfservice, and education to useful service and

appreciation and consideration and love for our fellow workers. I thank you.

President Gwinn—I received by air mail today a letter which I have been commissioned to hand to Mrs. Lindbergh, a letter of congratulation to her. This comes from the Cass Technical High School of Detroit, and it is signed by every member of the faculty, her colleagues, in that great school.

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association is under great indebtedness to Mrs. Lindbergh for consenting to come to our convention and to receive this honor from our hands. We are also greatly indebted to her son, Colonel Lindbergh, for coming and contributing his part on this program, which is the first given to a consideration of aeronautics.

We wish also to express our appreciation to the Guggenheim Fund for making possible a part of this program, and to the United States Government in providing ways and means as well as in sending the Assistant Secretary of Commerce to take part in this program.

I now declare the Fifty-Eighth Annual Session of the Department of Superintendence adjourned.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS, FEBRUARY 26-MARCH 1, 1928

OFFICERS

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, New York
Executive Secretary, SHERWOOD D. SHANKLAND....1201 16th Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

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
FRANK M. UNDERWOOD, District Superintendent of Schools (term expires 1931) St. Louis, Mo.

SECRETARY'S MINUTES

February 26

The fifty-eighth annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence opened Sunday afternoon, February 26, 1928, when six vesper services were held simultaneously. President Joseph M. Gwinn presided at Faneuil Hall. Other meetings were held at Old North Church, King's Chapel, Arlington Street Church, Park Street Church, and St. Paul's Cathedral.

February 27

The first general session in Mechanics Hall was opened with prayer by Dr. Samuel A. Eliot, minister of Arlington Street Church. President Gwinn then said:

The father of Dr. Eliot was the great Charles Eliot, for a long time President of Harvard University, at one time President of the National Education Association. He made a great contribution to education in America. He has passed to his reward. I am asking you to stand in silence for one minute out of respect to his great service and in memory of his life.

The audience then stood in silence.

February 28

At the business session Tuesday morning, Edwin C. Broome, chairman, presented the final report for the Commission on the Curriculum, and on Mr. Broome's motion the Commission was discharged.

The report of the Committee on Articulation of Educational Units was presented by Herbert S. Weet, chairman.

The report of the Committee on Financing Educational Research was presented by Randall J. Condon, chairman, approved, and referred to the Executive Committee for further action.

The report of the Committee on Relation of Boards of Education and Administrative Officers was presented by E. C. Hartwell, chairman, and adopted.

The report of the Committee on Records and Reports was presented by R. O. Stoops, chairman, and accepted. On request of Mr. Stoops, the committee was discharged.

The report of the Auditing Committee was presented by David A. Ward, chairman, and adopted.

The report of the Executive Committee was presented by M. G. Clark. The Committee's recommendation for the appointment of a standing Committee on Relations of the Department of Superintendence with Lay Organizations was approved.

Nominations for officers were made as follows: For president, Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, New York; For second vice-president, Frank Cody, superintendent of schools, Detroit, Michigan; Edwin C. Broome, superintendent of schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania; A. C. Eldredge, assistant superintendent of schools, Cleveland, Ohio; and Frank G. Pickell, superintendent of schools, Montclair, New Jersey; For member of the Executive Committee for four years, Paul C. Stetson, superintendent of schools, Dayton, Ohio; W. W. Borden, superintendent of schools, South Bend, Indiana; David A. Ward, superintendent of schools, Wilmington, Delaware; and A. L. Threlkeld, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colorado.

Mr. Cody, Mr. Broome, and Mr. Eldredge asked that their names be withdrawn as candidates. and it was so ordered.

March 1

At the Thursday morning session the report of the Committee on Resolutions was presented by the chairman, A. L. Threlkeld, superintendent of schools, Denver, Colorado. A motion by Edwin C. Broome to substitute the word "requested" for "suggested" in resolution No. 11 was voted upon and lost. William R. Barry, superintendent of schools, Ware, Massachusetts, moved that resolution No. 1 be eliminated. The motion was seconded, debated, and lost. The resolutions were then adopted.

On motion of S. Monroe Graves, superintendent of schools, Wellesley Hills, Massachusetts, an expression of appreciation for the work of the Commission on the Curriculum was added to the original report of the Committee on Resolutions.

The Board of Tellers presented the following report:

Boston, Massachusetts, Feb. 29, 1928

To Joseph M. Gwinn, President of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association.

We hereby certify that the election of officers of the Department of Superintendence was held this day in accordance with the provisions of the constitution and bylaws, and that the following persons were elected:

President: Frank D. Boynton, superintendent of schools, Ithaca, New York.

Second Vice-president: Frank G. Pickell, superintendent of schools, Montclair, New Jersey.

Member of Executive Committee for a term of four years: Paul C. Stetson, superintendent of schools, Dayton, Ohio.

Respectfully submitted,

WALTER T. HELMS, *Chairman*

LOUIS P. BENEZET

CLAUDE V. COURTER

A. S. JESSUP

ARTHUR DEAMER

President J. M. Gwinn announced the appointment of the Commission on Supervision, which is to prepare the 1930 yearbook. Those named were:

ALBERT S. COOK, State Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Maryland, *Chairman*
 WILLIAM H. BURTON, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois
 GEORGE D. STRAYER, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City
 ARVIL S. BARR, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin
 CHARLES L. SPAIN, Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Detroit, Michigan

The Commission was authorized to appoint, after the need has been ascertained, two other members, at least one of whom shall be a superintendent of schools.

At the evening session, President Gwinn called attention to a gavel which had been presented to him by Admiral Andrews. A brief address on aeronautics, not scheduled on the regular program, was given by Col. Charles A. Lindbergh. President Gwinn, on behalf of the Department of Superintendence, presented to Mrs. Evangeline L. L. Lindbergh a certificate of life membership in the National Education Association, and a specially designed emblem and chain. A letter of congratulation to Mrs. Lindbergh, sent by her colleagues on the faculty of the Cass Technical High School, Detroit, Michigan, was given to her by President Gwinn.

The final meeting then adjourned.

RESOLUTIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE

Adopted March 1, 1928

COMMITTEE ON RESOLUTIONS

A. L. THRELKELD, Chairman, Superintendent of Schools.....Denver, Colo.
 J. R. BARTON, Superintendent of Schools.....Oklahoma City, Okla.
 A. B. MEREDITH, State Commissioner of Education.....Hartford, Conn.
 CHARLES L. SPAIN, Deputy Superintendent of Schools.....Detroit, Mich.
 ESTALINE WILSON, Assistant Superintendent of Schools.....Toledo, Ohio
 JOHN W. WITHERS, Dean, School of Education, New York University.....New York City
 ADA YORK, County Superintendent of Schools.....San Diego, Calif.

The Curtis-Reed Bill

1. The welfare of the children now enroled in the schools of the United States is dependent upon our ability to make available to boards of education, to superintendents of schools, and to teachers throughout the nation the results of current practise, of experiments wherever they are conducted, and of the results of scientific investigation.

The federal government has long accepted responsibility for conducting inquiries and disseminating information concerning the public schools.

We hold that economy and efficiency demand that the activities of the federal government dealing with education be consolidated in a Department of Education under the leadership of a Secretary with a seat in the President's Cabinet. We urge that adequate support be provided for this department in order that it may conduct such inquiries and disseminate

such information as will make for the highest degree of efficiency in all of our schools. We know that this service can be rendered without in any way interfering with the constitutional right of the several states to control, administer, and supervise their own schools. We, therefore, urge the Congress to pass the Curtis-Reed Bill which embodies the program which this Association has consistently advocated throughout its history.

Character Education

2. The evidence taken as a whole does not justify the conclusion that the young people of today or that the people generally, are worse than they have been in any previous period of our national history. On the contrary, there is abundant reason to believe that in toto there has been a marked improvement.

The public schools as well as the private are not indifferent to the formation of character as fundamental to all else. Character forming situations are the rule not the exception in the school life of today. It is undoubtedly safe to say that the typical school situation from the moral point of view, is decidedly above the average life situation in standards of ethics and personal conduct. Only those who look for moral education in terms which ignore the spirit or exalt the form fail to see this.

But no matter how the present may compare with the past, there is vast room for improvement. We should emphasize the fundamental importance of the problem of right living to the extent that every teacher should be conscious of it as a primary objective in teaching. This implies support of research and of scientific experiment in evaluating technics of character education suitable to all levels of school life and to the ever-changing nature of the world in which we are living. A continuous professional study of this problem setting forth a proper apportionment of responsibility to the schools in their relation to other agencies and perfecting methods by which to meet this responsibility is vital in public education.

School Costs

3. Any just consideration of the cost of our schools must take into account the depreciation in the dollar, the demand of the public for ever broader educational service, the ability of the public to pay, and, above all else, the vital importance of education in a democracy. It is only through the development of people that material values are enhanced. Only by such development is life as a whole made more worthwhile. Education, conceived of as an investment in life itself, justifies substantial expenditure upon it. Extravagance is inexcusable. Every proposed expansion of education facilities should be carefully studied. We should continually weigh the results, so far as we can define them, against the costs, and, as individuals, and as a profession we should not lack the courage to take our place in the front ranks of the battle for better educational opportunities for all people. There is no evidence that the standard of living has been lowered by the cost of education. On the other hand there is

every indication that it has been raised. As long as this is true there is no cause for alarm over the present percentage of our national income given to education.

School Buildings

4. We note with satisfaction the growing tendency to place school house planning under the direct control of the superintendent of instruction. Such an adjustment of relationships must ultimately make for efficiency and eliminate waste, provided school administrators acquire the expert training and knowledge necessary to meet the new responsibility. We believe that with intelligent educational guidance architects can and will erect efficient and also artistic buildings without excessive expenditure of funds.

Are Too Many Seeking Admission to Higher Schools, Colleges, and Universities?

5. The committee feels that the issue presented by this question cannot be satisfactorily met by arbitrary systems of selection and elimination. Institutions and systems themselves as well as people must be tested. Until this is done we do not know what the possibilities are. In the meantime it is more constructive to give the benefits of doubts to human beings rather than to systems which are likely to be overly traditionalized. In the final analysis this is the problem of making scientific adjustment to all types of people. In all probability the higher educational institutions will have to continue to make broader adaptations to individual differences among ever increasing numbers. Our American schools should not revert to a caste system philosophy. Caste systems have had ample time in which to prove their superiority, but what have they to show for themselves? Our school system is young, but it is based on the most persistent ideals we know, the ideals of democracy.

The elementary school has been well established on this ideal. But let us not forget that this was not accomplished without a bitter battle. The same forces in the main which now are so alarmed over the growth of our higher schools, fought the establishment of the free tax-supported elementary school. It has always been so. Our profession should lead the battle for ever better educational opportunities for all the people.

Effective Publicity for Modern Methods in Education

6. Effective methods of publicity should be devised of such a character as would serve to bridge the gap between the policies of education as conceived and formulated in harmony with modern life, and the concept of public schools possessed by those who received their schooling under conditions much different from those which now prevail.

Partisan Politics in School Administration

7. The magnitude of modern educational systems and their importance as factors in the economic and governmental life of the nation have

brought into existence, conditions which are full of hazards. Strong temptation has arisen in many quarters to exploit the schools for purposes entirely foreign to their true function which is the education of the children. Schools should be administered on the basis of sound and scientifically established principles. The administration of schools upon this basis should be safeguarded by statute against assault by any agencies which aim to utilize the machinery of the schools for purposes other than those of education.

We believe that there are many instances of interference with schools due to the conception that the management of education is subject to the spoils system in partisan politics. Protective measures against the baneful results of such a misconception can properly be urged in view of the decisions rendered by the supreme courts of many states which decisions have declared in unequivocal terms that boards of education are independent bodies created under the authority of the state with independent responsibility for the conduct of the schools and that such boards and their officers must not be made subject in any of their operations to the caprices of local partisan control.

Curriculum Prescriptions by State Legislatures

8. Technics of curriculum making are professional tasks. General objectives and policies, should, in the final analysis, be decided by lay bodies having been chosen by the public for that purpose, but technics by which such objectives may be met and such policies carried out should be constructed by those professionally trained for this service. Enactments by state legislatures, frequently the result of high pressure lobbying methods used by well-organized minorities, are likely to violate this principle.

The public should be warned against the danger involved in curriculum making by state legislatures and every effort should be made to see that this vital function is conceived of as a professional service under the general limitation above stated.

Educational Opportunities in Rural Communities

9. It is recognized that an inequality in educational opportunity exists between rural and urban education. We state our belief that educational advantages available to rural children should be equivalent to those offered children in cities and towns and we recommend that definite steps be taken to make an appreciable approach to such equalization.

Higher Standards for Admission to American Citizenship

10. Appreciating the cooperation now existing between the Bureau of Education and the Bureau of Naturalization, and recognizing that training for citizenship is a phase of adult education necessary for candidates seeking naturalization, the need of closer coordination of effort on the part of the Federal Bureau of Naturalization, the local courts, and the public schools appears urgent. There should be a closer alignment of these three

agencies to the end that the requirements for admission to American citizenship shall include a reading as well as a speaking knowledge of English and that there shall be an appreciable understanding of American history, American institutions, and American ideals on the part of aliens seeking citizenship in the United States of America. These standards should be nationwide.

Educational Radio Program

11. In view of the influence that the radio is coming to have on school life it is suggested that the executive committee of the Department of Superintendence consider the practicability of appointing a committee to study the problem of perfecting an organization which will prepare and broadcast educational programs for school use.

Appreciation of Courtesies

12. For the delightful hospitality and efficient management that have made this fifty-eighth annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence a notable success we extend our cordial thanks to the state of Massachusetts, to the Governor, to the Mayor, to the city of Boston and its citizens, to the officials, teachers, and pupils of the schools, to the churches, to the public press, and to all the many individuals and organizations that have so effectively given of their best efforts in our behalf.

Appreciation of Curriculum Commission

13. On motion of Superintendent S. Monroe Graves of Wellesley Hills, Massachusetts, it was resolved to spread upon the records of the Department of Superintendence an expression of deep appreciation for the work which was done by Chairman Broome and the Commission on the Curriculum in its four years' study of curriculum problems.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSION ON THE CURRICULUM

EDWIN C. BROOME, CHAIRMAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
PHILADELPHIA, PA.

The curriculum has been a major interest of the Department of Superintendence for a period of five years. During that period five yearbooks have been devoted to this subject. The first of the series was presented at the Chicago meeting, in 1924. It was a discussion of important problems in relation to the elementary curriculum; and was prepared by the yearbook committee, R. G. Jones, chairman. The last four yearbooks, including the one presented today, have been prepared under the direction of the commission on the curriculum. The original commission was appointed at the Chicago meeting in February, 1924, in response to a resolution offered at the Cleveland meeting of 1923 by the present chairman of the commission.

The original commission of thirteen members has remained intact throughout this period of four years, and presents today, through its chairman, its fourth and final report.

Two years ago, with the authority of the Executive Committee of this Department, the commission added to its membership for the year the several chairmen of the special subcommittees. This plan worked well, as it brought the commission into close contact with the subject committees, and familiarized the chairmen of those committees with the policies and working plans of the commission. The same plan was continued for the succeeding year, 1928.

It seems hardly necessary to describe the contents of any of the four yearbooks, including the one which we now present, as every member of the Department of Superintendence has received a copy of each yearbook; and, if these yearbooks are not capable of speaking for themselves, nothing that the chairman might say in the few minutes allotted to him in this program would improve the situation.

Let me present, however, a few sidelights on our work which could not properly be revealed in our published reports.

The original commission, as said above, has remained intact throughout the four years, and its members have devoted a great deal of time with enthusiasm and earnestness to the problem. Our meetings have been exceptionally well attended, and the interest of the members has increased, rather than flagged, as our work has proceeded. Rather than feeling relieved, we feel regretful that the time has arrived for the presentation of our final report.

First, at the outset we realized that we must adopt certain definite policies. One of these was that in a great country like ours with varying economic, social, and educational conditions, it should not be our function to prepare definite, standardized courses of study, but rather to collect facts, coordinate research studies, discuss problems, and suggest solutions. Wherever definite courses of study have been included in our reports they have been introduced for purposes of illustration and suggestion.

Second, after a year's experience, we concluded that curriculum revision must be a cooperative enterprise, that no central group could attack the problem effectively alone. For that reason the Commission presented at the Cincinnati meeting, of 1925, the "Cooperative Plan of Curriculum Revision." The response was prompt and encouraging. Over three hundred superintendents, state departments, and universities joined with us, and set up curriculum revision committees in their own communities. This plan has materially added to the value of the last three yearbooks.

Third, after two years' experience we found that another important problem, which we were not fully prepared to handle, was growing out of our work—that of the articulation of the several divisions of the school system. We accordingly recommended to the Executive Com-

mittee of the Department of Superintendence that a competent committee be appointed to study this problem. Such a committee was promptly established. It has been at work for about two years, and will present its first report today. So, if like the phoenix, we have burnt ourselves on our funeral pile, another committee has arisen to carry on with still greater vigor and usefulness.

During the four years of its existence your commission on the curriculum has endeavored to accomplish four important objects:

1. To help establish scientific methods of curriculum revision in local school systems.
2. Through the Cooperative Plan of Curriculum Revision to make the achievements of one community a benefit to all.
3. To put the results of scientific research on the curriculum into practicable and useful form and to make them available to superintendents throughout the country through the research bulletins and the yearbooks of the department.
4. To stimulate and encourage school systems to evaluate their present courses of study and to organize committees for improving them.

We trust that these efforts have been sufficiently successful to have justified the appointment of the commission.

The 1928 yearbook which we now present is entitled "The Development of the High School Curriculum." It is the work of twenty-four committees with a membership of one hundred two educators. The first twelve chapters deal with outstanding issues which all school systems encounter when entering upon an extensive program of revision of the secondary school curriculum. The last twelve chapters summarize research findings in the fields of secondary school subjects. Two hundred fifty of such research studies are cited in this report. A more extended description of this yearbook would have to go into details; and there is not sufficient time at my disposal for this purpose.

The Commission has placed two duties upon its chairman—the one, that of delivering the valedictory upon the completion of the work entrusted to it; and the other, that of pronouncing a salutatory to the Department of Superintendence as the Department makes its bow to new enterprises.

What should these enterprises be? Here the chairman must speak for himself, but not, however, without sound advice that has been volunteered by members of the Commission.

The problem of curriculum revision is one of the major problems of school administration. It is a continuous problem, which presents new aspects concurrently with changes in social and economic conditions, and newly accepted educational theories. It is the belief of the majority of the Commission on the Curriculum that it is the peculiar responsibility of the Department of Superintendence to provide guidance, information, and stimulation for those who are endeavoring to adapt their curriculums to changing conditions; and that some provision be made at our headquarters to assist them. It is the belief of your chairman that a paid

expert, such as we now have, with the necessary clerical assistance, be continued from year to year, at the pleasure of the Department of Superintendence, to be assisted by a small advisory and reviewing committee of members of the Department of Superintendence. Such committee might properly be selected as to residence so that it could meet at Washington occasionally with little loss of time and a minimum of expense.

The following are some of the problems towards the solution of which this central clearinghouse would give assistance:

1. New material in relation to old material in the curriculum.
2. Reorganization of the curriculum in response to changing ideals.
3. Encouragement of local research on the curriculum, and the collection and publication of significant research studies.
4. The place of the classroom teacher in the construction and interpretation of the curriculum.
5. Integration of curriculum material in the life of the child in order to give the child intelligent and sympathetic contact with the problems of a changing civilization.
6. Criteria to determine what pupils should take certain subjects.
7. The integration of social studies.
8. The curriculum in relation to the teaching load, to the use of textbooks and other instructional material, and the length and frequency of class periods in relation to the several subjects of the curriculum.

This committee might properly issue bulletins from time to time for the benefit of members of the Department of Superintendence; and the more significant of these bulletins could be included in the yearbook.

In closing it is a pleasure to give testimony to the many educators of the country who have so ably served on the several assisting committees, especially the chairmen. Altogether there have been over three hundred fifty-two who have thus served during our four years of existence.

We furthermore especially commend S. D. Shankland, our secretary, for his efficient arrangements for our meetings, and the division of research of which Dr. John K. Norton is director. Dr. Margaret M. Alltucker, of the division of research, should receive the credit more than any other individual for whatever merit our reports have possessed.

In presenting its final report the commission on the curriculum respectfully requests that it be discharged; and the chairman so moves.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON FINANCING EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

RANDALL J. CONDON, CHAIRMAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
CINCINNATI, OHIO

For four years, since the Commission on the Curriculum was appointed at the Chicago convention in 1924, the Department of Superintendence has been engaged in a great cooperative research study of the curriculum on a nation-wide basis. This has resulted in four yearbooks of outstanding importance: *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum*, 1925; *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*, 1926; *The Junior High School Curriculum*, 1927; and *The Development of the High School Curriculum*, in 1928.

Many superintendents and other executives have been represented on the committees making these studies and a very large number of people in all departments of education have contributed to the results. In the preparation of the present yearbook, 240 cities and towns, ranging from towns of 2000 population to the great cities of Chicago and New York, from nearly every state in the union, are represented.

State departments, private schools, higher institutions and other agencies bring the total number to nearly 300. No such wide-spread cooperative movement in education has ever before been undertaken—and the results of this research in the curriculum will profoundly affect the work of the schools of the entire country for years to come.

This work could not have been undertaken or carried through without adequate financial backing. To cover the expense of the commission and the committees working under their direction a grant of \$15,000 was allowed by the Carnegie Foundation. But this fund alone would not have made possible the outcome of this undertaking if the National Education Association had not contributed generously in the time of the staff of the Research Division of the parent organization.

For the past year, that division has expended nearly \$40,000, a material amount of which has gone into the work under the direction of the Department of Superintendence. The Department itself, from its own funds has expended approximately \$14,000 in research and in the publication of the results—approximately \$10,000 of which has gone into the publication of the yearbook on the high school curriculum. As an offset to that expenditure, \$8844 has been received from the sale of yearbooks, and \$5325 from 212 subscriptions to the Educational Research Service, at \$25 each. One hundred eighty-six of these subscriptions have come from boards of education. In addition there is the cost of mailing the yearbooks, and such part of the secretary's and stenographer's time as has been given to this service.

The grant from the Carnegie Foundation has been used in the production of the four yearbooks on the curriculum. The expenses of future committees must be met from other sources.

The committee of which Dr. Weet is chairman, who has just reported, with reference to the proposed yearbook for 1929; and the committee for 1930, who will deal with the subject of "Supervision of Public Instruction;" are at the present time charged with the responsibility of "making brick without straw." If they are to make the brick, it is our duty to provide the straw.

At their first meeting of the year, the Commission on the Curriculum passed the following resolution: "The Commission is of the opinion that it would be advantageous for American education at this juncture to secure in a systematic way a sufficiently large educational foundation for the purposes, of research, so that work similar to that which the Commission on the Curriculum has had the opportunity to carry on, may be projected in other lines. The Commission submits the outcome of

its own work as evidence of the fact that a relatively small fund makes possible a very much more extended inquiry than would be possible without such fund."

When this was transmitted to the Executive Committee, they authorized the president to appoint a committee to consider plans for financing educational research. A committee of five whose names are signed to this report was appointed. We have given careful consideration to the subject and submit the following recommendations.

1. That an attempt be made to create a permanent fund of \$1,000,000 for educational research in the field of public school administration.

2. That the fund, when and as created be turned over to the trustees in charge of the permanent funds of the National Education Association to be kept as a separate fund for the use of the Department of Superintendence; to be invested in safe securities, with the income to be used for educational research, in such studies as the department may from time to time authorize and direct to be made.

3. That these studies be carried forward by commissions and committees appointed by the Executive Committee of the Department of Superintendence, and subject to their general direction, in a manner similar to that in which the Commission on the Curriculum and its committees have functioned during the past four years.

4. That no separate research department as such shall be created; but that the income from the permanent fund and such other funds as may become available to meet the expenses of such commissions and committees, shall be used, acting in cooperation with the Research Division of the National Education Association, for research in the field of administration.

5. That in creating a permanent fund for this purpose, no paid solicitors be employed and no large gifts be sought. We believe it should be a genuine cooperative undertaking by which the superintendents themselves, through sacrifice and devotion to the public welfare should undertake to create through many small gifts from the friends of public education, a fund sufficient to produce an annual income of \$40,000 to be devoted to such research as will help to make public education more fruitful, more efficient in administration, and more genuinely democratic in meeting the needs of all the children. Larger gifts, if they are offered without conditions which will make them unacceptable, may be received, but always with the understanding that they are to be used in such manner as the Executive Committee may direct to advance the general welfare.

With a membership in the Department of over 3100, which ought to become 4000 in a short time, we believe it will be comparatively easy to raise \$1,000,000, if each member in his own community among his friends and acquaintances will undertake to raise \$250 for this purpose. We recommend that the attempt be made to raise the fund in this manner, upon a democratic, nation-wide basis.

6. While deeply appreciative of the grant that has already been made, without which the work of the past four years could not have been done, we do not believe we ought to have to depend in the future, upon such gifts. We should be entirely independent and we should have a fund under our own control, sufficient for continued and extensive research in the field of administration.

We accordingly recommend that the plan proposed be approved by the Department, and that the Executive Committee be authorized to work out the necessary details to carry it into effect.

In closing, we desire to record our appreciation of the fine work in research that has been done by the classroom teachers, the elementary principals, and the high-school principals. Their yearbooks and other publications represent distinct contributions to the cause of education. We join with them in this great movement, in this study of our common and special problems; a study that shall make a finer profession of education, and that shall make of every teacher, principal, and superintendent a "workman that needeth not to be ashamed."

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RELATION OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION AND ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS

E. C. HARTWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, BUFFALO, N. Y.

Superintendent Zenos Scott, Springfield, Mass.; Superintendent Frank Cody, Detroit, Mich.; Superintendent Paul C. Stetson, Dayton, Ohio, and Superintendent J. W. Studebaker, Des Moines, Iowa, join me in submitting the following statement of principles which if accepted would go far toward promoting a more efficient educational service.

We believe:

That the functions of the board of education should be legislative and judicial, which functions we understand to include the selection of a superintendent and the approval or disapproval of policies and expenditures.

That the superintendent of schools should be the chief executive officer of the board of education, that he should be elected for a term of years, and that he should sit as a non-voting member with the right of discussion in all board and committee meetings;

That all associate and assistant superintendents, supervisors, directors, principals, teachers, and those directly charged with business affairs, should be directly responsible to the superintendent and appointed by the board of education only upon his recommendation;

That the adoption of textbooks, the approval of courses of study, school sites, and architectural plans, and the selection of school equipment should be made by the board of education only upon recommendation of the superintendent;

That the superintendent should be held responsible for the preparation and presentation of the annual budget, building program, and salary schedule; that he should have exclusive control of all transfers and assign-

ments of teachers, principals, supervisors, and other employees, as well as for the transfer, promotion, and classification of pupils;

And that the aforesaid definitions of powers and duties should be provided for by statute.

REPORT OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

M. G. CLARK, CHAIRMAN, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SIOUX CITY, IOWA

The Sixth Yearbook, which is already in your hands, and the annual report, which will soon be in your hands, we hope, will constitute the real detailed report of the Executive Committee. However, at one of the recent meetings of the Executive Committee, two communications were received, one from the Junior Red Cross asking that a committee be appointed by the Executive Committee, or by this Department, which should be able to establish certain relationships between this Department and the Junior Red Cross. A similar request came also to the Committee from the National Congress of Parents and Teachers.

The Executive Committee in considering both these requests felt that to appoint a committee for each of the different requests that might come to us would be perhaps cumbersome, and after much deliberation they decided upon the following recommendations:

Your Executive Committee recommends the creation of a standing committee of five to be appointed by the incoming president of the Department, one member to be appointed for five years, one for four years, one for three years, one for two years, and one for one year, and one member to be appointed annually hereafter by the incoming president.

This Committee shall be known as the Committee on Relations of the Department of Superintendence with Lay Organizations.

The functions of this Committee shall be:

1. To examine into the purposes and merits of various lay organizations seeking the recognition of the Department and to report such as they approve to the Executive Committee for their acceptance.

2. To establish a working basis of understanding and cooperation between the Department and approved and accepted lay organizations.

The Department of Supervisors and Directors of
Education

THE DEPARTMENT OF SUPERVISORS AND DIRECTORS OF INSTRUCTION was created by the Board of Directors at its meeting in Minneapolis, July 4, 1928. The Board of Directors took the following action as shown by its minutes: President Adair informed the Board of Directors that requests had been made for a Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction; that the necessity for such a department had been substantiated by much data and that the department had complied with all the necessary rules for its creation. Mr. Rogers moved that a Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction be created. The motion was seconded and carried. It was then declared that the new department had been duly created. The officers for the year 1928-29 are: *President*, Mary A. S. Mugan, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Fall River, Mass.; *First Vicepresident*, A. S. Barr, Associate Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.; *Second Vicepresident*, I. Jewell Simpson, Assistant State Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore, Md.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, James F. Hosic, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City; *Executive Committee*, W. H. Burton, Associate Professor of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.; J. Cayce Morrison, Assistant Commissioner for Elementary Education, State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.; Mabel E. Simpson, Director of Elementary Education, Public Schools, Rochester, N. Y.

The Department 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 take over the publications of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, including its yearbook, in 1926.

The officers of this Department for the year 1928-29 are: *President*, W. P. Morgan, Macomb, Ill.; *First Vicepresident*, R. L. Marquis, Denton, Texas; *Second Vicepresident*, E. C. Higbie, Madison, S. Dak.; *Third Vicepresident*, Richard Hardreaves, Cheney, Wash.; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Charles W. Hunt, Cleveland, Ohio.

1870: 1- 88	1885:223-248	1897:709-736	1907:739-759	1918: 209-235
1873:164-199	1886:389-423	1898:728-757	1908:703-739	1919: 221-259
1874:214-254	1887:467-604	1899:835-904	1909:547-597	1920: 237-263
1875:138-153	1888:465-515	1900:480-491	1910:563-595	1921: 515
1876:157-211	1889:557-613	1901:635-646	1911:695-709	1922:1063-1085
1877:139-174	1890:717-759	1902:529-649	1912:809-897	1923: 737-744
1879:113-135	1891:709-741	1903:539-595	1913:523-553	1924: 613-637
1880:176-193	1892:407-435	1904:567-593	1914:497-565	1925: 863
1881:199-218	1894:819-871	1905:517-557	1915:763-815	1926: 838-947
1882:173-181	1895:672-718	1906:707-711	1917:383-417	1927: 873-950
1884:236-258	1896:642-666			

*MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS COLLEGES AT BOSTON
MASSACHUSETTS, FEBRUARY 24 AND 25, 1928*

THE teachers college movement is gathering great impetus throughout the United States as was evidenced at the annual meeting of the American Association of Teachers Colleges held at the Copley-Plaza Hotel in Boston February 24 and 25. D. B. Waldo, president of the state teachers college at Kalamazoo, Michigan, presided over the sessions for which he had arranged a most interesting program. Under his direction each of the five sessions moved forward with dignity and depth of purpose and gave evidence of his grasp of the needs of the institutional members and of his human reaction to the fellowship of the fraternity composed largely of their administrators and others who are devoting most of their time and effort towards the improvement of teacher training in this country.

The forenoon program on Friday consisted of an address by Dean S. F. Bogardus of the state normal school at Terre Haute, Indiana, and by E. H. Taylor of the state teachers college at Charleston, Illinois. These addresses made appeals for a continuous survey of teacher-training institutions and for the better preparation of teachers in arithmetic respectively and demonstrated the practical and professional standards which such institutions wish to attain. After some discussion by Presidents Felmley of Normal, Illinois; Lord of Charleston, Illinois; and Brandenburg of Manhattan, Kansas, and brief remarks by others, some routine business closed the session.

Friday afternoon's program was given over to addresses on twenty years of progress in "Student Admissions," in "Teacher Certification," in "Training School Facilities," in "Professional Education of Teachers in Service," and in "The Training of Rural Teachers."

The subjects were handled by President A. Linscheid, Ada, Oklahoma; by President H. A. Brown, Oshkosh, Wisconsin; by President E. C. Higbie, Madison, South Dakota; by Principal Charles Russell, Westfield, Massachusetts; and by Ernest Burnham, State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

This program developed a very interesting review of the accomplishments of the teachers colleges of the United States.

The Friday evening session was held in the Swiss room, where all in attendance partook of a very delightful banquet at which Miss Adair, president of the National Education Association, was a guest, and where Dr. A. E. Winship celebrated his eighty-third birthday by honoring the association with his presence as guest of honor. Dr. F. N. Freeman of the University of Chicago presented the subject, "What are the Psychological Materials, a Knowledge of which is Most Essential to Teachers." He was followed by Dean Henry W. Holmes of Harvard University who

spoke on the subject, "The Training of Teachers and the Making of the Nation." Dr. W. C. Bagley of Teachers College, Columbia University, gave a very interesting discussion of the subject, "Twenty Years of Progress in the Professionalization of Subjectmatter for Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges." The guest of honor, Mr. Winship, was then introduced, and responded with a very interesting review of the beginning of normal schools in Massachusetts. One hundred eighty-three persons were in attendance. Most of these represented the one hundred forty-five institutions in the association. Some were interested in the common problems of these institutions.

On Saturday morning the Committee on Achievements and Services of American Teachers Colleges gave very interesting reports on these topics:

First: Twenty Years of Progress in the Service Rendered by Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges.

Second: Twenty Years of Progress in the Qualifications and the Salaries of Teachers of Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges.

Third: Twenty Years of Progress in the Financial Support of Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges.

The men who presented these reports were: President Bruce R. Payne, Nashville, Tennessee; President E. L. Hendricks, Warrensburg, Missouri; President R. M. Black, Ellendale, North Dakota.

Following this report an interesting address on "Opportunities in Problems Ahead" was given by Dean J. W. Withers of New York University. This was followed by a report on "The Relation of the State Teachers College to the Training of Public School Librarians" which was made by Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, and Carl Milam, secretary of the American Library Association.

The Saturday afternoon program was so arranged that it finished up the business of the association, including reports of committees and the election of new officers. The Committee on Standards and Surveys met and reported on three topics: An Experiment with Freshman Standards for the Libraries of Teachers Colleges, and Present Status of English in the Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges of the United States. These topics were reported on by Dr. Clare Brown Cornell, of Greeley, Colorado; Dr. G. W. Rosenlof, of Lincoln, Nebraska; and Dr. Ida Jewett of Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Following this report Dr. E. S. Evenden reported on Proposed Changes in the Standards of the American Association which had been revised at Dallas.

President E. L. Hendricks of Warrenburg, Missouri, filed the report of the delegates to the American Council on Education, and President H. B. Williams, of Bowling Green, Ohio, presented the report of the Board of Directors of The American Council for Social Studies. This was followed by the report of the Auditing Committee, and finally by the report of the Nominating Committee, which proposed the following officers:

President -----	President W. P. Morgan State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois
First Vicepresident-----	President R. L. Marquis State Teachers College, Denton, Texas
Second Vicepresident----	President E. C. Higbie State Teachers College, Madison, South Dakota
Third Vicepresident----	President Richard Hargraves Cheney, Washington
Secretary-Treasurer ----	Dean Charles W. Hunt Cleveland School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio
Member of Committee on Standards and Sur- veys -----	Dr. Ned Dearborn, State Department of Educa- tion, Albany, New York
Delegate to American Council on Education---	President Norman W. Cameron, State Normal School, West Chester, Pa.
Member of Committee on Accrediting and Classification -----	President Joseph Rosier, State Teachers College, Fairmont, West Virginia
Representative to Coop- erate with the United States Bureau of Edu- cation -----	President Bruce R. Payne, Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee
Member of Board of Directors for American Council for Social Studies -----	President H. B. Williams, State Teachers Col- lege, Bowling Green, Ohio

The report was adopted and the names of the persons nominated will appear as the official roster of officers for the new year.

The entire meeting showed the careful planning of the program by the President, and a desire on the part of speakers to investigate fully, and report on the topics assigned them. This meeting approaches a high water mark for the American Association of Teachers Colleges, and in large measure keeps step with the development which these institutions have made during the last twenty years and presages the probable growth which lies ahead of them for the next few years.

The National Education Association through the columns of *The Journal* from time to time has kept the public informed concerning the problems and progress of the institutions of this association.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON SURVEYS AND STANDARDS

E. S. EVENDEN, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY

Due to the unavoidable absence of President G. W. Frasier, chairman of this Committee, and Clyde M. Hill, the next ranking member, it fell to my lot upon a day's notice, to put in form and present the report of this Committee for your consideration and action. You have had another year in which to consider the standards which were revised and adopted last year at Dallas. In addition to this opportunity to study them, your Committee on Accrediting and Classification has had the opportunity to apply these standards to eighty-two of your schools. As a result of this study and the application of the standards, several questions have been referred to the Committee on Standards and Surveys for recommendations. These questions have come from presidents in the field and from the Committee on Accrediting and Classification. In addition to these questions there was the one referred to this Committee by President Felmley last year when he moved that some method be arranged which would permit teachers colleges and normal schools to retain the services of some older successful teachers who do not hold the required degrees.

It is appropriate at this time to remind you that it has been the opinion of your Committee on Surveys and Standards that your standards must be thought of as "growing" and not as fixed goals. At both the Washington and the Dallas meeting I have maintained that the teachers colleges, as four year degree-granting colleges, are relatively too young to be handicapped by standards which cannot be changed and which, in most cases, have been built upon personal opinions and upon current practice which, in several respects, is admittedly below the desired level.

It has been the procedure of the Committee on Standards and Surveys to submit for your consideration a change in a standard whenever it is found that the standard does not produce desirable results or whenever, in the light of further evidence, we feel that such a change merits your attention.

In the absence of the other two members of the Committee on Standards and Surveys, the Committee on Accrediting and Classification was asked to consider and pass upon the recommended changes in the standards. It was opportune since they had so recently been applying the standards and had just finished a two-day session on this report to the Association. The following proposals, therefore, are presented with the approval of both committees.

Proposed Changes

1. *Standard III, Sec. A and B. Standards for Graduation*

This standard as now worded does not prevent a student from taking his entire 120 semester hours in extension classes, or correspondence, or both.

This oversight was called to the attention of the Committee on Standards and Surveys by President T. T. Allen of East Stroudsburg, Pa. President Allen's study of the amount of work which may be done by correspondence has been supplemented by an intensive study of extension and correspondence work in Oklahoma by R. E. Crump. Institutions vary in the amount of work which they permit students to take in extension and correspondence from some which will accept no correspondence work for credit toward a degree, to others which will accept more than three fourths of the total required work. President Allen's study showed that the pronounced mode for the group of institutions studied was "one half of the total required work." Believing it to be your desire to have your standards represent better than model practice and also that the direction of improvement is toward less correspondence and extension work instead of more, the following proposals are submitted for your approval as SECTIONS C and D for Art. III.

C. Not more than one fourth of any curriculum leading to a degree or a certificate or a diploma in a teachers college or normal school shall be taken in extension classes or by correspondence. (Not more than one half of this shall be done by correspondence.) These classes shall be conducted by regularly appointed teachers who meet all the qualifications of Standard V, Preparation of the Faculty. No courses shall be offered for credit either in extension or by correspondence which are not also offered as part of the regular residence work. These courses should likewise meet the standards of sequence, prerequisites, etc. set forth in Standard VIII, Organization of the Curriculum.

Note: It is understood that this shall not be retroactively applied to any student who has (or is now registered for) credits in excess of the one fourth presented in this standard.

D. That no degree or certificate or diploma shall be issued by a teachers college or normal school to a student who has not spent a minimum of one year in regular residence work in the institution issuing the degree, certificate, or diploma. One year of residence work shall be understood to mean one year of full time study, or two half years of its equivalent in summer sessions.

2. *Standard V, Preparation of Faculty*

Last year, upon motion by President Felmley, the Association referred to this Committee the matter of providing in the standards for older successful teachers in the normal schools and teachers college faculties who did not have the required degrees. In order to provide for these teachers

as well as certain teachers of special subjects and some of the training supervisors (critic teachers) who are earning degrees during sabbatical absences, the following additional section is recommended for Standard V as section "C" changed to section "D."

C. Up to and including the school year 1932-33 a teachers college or normal school may be considered to have met the requirements of this standard if not over ten percent of the regularly appointed members of the faculty (college and training schools) shall fail to meet the standards set forth in V-A and B. After 1932-33 this percent shall be reduced to five.

3. Standard VIII, Organization of the Curriculum

At the suggestion of some of your number and consistent with the present practice in an increasing number of teachers colleges, the Committee recommends for your consideration the desirability of changing the "one half" in the 9th line of SECTION A, Standard VIII to "two thirds." This part of SECTION A would then read: "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 two thirds of the work of a student in the junior and senior years shall consist of advanced courses open only to juniors and seniors.

4. Standard XII. Limits of Registration of Students

The Committee on Accrediting and Classification had difficulty in interpreting the term "regular registration" in SECTION A of Standard XII. At its suggestion we recommend that "registration during the regular school year, not including the summer term" be substituted so that SECTION A will read as follows: "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 registration during the regular school year (not including the summer term) of at least two hundred students of college grade."

I wish to express my personal appreciation to Presidents Waldo, Morgan, Phelps, McKearny, Rockwell, Butcher, Shackelford, J. C. Brown, Hendricks, and Dean Hunt who, as officers of the Association, members of the Committee on Accrediting and Classification, or inspectors, assisted so efficiently in the preparation of this report in the absence of the other members of this Committee.

STANDARDS FOR ACCREDITING TEACHERS COLLEGES

ADOPTED AT WASHINGTON, D. C., FEBRUARY 26, 1926. REVISED AT DALLAS, TEXAS, FEBRUARY 26, 1927, AND AT BOSTON, MASS., FEBRUARY 25, 1928.

I. Definition of a Teachers College

- A. Teachers College (Four Year Institution Granting Degrees). 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. Normal School or Junior Teachers College. 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.

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 15 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 25 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 120 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 60 semester hours or the equivalent; and for a normal school or junior teachers college with a three-year curriculum, at least 90 semester hours or the equivalent.
- C. Not more than one fourth of any curriculum leading to a degree or a certificate or a diploma in a teachers college or normal school shall be taken in extension classes or by correspondence. (Not more than one half of this shall be done by correspondence.) These classes shall be conducted by regularly appointed teachers who meet all the qualifications of Standard V, Preparation of the Faculty. No courses shall be offered for credit either in extension or by correspondence which are not also offered as part of the regular residence work. These courses should likewise meet the standards of sequence, prerequisites, etc., set forth in Standard VIII, Organization of the Curriculum.

Note: It is understood that this shall not be retroactively applied to any student who has (or is now registered for) credits in excess of the one fourth presented in this standard.

- D. That no degree or certificate or diploma shall be issued by a teachers college or normal school to a student who has not spent a minimum of one year in regular residence work in the institution issuing the degree, certificate, or diploma. One year of residence work shall be understood to mean one year of full time study, or two half years or its equivalent in summer sessions.

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 18 college students, each of whom does 90 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 requirements 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. Up to and including the school year 1932-33 a teachers college or normal school may be considered to have met the requirements of this standard if not over ten percent of the regularly appointed members of the faculty (college and training school) shall fail to meet the stand-

ard set forth in V-A. and B. After 1932-33 this percent shall be reduced to five.

- D. 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: 16 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 40 children at any one time.
- D. The minimum amount of student teaching required of every graduate of a teachers college shall be 90 hours of supervised teaching.
- E. For every 18 college students to be given 90 hours of student teaching, there shall be a minimum group of 30 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 of more than 18 college students, each of whom does 90 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 50 student teachers, each of whom does 90 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. (Proposal that two thirds be inserted for one half was put on table for one year.)

- 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 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 15,000 volumes, exclusive of public documents, are recommended as a minimum.
- B. Each teachers college with less than 500 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 500 to 1000 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 200 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 ground for dropping a teachers college from the accredited list. 15 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 60 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 100 students above 200, 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 100 students above 200.

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 one 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.

A CONTINUOUS SURVEY FOR TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

F. S. BOGARDUS, DEAN, INDIANA STATE NORMAL SCHOOL
TERRE HAUTE, IND.

The continuous survey now in use in the Indiana State Normal School (Terre Haute) has attracted some attention among the teachers colleges and it is, I suppose, for that reason that I have been asked to tell about it today.

The form of record now kept in our institution has been developing since 1921. In that year it was decided that we should devise a system of records and record keeping that would collect all significant facts of our institu-

tional life in permanent form and keep them in one place. A form covering five ledger pages and consisting of nine tables was devised. In the intervening years this enterprise has grown with experience until it covers twenty ledger pages and consists of forty tables. It stands in four main sections entitled "Students," "Teachers," "Finance," and "Library." Another section, "Placement," is to be added before the end of the year and some tables on the extracurriculum activities of students will be added to the "students" section.

The gathering and tabulating of this material is a formidable enterprise, but it pays. We feel that we have found a way of being sure about certain features of school life and we believe to be sure is worth a good deal of energy and money. All of the data regarding students are collected on the registration blanks on registration day, which is the first day of the term. While we have not made special inquiries entirely unnecessary, (who can tell what the next questionnaire will call for?) it is a fact that the number of special inquiries has sunk to a very small number, thanks to our statistical record. The data relating to teachers is secured by an annual inquiry directed to the teachers, the financial figures come from the bookkeeper, and the statistics on the library come from the librarian. The compiling of the figures requires about half the time of a clerk and the record book costs about thirty dollars. The printing of the forms is done in our own shop.

Summaries or totals are run out by term and year. For instance, all figures relating to enrolment, classification, failures, retardation, withdrawal and some other items are summarized for each term and year. Other data are of the kind that would need to be secured only once a year, as, for instance, preparation and experience of teachers, summary of non-residence work, salaries, library, and finance.

What are the uses of the record? First, it enables us to answer questionnaires with a minimum of time and effort. Second, it enables us to make reports to the state superintendent and certain bodies like the American Association with accuracy and facility. Third, we have spread before us a picture, a cross-section of the school as it is, and, fourth, we are able to detect drifts and trends which otherwise would not be noticed or about which we could not be sure. The third and fourth uses are, of course, the most important ones. From our point of view the whole matter is an administrative device intended to reduce guessing as to policies and measures to an absolute minimum. A degree of certainty in formulation of policies has been achieved that would have been unattainable under former conditions.

Five problems that recently have been worked out from our records are:

1. The number and placing of courses to be offered during mid-spring terms
2. Student load by departments
3. Room allotments on basis of size of classes
4. Attendance gains and losses by counties
5. The preparation and experience of normal teachers in relation to salaries

All through the course of these studies I have been hampered by the lack of data from other training institutions. Not much is available. It is worth a great deal to the school administrator to know how his average room allotments run, how his student load is distributed among departments, and how his attendance is shifting through the years among courses, terms, and counties. It would be worth a great deal more if he could have access to comparable statistics from similar institutions so that by comparison he could determine the rank of his institution in these important matters.

ARITHMETIC TEACHERS IN THE MAKING

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CHARLESTON, ILL.

The theme of this program is the progress made in education in the last twenty years. The progress made in the teaching of arithmetic in that period has been significant and fundamental, in methods of teaching, and in the selection and organization of subjectmatter. There has been a continuous reorganization of subjectmatter on the basis of learning and use. We have less hesitation about teaching something about 6000 before teaching everything about 6; we teach the simple equation and negative numbers instead of cube root and true discount; we are less likely to give eight times as much practice on 2×2 as on 9×9 as a text of a few years ago did; and we try harder to show how 9×8 is useful in problems the answers to which children want to know. American texts in arithmetic are as well designed for their purpose as any in the world. We are very much alive to the need of keeping the curriculum plastic and susceptible of change to meet the needs of the pupils. The most important problem, the one facing the normal schools and teachers colleges, is to furnish good teachers, masters of the subject and trained to teach. The object of this paper is to exhibit the standards for the preparation of teachers of arithmetic now existing in American teacher training institutions.

A letter requesting a copy of the curriculums offered was sent to every state and city normal school and teachers college listed in the *Educational Directory* of the United States Bureau of Education for 1927 (Bulletin No. 1, 1927). Copies of the curriculums, in a few cases only letters concerning the courses in arithmetic offered, were obtained from 189 institutions located in 42 states. Two of these institutions do not offer courses for the preparation of elementary teachers and were not included in this study.

A study of the curriculums of 187 of these teacher training institutions was made to determine the amount and character of the work in arithmetic offered and required. Some of the results of this study are given in the following tables:

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF COURSES IN ARITHMETIC OFFERED

No. of Courses.....	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N. C.	Unk.
No. of Schools.....	8	41	54	24	33	13	2	2	6	4

Table 1 shows that 8 schools offer no course in arithmetic, 41 schools offer 1 course, 54 schools offer 2 courses; also that 6 schools offer only non-credit courses for students failing to satisfy a test given at entrance; and that the number of courses offered by 4 schools could not be determined from the data at hand.

This table as well as the others that follow includes as a course in arithmetic any course given wholly or in part to instruction in the subject-matter, methods of teaching, or a combination of subjectmatter and methods of teaching arithmetic. Courses in methods are frequently given by departments of education.

The mode in Table 1 is seen to be 2 courses, and 152 of the 187 schools offer from 1 to 4 courses in arithmetic. The offering of more courses indicates that more differentiation is made to meet the needs of teachers of different grades.

TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF SEMESTER HOURS IN ARITHMETIC OFFERED

Semester Hours.....	1- 1.9	2- 2.9	3- 3.9	4- 4.9	5- 5.9	6- 6.9	7- 7.9	8- 8.9	9- 9.9	10- 10.9	11- 11.9	12- 12.9	13- 13.9	14
No. of Schools.....	2	23	15	16	25	17	2	15	5	11	17	6	4	7

In Table 2 the numbers in the top row represent semester hours. Some institutions give credits in semester hours and some in quarter hours, a quarter being 12 weeks. In this paper all credits have been reduced to semester hours. A quarter hour is counted as two thirds of a semester hour. Table 2 then shows that 2 schools offer from 1 to 1.9 semester hours of arithmetic, 23 schools offer from 2 to 2.9 semester hours, and so on. In a few cases an hour of arithmetic is a part of a course in teaching several of the common branches, and the time given to arithmetic is probably less than one semester hour. More than one half of the schools offer from 2 to 6.9 semester hours of arithmetic.

TABLE 3.—CONTENTS OF COURSES—Showing the number of schools giving the different numbers of semester hours to courses dealing primarily with subjectmatter, with methods, or with subject-matter and methods.

Semester Hours.....	1- 1.9	2- 2.9	3- 3.9	4- 4.9	5- 5.9	6- 6.9	7- 7.9	8- 8.9	9- 9.9	10- 10.9	11- 11.9	12- 12.9	14- 14.9	Totals
Subjectmatter.....	1	20	3	7	5	3	2	3	1	1	0	0	0	46
Methods.....	13	39	13	8	7	8	0	3	1	3	0	0	0	95
Subjectmatter and Methods.....	3	29	10	14	13	11	2	9	0	3	1	1	2	98

Using the second column as an example, Table 3 is read as follows: Twenty schools offer 2 or more but less than 3 semester hours of arithmetic dealing primarily with subjectmatter; 39 schools offer that number of semester hours in courses dealing primarily with methods of teaching; 29 schools offer that number of semester hours in courses dealing with both subjectmatter and methods of teaching. This table shows that 46 schools offer subjectmatter courses, 95 offer methods courses, and 98 offer courses dealing with both subjectmatter and methods of teaching. An offering of 2 or more but less than 3 semester hours is seen to be the mode for each of these three kinds of courses. This means that a quarter's work of 4 hours is a quite general offering in each of these kinds of courses.

In connection with this table it should be stated that 8 schools offer no work of any kind in arithmetic; 6 schools offer only non-credit courses for students who do not pass an examination given at entrance; and 7 schools offer no arithmetic except as a part of a course devoted to methods of teaching several subjects, for example, $2\frac{2}{3}$ semester hours on teaching the common branches. These 7 schools might fairly be counted as offering no arithmetic, which bring the number of such schools up to 15.

These three tables show the amount and character of arithmetic offered. But to know how this affects the teaching of arithmetic in the public schools, we must know how much of it is required of students preparing to teach in elementary schools.

TABLE 4.—REQUIREMENTS IN ARITHMETIC IN TWO-YEAR COURSES

Semester Hours Required....	1-1.9	2-2.9	3-3.9	4-4.9	5-5.9	6-6.9	7-7.9	8-8.9
Rural.....	0	20	20	6	5	1	0	0
Kindergarten-Primary.....	8	45	14	20	6	7	0	0
Intermediate.....	1	31	27	26	11	7	2	1
Grammar.....	1	27	7	28	11	2	3	1
Jr. H. S.....	2	7	2	12	2	2	1	1
General.....	0	15	7	2	4	3	0	1

	Total requiring arithmetic	Total not requiring arithmetic	Percent not requiring arithmetic	Percent requiring 4 or more sem. hr. arithmetic
Rural.....	52	11	17	19
Kindergarten-Primary.....	100	26	21	26
Intermediate.....	106	12	10	40
Grammar.....	80	6	7	52
Jr. H. S.....	29	6	17	51
General.....	33	27	45	17

Table 4 gives the requirements in arithmetic in two-year courses. Using the second column as an example, Table 4 is read as follows: Twenty schools require from 2 to 2.9 semester hours in arithmetic for rural school teachers; 45 schools require that amount of arithmetic for kindergarten-primary teachers; 31, for intermediate teachers; 27 for gram-

mar grade teachers; 7, for junior high-school teachers; 15, in a general course for teachers of all grades.

The first column in the second table gives the total number of schools requiring arithmetic in each of different kinds of courses; for example, 52 schools offering courses for rural school teachers require arithmetic in those courses. The second column in the second table gives the number of schools offering these different kinds of curriculums, but not requiring arithmetic in them; for example, 11 schools offering a curriculum for rural school teachers do not require arithmetic in it. The third column in the second table gives the percents of the two-year curriculums in which arithmetic is not required. For example, arithmetic is not required in 17 percent of the rural school curriculums, and in 45 percent of the general curriculums. Arithmetic is not required in 18 percent of all two-year curriculums offered; that is about one in six. It should be noticed that these requirements include all instruction in arithmetic, both in methods and in subjectmatter, that could be discovered in the printed curriculums of the 187 teacher training institutions. The right hand column gives the percents of two-year curriculums requiring 4 or more semester hours of arithmetic. Thirty-four percent of all two-year curriculums require 4 or more hours of arithmetic. Before commenting upon the offerings and requirements in arithmetic shown in these tables, I wish to raise the question as to what training in arithmetic is needed by students in teachers colleges and normal schools who are preparing to teach in the elementary schools, and to give some evidence to answer that question.

A test in arithmetic was given to 2097 freshmen entering the five state teachers colleges of Illinois in the fall of 1927. The test consisted of 20 questions, 6 of which were two-step problems, 3 were one-step problems, and 11 were exercises in the fundamental operations with integers and common and decimal fractions.

The time given for the test was 45 minutes. At Charleston most of the students taking the test had time to complete it as far as they were able, and had time to reread and check their papers. Previous experiment had shown that the results from allowing the same or different weights to the questions affected the median and average only slightly. Hence for convenience in scoring, each correct answer was scored 5. In four of the colleges each question was scored right or wrong, questions not attempted being scored zero. In one college attempts and rights were scored. The questions are given below and opposite each question is given the percent of the 2097 students failing to get the correct answer.

SELECTIVE TEST ON FUNDAMENTALS OF ARITHMETIC

ARRANGED BY C. N. MILLS

Problems should be worked in sequence, and all work must be shown and neatly arranged. Time allowed, 45 minutes.

	<i>Percent of failures</i>		<i>Percent of failures</i>
1. Add		10. The product of two numbers is $12 \frac{1}{4}$, and one of the numbers is $3 \frac{3}{4}$; what is the other?	49.0
645.43			
784.05			
369.79			
858.88		11. James had $25 \frac{1}{4}$ bu. of potatoes and sold $8 \frac{2}{3}$ bu. How many bu. had he left?	37.3
106.34			
966.97		12. Divide	
807.59		116781 by 83	20.0
	30.0		
2. Multiply		13. Add	
86089		14 $\frac{7}{8}$	
9067		40 $\frac{5}{6}$	
	32.3	32 $\frac{2}{3}$	
3. At \$8.25 a ton, what is the cost of a load of coal weighing 6800 lbs? (1 ton = 2000 lbs.)	31.4		33.3
4. Subtract		14. Change $\frac{7}{16}$ to a decimal, four places.	45.5
458038			
288409		15. A man bought a house for \$6350. After spending \$236.60 for repairs, he sold the house for \$8200. What did he gain?	27.1
	10.2		
5. Divide		16. Material is bought for eight curtains, each requiring $2 \frac{3}{4}$ yards. What is the cost at 96 cents per yard?	27.1
.35 $\overline{)175}$	46.0	17. Divide $\frac{5}{36}$ by 6	40.3
6. A man completed $\frac{5}{8}$ of a piece of work in $7 \frac{1}{2}$ days. How long should it require him to complete the remaining $\frac{3}{8}$ of the work?	60.5	18. A baker uses $\frac{5}{8}$ lb. of flour to each loaf of bread. How many whole loaves can be made from a barrel of flour (196 lbs.)?	56.3
7. Add the fractions		19. Divide	
$\frac{2}{3}$ $\frac{3}{5}$ $\frac{7}{12}$	30.2	.023328 by 2.7	42.8
8. In one year a cow gave 8600 lbs. of milk, .04 of which was butter fat. At 48 cents a lb., what was the value of the butter fat?	39.9	20. The list price of an article was reduced from \$1.89 to \$1.26. The reduction was what fractional part of the list price?	52.7
9. Multiply			
24 $\frac{5}{8}$ by 32 $\frac{3}{4}$	58.3		

The average score on the 20 questions in the five colleges was 60 on the basis of 100.

I have analyzed the errors in certain of the exercises in 270 papers. In .35 $\overline{175}$ the quotient was found to be 50 by 2 students, 5 by 46, .5 by 18, and .05 by 41. Thirty-seven percent of the 270 failed to obtain the correct answer.

Of 139 failures on question 18, 64 multiplied by $5/8$, 21 made an error in division, 12 in reasoning, 7 in multiplication, and 29 did not attempt or left incomplete.

The average for 270 students at Charleston was 61.2. The average for the third who had studied arithmetic since leaving the eighth grade, presumably for a semester in high school, was only 3.5 more, 64.7.

The evidence is conclusive that these students cannot be trusted to obtain correct answers and to check their results when performing the fundamental operations with integers. About three out of 10 failed in adding seven numbers of five figures each and in multiplying a five-place number by a four-place number; about 1 in 10 failed in subtracting one six-place number from another; about 1 in 5 failed in dividing a six-place number by a two-place number when the quotient was an integer. The domains of common and decimal fractions are largely unknown. About 3 out of 10 failed in adding $2/3$, $3/5$, and $7/12$; 2 out of 5 failed in dividing $5/36$ by 6; 5 out of 9 failed in dividing 175 by .35, and in reducing $7/16$ to a decimal fraction. These seem sufficiently simple exercises. I am not surprised that these students made mistakes. That is to be expected. But that they should leave these errors without checking by some simple method proves that they need to be taught the subjectmatter of arithmetic before beginning to teach it.

I have mentioned that in finding how many loaves of bread can be made from 196 lb. of flour, allowing $5/8$ of a pound to a loaf, 3 out of 7 students multiplied by $5/8$. That is indicative of the kinds of errors that are made in thinking about the simplest numerical relations as soon as common or decimal fractions are introduced into problems. No one except the teacher of arithmetic knows how many high school graduates cannot see that how many loaves, $5/8$ of a pound to a loaf, is the same kind of question as how many loaves, 2 pounds to a loaf. How can problem solving be taught without seeing such relations?

Other studies have been made of the amount of arithmetic at the command of high-school graduates and college students.

Schorling and Clark measured the ability of 3545 children of grades from 5 to 12 in simple tasks in computation. Two hundred fifteen of these children were in the twelfth grade. These are illustrative of the results. Of the pupils in the twelfth grade 29 percent could not find 25 percent of 80; 81 percent could not find 2.1 percent of 60; 12 percent could not add $7/8$ and $3/16$; 32 percent could not divide $3/8$ by 4; 51 percent could not find the answer to 6 is what percent of 60?

Schorling and Clark say: "We find little increase in ability in computation after the eighth grade."

Can college freshmen meet the requirements set up in standard tests for eighth grade pupils?

R. L. Morton gave the Courtis Arithmetic Tests, Series B, to 104 women college freshmen at Ohio University. The results show that with Courtis's Standards as a basis, the average attainments of these students were about that of the 4th grade in addition, 5th in subtraction, between 4th and 5th in multiplication, and 6th in division. Of the 104 only one reached the Courtis eighth grade standards of speed and accuracy in the four fundamental operations with integers.

J. A. Drushel repeated Morton's test on 100 students at Harris Teachers College in St. Louis and found that 6 of these reached or surpassed the eighth grade standards.

The Stanford Achievement Test, Form B, was given in the fall of 1927 to freshmen entering the Detroit Teachers College. The median score was 243. A statewide survey of the village and rural schools of the state of New York in April, 1926, gave approximately the same result as the average of the median scores made by eighth grade pupils.

The most significant study of the abilities in arithmetic of prospective teachers that I know about is the doctor's thesis of J. Andrew Drushel of New York University on "Arithmetic Knowledges and Skills of Prospective Teachers." This study began with the entering class of the Harris Teachers College of St. Louis in September, 1907, and concluded with the entering class in 1924.

Dr. Drushel gave reasoning tests in arithmetic to 45 entering classes. These tests were made from problems selected from the 6th, 7th, and 8th grade books of the Southworth Stone three-book series then in use in the St. Louis public schools. The problems were selected to cover as many phases as possible of the work of those years. Accuracy and skill in computing were measured by the scores on problems. During the latter part of the period the Courtis Research Tests, Series B, were used with 215 students, and the Cleveland Survey Tests with 141 students.

Each reasoning test was composed of 10 problems. The tests were given to freshmen in the early part of the first week of the first semester, in two 50-minute periods, 5 problems in each period.

The students were from the upper two thirds of their graduating classes in high school. The most of them were from St. Louis high schools. They were solving problems from the books to be taught in the 6th, 7th, and 8th grades of the schools in which they were preparing to teach.

Of 11,293 problem opportunities there were 34.2 percent of correct answers. But certain types of errors that occur many times make it very clear that it is folly to expect these students to succeed in teaching arithmetic without giving them an extended course in the subjectmatter of arithmetic.

Over 30 percent of a group of 244 who needed the fact did not know the number of feet in a rod.

Of a group of 402 who attempted to get the hypotenuse of a right triangle when given the two legs, one sixth of them either took the sum of the sides, the difference of the sides, the square root of the sum, or one half the sum.

We are told that these students failed in the solution of problems for the same reasons that Osburn gives for the failures of elementary school children.

1. Partly because they relied upon memory of formal rules.
2. Partly because they read incorrectly.
3. Chiefly because they lacked proper methods of attack.

The solutions show generally inadequate training in number sense, in observing whether a result is reasonable, and in checking it.

"The majority of individuals in this study show an astonishing immaturity in ability to apply principles and processes in the solution of problems more difficult than the one-step type."

"About 15 percent (1220 individuals whose papers were scored by the first method) show evidence of sufficient skill in problem solving to justify them in taking methods courses in the teaching of arithmetic without further study of content in connection with methods courses. About 10 percent of the group should have been eliminated at entrance."

In his conclusions regarding skill in computation Dr. Drushel says: "About 6 percent of the group reach or surpass the Courtis eighth grade rate-accuracy standards in each of the four fundamental operations with integers." About 34 percent of the group are below these standards in all four of the fundamental operations with integers. The medians of these groups in the Cleveland Survey Tests in like and unlike fractions were below the medians of the St. Louis eighth grades.

It is not to be expected that college freshmen can compute as well as eighth grade pupils who are in practice. But what about the next grade class that has for a teacher one of these freshmen who has had no more instruction in arithmetic?

Dr. Drushel recommends that teacher training institutions should give the necessary instruction in the subjectmatter of arithmetic along with methods. "It is still true that through content we must get method and that special method should not be superimposed upon content." This is a recommendation that needs serious attention in teachers colleges that require no arithmetic and in those that require and offer only courses in methods.

I have presented two sets of facts. One shows that most high-school graduates have neither the skill in computation, mastery of facts, nor ability to solve problems to fit them to teach arithmetic. The other shows the amount of arithmetic offered and required in teacher-training institutions. It appears that a few institutions training teachers for the elementary schools offer no instruction in the subjectmatter or methods of teaching arithmetic; about one sixth offer only methods courses; and about one sixth of the two-year curriculums offered for elementary teachers require no work in subjectmatter or methods of teaching. This means

that a large number of teachers may receive a two-year diploma without having any arithmetic beyond that taken in the eighth grade. A still larger number may, and no doubt do, graduate with no arithmetic, except a short course in methods of teaching.

About five sixths of the curriculums for elementary teachers require two or more semester hours in arithmetic. Probably most of this instruction is in methods. What is a reasonable requirement? Four semester hours is a minimum. Table 4 shows the percents of the curriculums in which four or more semester hours are required. About one third of all curriculums (34 percent) require four or more semester hours of arithmetic. Dr. Drushel is clearly within the truth in saying that only about one in six of our freshmen knows enough at entrance to profit by courses in methods. It is folly to tell students how to teach decimal fractions and percentage who cannot divide 175 by .35 or find 2.1 percent of 180. It is far better to teach freshmen classes division of fractions well, leaving methods of teaching children to the training school, than to spend time talking about methods of presenting, motivating, and organizing subject-matter that the students do not know. But a better method is to teach division of fractions to the college class by methods that they may use in the elementary school. This instruction, reinforced by practice teaching, should furnish a good preparation for teaching in the elementary school.

I know one teachers college in which arithmetic has declined because the courses in arithmetic do not receive credit at the state university. Here is an example, that is bad, of abandoning the purpose of the teachers college to meet the requirements of an outside standardizing agency. Arithmetic is a professional subject that is necessary for the best preparation of the elementary school teacher. It should not be dropped, and it should not be superseded by a course in more advanced mathematics. We can as little afford to substitute college algebra or calculus for arithmetic in the preparation of the elementary school teacher as can the engineering school to replace calculus by methods in arithmetic.

Is arithmetic a normal school subject but not a teachers college subject? Does a school preparing elementary teachers change its job when it changes the name? The schools in which arithmetic is approaching a vanishing point nearly all are in the part of the country where the name teachers college has recently become popular. Is it feared that the new academic dignity will suffer by offering a course in an elementary school subject? It should suffer if this course is eighth grade arithmetic. It need not be. It should be a college course. There is an abundance of material. O. B. Upton's articles in Volume 27 of the *Teachers College Record* give an excellent exposition of it. It may also be found in texts. For a good many years I have been teaching mathematics from arithmetic to calculus. I think that no course that I give is more valuable for its general culture, for its use in practical affairs, and for its discipline in

mathematical thinking for the students who take it, than the course in arithmetic, and none requires keener insight into quantitative relations.

I began by referring to the progress made in the teaching of arithmetic in that last twenty years. I have not forgotten that. Neither am I overlooking the excellent preparation for the teaching of arithmetic now given in many teacher training institutions. But the teaching of arithmetic cannot make the progress it should in the next two decades if it is neglected in a large number of normal schools and teachers colleges. Progress must be stimulated in the main by them. Arithmetic has suffered from being called a tool subject. From which it is concluded that its mastery, like the use of a monkey wrench, depends only upon memory and practice. Fundamentally arithmetic is a tool in thinking, in determining relations of how many and how big. As such it is tremendously more important than reading and writing, convenient as these are. A great many people have gone a long way without being able to read or write. No one ever went any distance at all without being able to answer some questions of how many and how big. I have often heard this quotation from Professor Keyser: "One may be a living being and not be able to count and measure. But one cannot be a human being without being able to count and measure." Arithmetic, properly taught, is one of the humanities after all.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON ACCREDITING AND CLASSIFICATION

CHARLES MCKENNY, PRESIDENT, MICHIGAN STATE NORMAL COLLEGE
YPSILANTI, MICH., CHAIRMAN

It will be recalled that the matter of classification involves the work of two committees, namely, the Committee on Standardization and the Committee on Classification and Accrediting. The Committee on Standardization submitted a report which was adopted by this association in 1926 and the Committee on Classification and Accrediting was authorized to classify and accredit the institutional members of the association on the basis of the standards adopted. There was no money in the treasury of the association to finance inspection and the committee was not instructed to levy a fee on the institutions that desired inspection, consequently the committee had to carry on this work by questionnaire. Under the direction of President Rockwell, chairman of the committee, a questionnaire was framed in harmony with the standards and sent to all the members of the association. The data gathered were evaluated and the committee submitted its report at the Dallas meeting last year. The questionnaire method was found most undesirable and the committee so reported. Meanwhile, the Committee on Standards had prepared a new schedule of standards, which was adopted at the Dallas meeting. The Committee on Classification and Accrediting was instructed to inspect

on the basis of the new standards the institutions making application and was authorized to establish an inspection fee sufficiently large to cover the expense of inspection.

The first duty of the committee was to construct a new form for the collecting of data necessary for action. The form was completed in September. The committee decided that a fee of fifty dollars would probably be sufficient to cover the expense of inspection. It was agreed that inspectors should be asked to serve without pay and this they have willingly done. It was the desire of the committee to get inspection done so that a report might be submitted at this meeting. As it was impossible for a limited number of inspectors to visit the eighty-eight institutions that had asked for inspection the committee enlarged its number by inviting others, not members of the committee, to assist them. In all, thirteen men have assisted in inspection, namely, President D. B. Waldo, President George W. Frasier, President T. W. Butcher, Professor E. L. Hendricks, President E. M. Shackelford, President W. P. Morgan, President J. C. Brown, Dean H. C. Minnich, Dean Charles W. Hunt, Professor Ned Dearborn, Professor W. D. Ross, Professor H. G. Lull, and President Charles McKenny. It probably is generally known that the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at its meeting last March voted to admit teachers colleges that could meet its standards to the general list of colleges and universities. Seventeen teachers colleges applied for inspection by the North Central, and Dean Hunt of the Cleveland School of Education was secured by the North Central to do the inspection. It seemed wise to the committee on inspection to invite Dr. Hunt to inspect these institutions for the American Association of Teachers Colleges also. This he very willingly did. A total of 80 teachers colleges applied for inspection prior to the annual meeting and of this number 75 have been inspected. This leaves 5 yet to be inspected. One of these is at San Diego in the extreme southwest and one in Washington in the extreme northwest. It is yet to be discovered how a fifty dollar fee can cover the expenses of inspecting these remote schools. Before the annual meeting others had applied for inspection and some had paid the fee.

The Committee on Inspection and the inspectors, with the exception of two, met in Boston Wednesday morning, February 22, and gave Wednesday and Thursday, February 22 and 23, to the consideration of the reports. It will be recalled that our standards provide that for the current year an institution may fall below the standards in three particulars, for the next year it may fall below in two and the succeeding year in one and still be placed in Class A. This is a wide latitude and the result was that a very large number of institutions that were inspected fell in Class A. It seemed wise to the Committee, although it had no authority to do so, to divide the Class A institutions into four

subdivisions, accordingly as they met all the requirements, or failed in one, two, or three. Class B institutions were treated the same way. The committee feels however, that it has no authority to make public the names of the institutions falling into these subdivisions. The number in each subdivision is as follows: A-1, 23; A-2, 21; A-3, 21. The Committee is reporting the institutions as under Class A, B, and C, ignoring the subdivisions. The Committee also voted that a letter should be sent the president of each institution stating in what particulars his institution failed to meet the standards set up. While the Committee has not had time to determine how many institutions fell below in each of the particular items in which they were deficient, it is evident that more have fallen down on the academic and professional preparation of the faculty than in any other particular. It also seems certain that the next item on which the institutions tripped was that of the library; for several others inadequate training facilities proved the stumbling block. It is gratifying to know that in the particulars of entrance requirements, requirements for graduation, teacher's load, and student load the standards were rarely violated. The inspectors pooled the experience gained from the visiting of seventy odd institutions and formulated certain recommendations which they are making to the committee on standards. They are as follows:

1. That the enrolment both in the college department and in the training school should be indicated by terms or semesters to avoid the using of the total enrolment as was done in many instances.

2. That more specific requirements be made regarding the library and library equipment and trained librarians.

3. That catalogs from the various institutions should be specific regarding sequences of subjects, and state the courses to which first and second year students are not admitted.

4. That consideration be given to the length of the teaching year, to salary schedules, and sabbatical privileges.

5. That more specific requirements be made regarding health service to include such items as medical practitioner full time, school nurse full time, oral hygienist full or parttime, a stenographer clerk parttime and such facilities as an office, room for examination and treatment, and rest rooms. It does not recommend that these requirements be made immediately mandatory.

The Committee recommends to this association that inasmuch as a number of institutions who have requested to be inspected have not been inspected, and inasmuch as in all likelihood others will apply during the year, that the Committee on Classification and Accrediting be given power to inspect such schools and place them in their proper classifications. The institutions which were inspected are classified as follows:¹

¹ Certain institutions were not inspected on account of lack of time or because of late application. The names of these institutions will be included in the next published list.

Class A

Ada, Okla.	Flagstaff, Ariz.	Murray, Ky.
Albany, N. Y.	Fredericksburg, Va.	Nacogdoches, Tex.
Alva, Okla.	Greeley, Colo.	Nashville, Tenn.
Athens, Ohio.	Greenville, N. C.	Natchitoches, La.
Bowling Green, Ky.	Gunnison, Colo.	Oshkosh, Wis.
Buffalo, N. Y.	Harrisonburg, Va.	Pittsburg, Kans.
Canyon, Tex.	Hays, Kans.	Plattville, Wis.
Cape Girardeau, Mo.	Huntsville, Tex.	Richmond, Ky.
Carbondale, Ill.	Kalamazoo, Mich.	San Marcos, Tex.
Cedar Falls, Iowa.	Kirksville, Mo.	Santa Barbara, Calif.
Charleston, Ill.	La Crosse, Wis.	Spearfish, S. D.
Commerce, Tex.	Macomb, Ill.	Springfield, Mo.
DeKalb, Ill.	Madison, S. D.	Stevens Point, Wis.
Denton, Tex.	Maryville, Mo.	Superior, Wis.
Durant, Okla.	Mayville, N. D.	Talequah, Okla.
East Radford, Va.	Menominee, Wis.	Terre Haute, Ind.
Eau Claire, Wis.	Miami, Ohio.	Valley City, N. D.
Edmond, Okla.	Milledgeville, Ga.	Warrensburg, Mo.
Ellendale, N. D.	Milwaukee, Wis.	Weatherford, Okla.
Emporia, Kans.	Minot, N. D.	Whitewater, Wis.
Fairmont, W. Va.	Mount Pleasant, Mich.	Ypsilanti, Mich.
Farmville, Va.	Muncie, Ind.	
Total, 65.		

Junior Colleges—Class A

Cleveland, Ohio.	Dickinson, N. D.	Shepherdstown, W. Va.
Cullowhee, N. C.	Florence, Ala.	Statesboro, Ga.
		Troy, Ala.

Junior Colleges—Class B

Alpine, Tex.	Springfield, S. D.	Ellendale, N. D.
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The Committee further recommends that the Concord Normal School at Athens, W. Va., be declared ineligible for classification.

*TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN THE SELECTION AND
ADMISSION OF STUDENTS IN STATE NORMAL
SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES*

A. LINSCHIED, PRESIDENT EAST CENTRAL STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE
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"Scholarship at Harvard," said Dean Briggs, a good many years ago, "depends more on the men we choose than on anything that we can do for them after we get them." In this remark the shrewd dean summed up the importance of standards of admission; for it is a fact that the preliminary education which students have before entering an institution of higher learning is often as important as anything that they learn during their sojourn there. The importance of the standards adopted for

admitting students is a matter of common observation. It has also been attested by scientific investigations. For example, G. T. Somers¹ found that the preparatory records of students entering a teachers college are a valuable factor in attempting to predict the success of the students in college. In fact, he found that these preparatory records of students entering are only slightly less valuable in predicting success in a teachers college than are elementary school records in predicting success in the high school. Now, since several scientific studies confirm ordinary observation in regarding scholarship in the elementary school of the utmost importance in foretelling success in the high school, the statement of Dr. Somers is of great significance.

There may be no harm in stating again what has been stated many times before; that there is no division of education into elementary, secondary, and higher departments so far as the students is concerned. Each individual's education is a continuous process from a primary to a more advanced level; and there are no lines of demarcation between the various stages of the educational process. Any such division is for convenience in discussion and administration. All this is only another way of saying that in considering the education of an individual every step in his progress is important. Nothing is trivial in education. Low standards of admission mean low standards of instruction; elementary and secondary education are of the foundations upon which a collegiate education is built; and while a good foundation will not, in itself, insure a good building, it is certain that no building can stand without such foundation.

Professional education for teachers has been harder to standardize than any other type of professional training; partly because of the greater numbers involved, and partly because the economic return that could be held out as an inducement for undergoing an adequate training for teaching has been so ridiculously small that ambitious and capable young people could not be induced to undergo it in sufficient numbers. So long as society cannot be made to see that those who teach the youth of the land must have a reward sufficient to justify a long period of thorough and intensive training, just so long we may expect multitudes to enter teaching as a temporary expedient to be used as a stepping-stone to marriage or to some calling more remunerative than teaching. There is a very definite ratio between the amount of training that can be required of any candidate for a profession and the amount of remuneration that can be offered upon the completion of that training. Long periods of professional preparation can be insisted upon only when commensurate rewards can be held out as an inducement for the completion of that preparation. The real reason for low professional standards in teaching is to be found in the meager rewards held out to teachers, particularly to rural and elementary teachers. It is this fact that has caused teaching steadily to defy becoming a profession.

¹ G. T. Somers, *Educational Prognosis*; Teachers College Contributions to Education, page 125.

Critics have frequently sought to show that the normal school and its successor, the teachers college, have had ridiculously low standards of admission. A look at the history of teaching and at the history of the school for teachers in this country will help to understand the reasons for this criticism in so far as it is just; and it must be said that some of the criticism of the normal school and the teachers college is just although much of it is unjust.

When the normal schools of the United States were established their function was conceived to be solely that of improvement of the training of elementary school teachers. That was the only type of public schools in America a little less than a century ago when the first normal schools were established. Secondary and higher education was left to private and denominational agencies; for secondary as well as higher education was conceived to be beyond the concern of the state. The normal school, therefore, was created as an aid to the teacher of the public common school. It was supposed to take him as he was, without secondary training, and give him a little understanding of the nature of the child which he was to lead, and a little information in the most important major fields of human learning, together with some methods or devices for acquainting the pupils with the rudiments of learning. Practically no one teaching in the elementary schools a century ago had any more than an elementary education; it followed as a natural consequence that the school for these teachers could not have any other than an elementary school standard for admission. Because the elementary teacher received starvation wages and because there was a very determined opposition to the whole theory of educating children at public expense, no entrance standards could be insisted upon. The normal school was compelled to take the teacher where it found him and offer him such aid as it could for one or at most two years; for a longer period of preparation was impossible so long as the whole theory of public education and of training for service in the public schools of the country was under the most vigorous and determined attack on the part of the better circumstanced classes of our population as well as on the part of private and endowed colleges and schools.

Accordingly, the normal schools did the only thing they could do; they set their requirements for admission so low that they could be met by those then engaged in teaching and those who desired to teach in schools offering the most meager sort of reward. The first normal school established in America, the Lexington, Massachusetts, Normal School provided in 1839 that those who desired to enter the institution must undergo an examination in: orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, and arithmetic, and must furnish evidence of good character. With a few notable exceptions, the standard for admission set up at Lexington in 1839 remained the standard for admission to normal schools in all parts of the country until 1890. That is to say, there was no substantial progress in

this important respect in a half century of teacher training history. Reforms came slowly in those days!

Because the early normal school admitted students who had only an elementary school education, it became an institution of secondary level; since the high school had not developed during this period, and since secondary education in schools other than normal schools was in the hands of private academies and seminaries, many of the poorer young people in communities near the towns or cities in which normal schools were located, found that they could get a secondary education more cheaply in the teacher training institutions than anywhere else, accordingly, many who did not desire to teach but wanted to prepare themselves for other professions or who wanted to prepare for college entrance, entered the normal schools. Thus these institutions took on a dual character: First, schools for the preparation of elementary school teachers; second, preparatory schools for college entrance. This tendency became noticeable about the year 1870 and prevailed almost universally until the close of the last century, persisting in some quarters until about the close of the first decade of the present century. Generally speaking and with allowance for only a few exceptions, the normal schools were institutions of secondary level until 1900 and in some instances until 1910. They were so regarded by superintendents of schools who were for the most part graduates or near graduates of liberal arts colleges; they were so regarded by the universities and other institutions of higher learning; they were so regarded by governors and legislatures in making the institutional appropriations; and they were so regarded by the general public. Thus the normal school of the past, and the not distant past, at that, was a secondary institution. Its status was definitely considered as secondary. This status was used as a justification for appropriating less money per capita for teacher training institutions than for other institutions supported by the state. So long as the normal school was an institution of secondary level the discrimination against it in making appropriations was probably justifiable; but when the teacher training institution ceased to be secondary, when it actually did work of collegiate level with an efficiency comparable to that of the other institutions of higher learning supported by the state, such discrimination became unjust; from it, however, many state teachers colleges have been unable to free themselves. Indeed, it is very doubtful whether there is a single state in the union that does not discriminate against the student in the teachers college by appropriating less money for him than for the undergraduate student in any other college. Then after giving the teachers college less than its share of the money to educate its students, some of its critics assail it because it spends so little on each student in proportion to other higher institutions of learning that grave doubts can be raised about the thoroughness of its instruction and the cultural values that it provides. It is difficult to estimate just how much the conception of the normal school as a secondary and not a collegiate institution has retarded its progress; but that it has been one

of the greatest obstacles to the progress of this institution cannot be questioned for a moment by any one who knows the history of American education.

That the normal school remained a secondary institution until very recently is proved by the catalogs and other literature of the normal schools themselves. Thus the journal published by the Millersville, Pennsylvania, normal school says under date of February, 1907:

There are three classes of educational institutions of which the Pennsylvania state normal schools are rivals: business colleges, academies, and college preparatory schools or public high schools.¹

The catalog for the Indiana State Normal School at Terre Haute for the year 1905-6 states:

Many students entering the normal school expect to go to college after completing their course in the normal school. Accordingly, they wish to take a course that will entitle them to enter the best colleges and universities without entrance conditions later.²

Massachusetts seems to have been the first state to require the completion of a high-school course or its equivalent as a prerequisite to admission to a state normal school. This state took this action in 1894. The preparatory department of the Providence, Rhode Island, state normal school was not discontinued until 1907. Recent as these dates are they are pioneer dates in the requirement of a secondary education for admission to a state normal school; the high-school department of the Illinois State Normal University at Normal was discontinued in 1894 but reestablished in 1910; the Winona, Minnesota, state normal school discontinued its preparatory department in 1917; the Indiana State Normal School, in 1920. A few progressive state normal schools like those at Ypsilanti and Kalamazoo, Mich.; Cedar Falls, Iowa; Greeley, Colo.; Emporia, Kans.; and San José, Calif., had discontinued their preparatory departments prior to 1910; but, in general, it may be stated that secondary departments persisted in state normal schools until 1920. The last 10 years, therefore, have been the most significant years in normal school history, so far as improvement in entrance conditions is concerned.

Further evidence that many normal schools and teachers colleges of the United States had no definite entrance requirements during the early part of the present century is found in the study of fifty normal schools by Superintendent J. M. Gwinn for the decade 1895-1905. He concludes his study with this statement:

The statements in the catalogs concerning entrance requirements are pretty generally vague. One feels on reading these statements that the vagueness is intentional so that if a candidate is not able to enter by one route, he may get in by another which is often by grace of the president.³

¹ *Normal Journal*, Millersville, Pa., Feb. 1907, p. 4-5.

² Catalogue, Indiana State Normal School, 1905-6, p. 46.

³ Gwinn, Joseph M. *Tendencies in Entrance Requirements of State Normal Schools*, *Education*, 28: 233-37, 1905.

The same authority also found the following status of the admission requirements in the normal schools under consideration for the decade above named:

Less than graduation from the eighth grade required by four schools.

Graduation from the eighth grade required by 37 schools.

Graduation from four years of high school work required by eight schools.¹

Another study made by Engleman in 1914 and based on the catalogs of 118 normal schools in 44 states concludes as follows:

Though there are still numerous courses open in most parts of the country (California, New York, Indiana, and New England are about the only exceptions) to students who have 8, 9, 10, or 11 years of academic training, such courses are decreasing in number, and life certificate courses are open only to high-school graduates or equivalent in seventy-five percent of the normal schools of the country.²

Earl U. Rugg, in a report before this Association last year, stated in substance as reported in the *Proceedings* of the National Education Association:

Of 181 normal schools and teachers colleges, offering 710 curricula, one curriculum requires the completion of four years of college work, 13 did not give the requirements, and 696 require the completion of four years of high-school work.³

And his studies led Doctor Rugg to conclude that:

In the past, normal schools did not require completion of a high-school course as a requisite for admission: today normal schools and teachers colleges demand it.³

In many respects the most noteworthy of all studies dealing with admission requirements is Doctor Clarence Linton's dissertation entitled "Problems in Admission of Students for Degrees." This dissertation is published as Number 257 of the Teachers College Contributions to Education. Any one interested in the whole problem of admission of students (and all teachers college presidents are interested) should read this notable contribution to the study of admission requirements. His findings in general are that all teacher-training institutions in the United States now require graduation from an approved high school or equivalent training for admission.

That the teachers colleges and normal schools had low admission standards until very recently is wellknown. This fact has been frequently commented upon by the critics of the teacher-training institutions. What is not so wellknown is that until very recently many of the other pro-

¹ Gwinn, Joseph M. *Tendencies in Entrance Requirements*, *Education*, 28:233-37, 1905.

² Engleman, J. O. *Survey of Entrance Requirements Pedagogical Seminary*, 28:532-58, 1914.

³ Rugg. *Proceedings*, National Education Association, 1927, p. 913.

fessional schools have had very low admission standards. Even in the liberal arts colleges low admission standards were the rule until the time when the public high schools made secondary education universal, or at least gave universal opportunity for such education. President Eliot of Harvard is quoted as saying in 1908:

In the school year 1886-87 some colleges demanded no English whatsoever at entrance; others required the candidate to write a short composition, but gave no hint as to what the subject might be, others called for a knowledge of formal grammar and nothing else; others for both grammar and composition. Some of the examinations asked questions which could not be answered without a minute knowledge of the textbooks prescribed, or of difficult points in grammar; others asked questions suited to the capacity of grammar school or primary school pupils.¹

Thus it appears that the liberal arts colleges had low admission standards also until about the close of the last century. It should be said, however, that the liberal arts colleges were the first to insist upon the completion of a definite amount of secondary education as a requisite for admission.

Dr. Abraham Flexnor in his classical report on medical education in the United States and Canada in 1910 called attention to the low entrance standards then prevailing in the medical schools of this country, as follows:

Elsewhere the state board is legally powerless as in Maryland, or unwilling to antagonize the schools, as in Illinois and Kentucky. The outside examiners agreed upon by the schools in the former state, designated by law in the latter, fall far short of enforcing a high standard. The examiner, even when well intentioned as in Kentucky, never gets sufficient control. The schools do not want the rule enforced and the boards are either not strong enough or not conscientious enough to withstand them. Besides, the examiners lack time, machinery, and encouragement for the proper enforcement of their ostensible offices. They are busy men; here a county official; there a high-school principal; elsewhere a high-school professor. A single individual after his day's work is done without assistance of any kind, is expected to perform a task much more complicated than that for which Harvard, Columbia, and the University of Michigan maintain costly establishments. There is no set time at which candidates must appear. They drop in as they please, separately, now before the medical school opens, again, long after, sometimes with credentials, sometimes without them. There is no definite procedure. At times the examiner concludes from the face of the papers, at times from the face of the candidate. The whole business is transacted in a free and easy way. . . . Students enter the medical schools, embark upon the study of medicine, and at their convenience, "square up" with the examiners. An evening call is arranged, there is informal talk aiming to elicit what "subjects" the student has "had." He may, after an interview lasting thirty minutes or two hours and rarely including any writing, be passed with or without conditions; if with conditions the rules require that he appear for another examination before beginning the sophomore year; but nothing happens if he postpones his reappearance until a short time

¹ *Third Annual Report Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching*, 1908, page 24.

before graduation; besides a condition in one subject may be removed by passing in another! No technical details are asked; the presumption is that the candidate will not remember details.¹

The deplorable lack of entrance standards which Dr. Flexnor here portrays, has been entirely rectified, and today the medical colleges have the highest standards of admission of all institutions of higher learning in this country as well as very high standards of attainment within the college after admission. At the present time fully ninety-three percent of the medical colleges require two years of college work in addition to high-school graduation as an admission condition; and the remaining seven percent of the medical colleges have made very substantial progress. This is a challenge to everyone engaged in the task of preparing teachers professionally. No man who wholeheartedly believes in his profession, no man who has the best interests of the children of America at heart, and no man who knows that education is the best defense of our liberties will remain complacent so long as any profession has higher standards than his.

But the fact remains that very encouraging progress has been made in the two decades under consideration. The teacher-training institutions have set their entrance standards as high as the liberal arts colleges and as high as any other profession has been able to set its standards, with the sole exceptions of medicine and engineering.

Clarence Linton in the noteworthy study previously alluded to, says in this respect:

From the evidence available it appears that teacher-training institutions as well as other professional schools closely approximate the standards obtaining in liberal arts colleges, while schools of medicine and schools of engineering appear to exceed the liberal standards. . . . It is noteworthy that there is no outstanding difference among the four groups of schools (liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, publicly supported universities, and privately supported universities) with respect to the issues raised.²

Again the same authority says:

Graduates of teachers colleges should be admitted to graduate schools on exactly the same basis as from other institutions; that is, on their individual merits.³

Dr. Linton's conclusion is fully shared by Oscar Bradshaw who, after studying fifty teachers colleges, forty-four universities, and 100 liberal arts colleges with reference to their entrance requirements, says:

The general pattern of high-school curriculum requirements for admission to teacher-training institutions is very similar in variety of items and in range of

¹ Abraham Flexnor, *Medical Education in the United States and Canada*, Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin No. 4, page 28 (1910).

² Linton, Clarence, *Problems in Admission of Students for Degrees*, p. 107.

³ Ibid, op. cit. p. 124.

differences on each item, and in central tendency to the pattern of high-school curriculum requirements for admission to state universities and approved colleges. This would seem to be particularly important in the light of the low standard of one and two decades ago. The trend seems clearly to indicate the ideal (though probably not as yet approximated) of teacher-training institutions to set the standards of admission similar to those of state universities and approved colleges.¹

F. X. Karrar in a study made for the department of normal school education, Teachers College, Columbia University, found that of the 141 teachers colleges and normal schools he studied, all required graduation from high school; and some set up additional requirements as follows:

- a. 39 Institutions require evidence of good moral character.
- b. 35 Institutions require evidence of good health.
- c. 64 Institutions have minimum age requirements.
- d. 40 require a pledge on the part of the student to the effect that he will teach, failing in this he must refund the money the state has expended on his education.

Several of those who have recently made a study of the entrance requirements of teachers colleges are somewhat apprehensive that the phrase "graduation from high school or equivalent training" might be the means by which some institutions might lower their standards of admission. It is feared that the phrase "or equivalent training" might prove to be the back door for those who cannot enter the front door of the college. While there may be some ground for this apprehension, the fact remains that this phrase is by no means peculiar to the teachers colleges. It is to be found in the catalogs of almost exactly the same proportion of liberal arts colleges and universities. Linton, in the work referred to before in this discussion, finds:

- a. That 63 percent of the liberal arts colleges admit students conditionally
- b. That 40 percent of the state universities so admit
- c. That 73 percent of the teachers colleges so admit
- d. That 75 percent of the privately supported universities so admit
- e. That 80 percent of all institutions admit as special students who have not completed high school
- f. That only one public and two privately supported universities state they will make no such admissions
- g. That liberal arts colleges are most unyielding in this respect
- h. That teachers colleges are almost as strict as the liberal arts colleges.²

Since the practice of the teachers colleges so nearly follows the practice of all other institutions of higher learning there need be no special apprehension so far as these institutions are concerned; and the only apprehension that need be felt in this regard is such as may apply to all higher institutions. So far as the teachers colleges are concerned it may be said

¹ Oscar O. Bradshaw, Doctor's Dissertation N. Y. University as yet unpublished, Quoted by Linton, *Problems in Admission of Students for Degrees*, p. 27.

² Linton, Clarence, *Problems in Admissions*.

that they are developing their own standards with a conscientiousness not exceeded by any other type of institution of higher learning, and they may be trusted to administer the discretionary power conferred by this phrase with fairness to the profession and justice to the student. It is time that the teachers colleges show some righteous indignation at the implied lack of faith in their integrity on the part of some investigators and near investigators, who are always expressing concern lest the teachers colleges may do something that is not ethical. The teachers colleges, let it be repeated, have as high a sense of professional conscientiousness and as keen a sense of professional ethics as have any other institutions in the country, and they are going to insist that investigators of every sort and character treat them with ordinary courtesy and common decency.

In the light of the studies made by Engleman, Linton, and Bradshaw, we may conclude that the entrance requirements of teachers colleges are as high as those of other higher institutions of learning and equal to the requirements for admission to all other professional schools with the exception of medical colleges and schools of engineering. We may conclude also that the most substantial progress has been made in the two decades under consideration here today. This substantial progress is most gratifying in view of the fact that historical and economic conditions had made it almost impossible to exact higher entrance conditions than an elementary school education, until after the close of the first decade of the present century.

The question may be fairly asked: "What is the next step in requirements for admission to teachers colleges?" While the answer to this question is beyond the subject assigned me, I venture to suggest the following for such consideration as it may be worth:

- a. Graduation from an approved high school.
- b. Rank in upper fifty percentile of graduating class.
- c. Evidence of good moral character and personal fitness for teaching.
- d. Good health.
- e. More than average intelligence as revealed by high score in intelligence tests or psychological examinations.

I cannot bring myself to conclude this paper without calling attention to the fact that the last two decades have been an era of unparalleled progress in the matter of raising entrance requirements and standards of admission. More substantial advancement has been made in these two decades than in all the history of the normal schools from their foundation up to 1908. From institutions which had no admission standards, the normal schools and teachers colleges have raised themselves to a point where these standards are equal to those of the liberal arts colleges and universities. Professional schools for teachers now have standards of admission fully as high as the schools for other professions with the sole exception of schools of medicine. This is a solid and a significant achievement. It marks, definitely, the rise of the teacher-training school

to a collegiate level. In the record of the last two decades there is nothing for which the teachers colleges need to apologize; but there is much significant and substantial progress. The teachers college is fully cognizant of the fact that it has a task committed to it second in importance to that of no other institution in America. It will not be satisfied with students of less native endowment and training than those found in the best professional schools and the foremost liberal arts colleges; neither will it be content to give instruction of any quality except that equal to the best that the schools training for other professions offer. The objectives of the teachers college are thoroughly trained teachers for all the children of all the people, and these trained teachers chosen from the best that our country can afford. In our efforts to attain these objectives, "wise counsel may accelerate and bad counsel may impede our progress"; but sooner or later these objectives must be reached.

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TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN PROVIDING ADEQUATE TRAINING SCHOOL FACILITIES, 1907-1927

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In studying training school progress during the last twenty years, certain confusions immediately arise. E. A. Sheldon of Oswego began his educational work with and for children; teacher-training for him, at least in its beginnings, was incidental. The historic 1899 committee report insists that the model school shall be the center, the "hub" of the normal school. On the other hand, modern practice, following Herbart, seems to conceive of the training school as a laboratory for experimentation, demonstration, and preliminary practice—an addition, as it were, designed to increase the efficiency of an already more or less fully organized institution. And this, too, in spite of the fact that our educational philosophy is clearly swinging away from the subjectmatter emphasis to the child and his needs. Thus, after all, we may not be entirely certain as to just what progress is.

Then, also, the teachers college idea taking root in 1897, waits twenty years to burst forth, literally transforming the older normal schools almost over night into institutions so different as to baffle statistical comparison.

And further, the scientific movement beginning for education about 1907 gets in its deadly work, challenging the old, and setting up acid tests that shake our faiths and pile confusion on confusion.

Nevertheless, there are criteria that we may apply, regardless of our philosophies and regardless of the fact that we are trying to measure progress in institutions that have so grown up and been so made over as to be scarcely recognizable by one familiar with them ten or twenty years ago. Undoubtedly, for example, we can all accept an increase in cadet-pupil ratio as an indication of progress. Likewise, no one need question better housing and equipment, higher salary and preparation standards, and the like; but here again trouble arises. If it is hard to get at the facts for 1927, and it most certainly is, how much more difficult is it to gather data for 1907? At first thought it would seem comparatively easy to list the items of information desired and then ask our member institutions for data for both 1907 and 1927. However, when I tried this on my own institution I saw its impracticability. For many institutions 1907 represents an ancient world. Records, if kept at all, are often so incomplete and utterly different as to be of little use. Even governmental data are uncertain. If, for example, we use government reports to compare cadet-pupil ratios for 1906 and 1926, we find that the situation was only one-fourth as satisfactory in 1926 as it was twenty years before.

An alibi, however, is not what you want. What was done was to get as many memory pictures of 1907 practice as possible and from these, checked by such records as are available, abstract one that is more or less valid. You will have to be the judges of the trueness to fact, remembering all the time

that variations from a central tendency were frequent then as they are now, in spite of the fact that actual measures of these variations were unknown to 99 percent of us at that time. Again, these pictures have been drawn for me largely by those who were in the midst of a wonderfully challenging work, and who now look back upon it somewhat as we do upon our grown children, forgetting the imperfections and remembering only the desirable qualities.

One thing is true: Although there were evidences in 1907 of vital changes about to take place, those changes did not begin to affect the situation materially until the first decade was well along—in fact, not until Judd and Parker's study and Bagley's proposals became generally known after 1917. Because of this the composite picture that may be made of 1907 will not be entirely unfamiliar to many of us who have come on to the scene of action at a much later date.

The American normal school had spread to almost every state in the union by the end of the nineteenth century. In general, each of these institutions conducted a practice school consisting of a kindergarten and eight grades. This was usually housed in a wing of the main building, frequently on a first floor, sometimes in the basement, in a few cases on second or third floors. The building was seldom fireproof; nor had it been built for practice purposes. The staff consisted of a director and one, two, sometimes several helpers called critics. The director was often an education staff member delegated to organize illustrative, demonstration, or practice teaching. This person usually held a bachelor's degree from an arts college course. He commanded a salary of \$1400 per year. The critics directly supervised the students' practice. They were two-year normal school graduates, often from the school in which they were teaching, although not a few came from certain outstanding eastern institutions of the same kind. They received a salary ranging from \$600 to \$1200 for nine months of service.

The training followed conventional Herbartian procedure, but, unfortunately, was not conducted under very close supervision. It was too often a case of trial and error, survive or perish, procedure. Often, but not always, this was the case—for there were many real training situations producing outstanding products. Not a few of our great American educators were members of normal school faculties well into this period.

The practice teaching was preceded by a course in general method supplemented or paralleled with reviews and methods in arithmetic, geography, etc. English, classical, and normal courses still persisted. Students were registered in courses extending two, four, and five years above the eighth grade, and one and two years above the high school. Frequently four and five years of work above the eighth grade commanded the same certification as one and two years above the high school. The government report for 1906 gives the total number of students enroled in normal departments of public teachers colleges and normal schools as 59,429; and of pupils enroled in the model and practice schools of these institutions as 49,404. This is

approximately ten students in training to each eight pupils in the model school. For a selected list of schools, however, for which I am also able to get comparative data for both 1907 and 1927, I get a much less satisfactory ratio—ten students to less than four pupils.

May I supplement this general picture by sentences taken from the reports and coming from all sections of the country:

Twenty years ago all practice facilities were confined to one kindergarten and nine grades in one building. No off-campus arrangements. Anywhere from fifteen to thirty students to one supervising critic.—Twenty years ago there were no such things as observation and teaching here. There were two parallel courses—academic and normal. Both were secondary.—Staff organization consisted of a director, salary \$1800, eight critics, average salary \$750 per nine months.—Lesson plans were based on the famous "five steps," conferences were fewer, demonstration lessons very few.—Seven rooms, city elementary school one mile from campus, about twenty teaching one half time for eighteen weeks. Three or four critic teachers, salary \$75 per month, two-year graduates.—Practice school was housed in one wing consisting of one large room and several small ones. Principal did not have a degree.—This institution conducted its practice teaching in two rooms in the basement of the administration building.—Seventy-five students taught each year in the training school with 150 pupils. They had a greater opportunity to teach than at the present time; some taught as much as 360 hours, and 240 hours were required.—There were then two on the staff, a superintendent and a primary supervisor.—No lesson plans were required.—The practice procedure was not very different in its general aspects from what it is today. There were lesson plans in carefully worked out analysis. Observation was afforded. Conferences were held often by twos, threes, and by the entire group.—I wish that I could honestly believe that we have greatly improved upon the procedure of those days, but I cannot.

This composite picture and the random descriptions chosen are all statements from the pens of former staff members. May I add one from a 1911 graduate of one of the better midwestern institutions? She says:

Our training school was housed in one wing of the administration building which had not been built for training purposes. The equipment was fair. There was one supervisor, one assistant, and a room teacher in charge of each room. This last was a critic in training. The five formal steps worked out in detail were the basis for lesson planning. During a twelve-weeks term, from five to eight students were assigned to one group of children. All wrote plans for each day's assignment and were required to be prepared to teach. Shortly before the class hour the teacher for that hour was chosen, teaching for several days in succession. The supervisor averaged one class visitation during a term; the assistant averaged three or four per term. The major part of the teaching was done with no supervisor present. At most there were only two or three personal conferences per term. There was no cooperation between method and practice courses. Methods instructors were unwelcome in the training school; in fact there was frequent and open disagreement. The teacher-in-training made no attempt to utilize the methods previously taught.

We now have before us a measurably true picture of the practice facilities and procedures in our institutions a couple of decades ago. Our next step will be to set over against this picture a description of present conditions as I am able to ascertain them from the reports you have recently given me.

In the first place, it should be noted that our statistical picture may be somewhat better than a hundred percent response would have given, due to a natural human tendency to conceal defects by not answering unless one has something to be more or less proud of; and I did not hear from all institutions. Nevertheless, the data received give us an idea of the situation and indicate real progress.

Of the seventy-five institutions responding, 96 percent have their own fully-controlled training facilities. More than 40 percent have supplementary relations with city systems. In a select group for which I can get comparable data, I find that these supplementary contacts provide about one third of the total number of pupils available for practice. These off-campus facilities include entire local systems; ward buildings; selected rooms in various buildings; consolidated schools; training centers in other cities; rural, one-room schools; and the like; in fact, nearly every possible plan appears in the list. Of course the hopeful thing to be noted is the tendency to meet needs in some way. As indicated in the foregoing, the government figures for 1906 showed ten students for each eight pupils. Using the same source of data for 1926, the ratio is ten students for less than three pupils. Apparently, however, neither set of data takes off-campus or supplementary facilities into consideration. If we should add the thirty-three percent increase to the government figures, it would only better the ratio by one pupil for ten students. The total enrolment of students has quadrupled in twenty years, but the pupil enrolment, according to these figures, has increased less than one-fifth.

My own figures from the questionnaire tell a very different story. Using thirty-six institutions for which I have comparable data, I find the student enrolment to be 15,546, the campus pupil enrolment to be 15,525, and the off-campus pupil enrolment to be 11,241. These data give nearly one campus pupil for every student; and if both campus and off-campus pupils are counted together, nearly one and one half pupils for each student. This, if true, is a much more satisfactory situation, and represents conditions nearly four times better in 1927 than in 1907. I wish I could assure you that these data are representative.

It is evident, nevertheless, that the schools are more and more supplementing campus facilities with off-campus contacts. If this is true, the institutions are not only bettering the cadet-pupil ratio, but they are in addition building up a situation that is valuable for practical apprenticeship purposes. The ideal situation undoubtedly includes a central training school on the campus supplemented with adequate facilities for such additional practice as may be needed to insure successful service in later full-time employment. The first will undoubtedly always be expensive; the second may tend to become selfsupporting. A maximum number of pupils, provided at a minimum of expense, permitting demonstration, experimentation, preliminary practice, and final responsible experience seem to be the ideal that is apparently in many places coming to be the actuality. In this

connection I wish there were time to cite progress made by certain states and individual institutions. For example, a special paper might well be devoted to what is now being done in Michigan and a half dozen other states.

The older method of housing the training school in the main building is passing. Seventy percent report separate buildings, 67 percent of which are fireproof; and 40 percent of these have been built within the last five years. No third floors, only one second floor, and but three basements are reported as being used for practice teaching. Apparently the "down in the basement" structure will soon be of historic interest only. A good percent are satisfied with their housing and equipment; only five report unsatisfactory conditions. Local city sentiment is favorable to adequate expansion to meet the needs of the college in nearly half of the institutions. Eighteen institutions report local surveys regarding relative progress between city and training pupils. Ten of these report training school pupils superior, eight equal, and none below the average. One lone report says, "No survey; we are for domestic tranquility."

Rural facilities are hard to gauge. The use of one-room rural schools in the open country seems to be preferred. A few consolidated school contacts are reported.

As to the organization or division of the grades, the effect of the junior high-school movement is clearly evident. The kindergarten six-three-three plan predominates slightly. Kindergartens are frequent, although not universal. Thirty-two percent still report the eight-grade and fourteen percent the four-year high school organizations. This tendency toward the newer organization suggests the possible standardization of the purely American terms of junior-senior primary, junior-senior intermediate, and junior-senior high school. It will be noted later in this paper that specialized curriculum offerings are also following this same trend.

The suggestion in the Missouri survey that the departments of education and of training be combined under one head does not seem to have been acted upon very generally. Eighty-six percent report a director or dean of training; only 8 percent report combined directors of education and training. The city superintendent is director of training in less than 7 percent of the cases.

Seventy-eight percent of the directors have graduate degrees, and 20 percent of these are doctors. Only one has no degree. The director's salary has increased more than 50 percent. In general, the director now has two levels of assistants. The first level is known as supervisor of training; the second level as critic. For the first level the term assistant director (often specialized as for primary, intermediate, secondary, and rural) is sometimes used, and for the second level the terms room teacher or assistant supervisor are appearing. It was hoped (perhaps irrationally) that the term "critic" would be found to be passing. Does it not smack somewhat of formal Herbartian procedure? Does it not misname the

modern relationship between cadet and her guide and helper as conceived in the more recent directed teaching conceptions?

Less than one fourth of the 480 supervisors reported have no degrees, and more than one third of them have graduate degrees. Of the second-level assistants more than half have degrees, and more than one third of these are in the graduate degree class. A most significant measure of the progress in staff preparation may be noted in the fact that more than one-third of this entire group of training staff members, exclusive of directors, have had a year or more of graduate study within the last five years—a real leaven in a most important but naturally conservative field.

In 1919 President Keith proposed salary and training schedules which at the time were considered almost visionary but which we are now in a fair way to surpass. Of the many tables which I might have given, I am limiting myself to one which is especially important because of its significance as a measure of progress. This sets data for 1907 and 1927 at each side of President Keith's proposals and provides a most interesting exhibit.

Positions	1907		1919 Keith Proposals		1927	
	Salaries (9 mos. basis)	Training	Salaries (9 mos. basis)	Training	Salaries (9 mos. basis)	Training
Directors of Training	\$1400 (2100)	4 years college	\$3000 to 4000 \$5000 (2666)	7 years college	\$3250	4 years 19 percent 5 years 66 percent 7 years 14 percent
Other Department Heads	No Data	No Data	\$2400 to 3450 \$4500 (2300)	4 (?) years	\$3100	No Data
First-level Supervisors	\$1050 (1525)	2 years Adv. Dip.	\$1800 to 2400 \$3000 (1600)	5 years	\$2200	2 plus yrs. 23 percent 4 plus yrs. 40 percent 5 plus yrs. 37 percent
Professors	No Data	No Data			\$2650	No Data
Second-level Assistant Supervisors—Room Teachers—Critics	\$750 (1125)	2 years Adv. Dip.	\$1200 to 1725 \$2250 (1150)	4 years	\$1800	2 years 46 percent 4 years 39 percent 5 plus yrs. 14 percent
Instructors	No Data	No Data			\$2100	No Data
Average of Training Staff	\$1066 (1600)		\$2708 (1806)		\$2416	

Note: This table is an attempt to compare salaries and training levels for 1907 and 1927. It includes President Keith's 1919 (N. E. A.) proposals. It should be read horizontally as follows: Directors of training in 1907 had four years of collegiate training and received an approximate salary of \$1400. In 1919 President Keith proposed a \$3000 to \$5000 schedule and seven years of training. In 1927 they actually received \$3250 and 19 percent have four years, 66 percent have five years, and 14 percent have seven years of training. The amounts in parentheses represent 1907 and 1919 rates reduced or raised to the value of 1927 dollars. A study of the table also indicates, so far as data are available, that the training heads, supervisors, and critics compare favorably as to salaries and training with regular department heads, professors, and instructors. If we could forget the fluctuation in the value of the dollar, we could derive much satisfaction from these figures.

A picture of the training school procedures would be incomplete without the usual consideration of clock hours, size of classes, proportion of pupils' time used by cadets, etc. I shall have to limit myself to a summarizing paragraph for these. The median number of clock hours of required practise is 115, with modes at 90, 120, and 180. The median weeks required is 12, with more or less pronounced modes at 18, 24, and 36. The median cadets per supervisor per practice period is 4, with modes at 2, 4, 6, and 12. The median cadets per supervisor per year is 21, with modes at 16, 20, and 24. The size of classes taught by cadets is 17 pupils, with a spread extending from 5 to 39 and with modes each side of but close to the median. The proportion of the pupils' time used by cadets ranges well up to four fifths. The median is around one half, with a considerable group holding it down to one fourth. Undoubtedly we are tending away from 1907 and much later conditions, when, in the main, little if any teaching was done by regularly employed room teachers.

I am unable to get from my questionnaire a satisfactory picture of practice procedure. It, however, indicates that the work tends to be concentrated, with cadets teaching at least two subjects, often more. The majority use a state course of study, but at least a fourth make and use their own. It was noted earlier that the six-three-three type of organization predominates. This is further borne out by the specific curricula offered. Of the 238 curricula types reported, 169 indicate a sixth-seventh grade rather than an eighth-ninth grade break. Thus is shown a rather definite reaction against the older idea of one major elementary curriculum for the first eight grades.

The speaker is personally committed to the idea of a limitation of the service area. His contention is that a small area well served is the preferred ideal. Whether a sense of responsibility for a definite area is developing may be open to question, but the returns indicate basic conditions which will lend themselves to the development of this concept as soon as it really begins to grip us. Seventy-five percent of the institutions draw 80 percent of their students from an area whose radius is 100 miles. Seventy percent of the institutions place 80 percent of their graduates within an area whose radius is 150 miles. With surfaced roads running everywhere, an institution may develop a real extension service and follow-up system comparable in value with what has been done to promote agricultural development.

The answers to the questions designed to reveal tendencies toward more training for elementary teachers give real hope for the profession. Nearly thirty institutions report an increasing percent of their four-year graduates going into grades below the seventh, and thirteen schools report 10 to 20 percent of their degree graduates as going into elementary work. Still larger percents, of course, go into junior high-school teaching; thirty-one institutions reported these percents as ranging all the way from 4 to 40.

That the present two-year course is doomed is indicated by the fact that fifty-two institutions report positive feelings as to its inadequacy. Only

eleven give negative reports on this point. Apparently, too, this feeling is not limited to any particular section of the country. Counsels of moderation may suggest to us that we oppose these rumblings, in the interest of raising the general level. One wonders, however, if progress always comes in this way. Sometimes it comes by real spurts ahead before minorities even are ready for it. Far be it from teachers college administrators to hang back in the presence of such a significant tendency in the professionalization of educational work and the service of humanity.

In order to complete the 1927 picture as it stands opposite the earlier one, may I briefly summarize part of an article relating to lesson-planning written by Wade and Fretz for *Educational Administration and Supervision* of February, 1926. In this article the authors say that valid evidence of lesson-planning is required in practically all schools, but modifications are permitted as experience is gained. These plans are approved before being taught, and they are beginning to recognize child needs as opposed to the imposition of subjectmatter pure and simple. All institutions hold frequent conferences with practice teachers, daily at first, but with lessening frequency as ability develops. Here is a very significant advance over the 1907 practice, for the teacher-trainer is almost omnipresent until going-alone ability is fully evidenced.

Because of lack of time, this must complete our comparative pictures. The main lines of improvement are most evident in the following phases:

1. The training school may not yet be a central "hub" feature of our institutions, but it is occupying a most significant place in our teacher-preparation procedure. Separately housed, adequately equipped, increasingly well organized with more and better off-campus relations, it is today a major factor in our organizations.

2. The staff of a modern training school is a very different body from what it was in 1907. It is now a responsible group in the charge of or directed by a well-trained, a specially trained, head whose position is coordinate with and often superior to that of any other department. Besides the director, there are in many cases two levels of assistants, one representing the students and responsible for their organization and training, and the other representing the pupils and responsible for their welfare and progress but at the same time assistants to the first-level supervisors. Recent graduates degrees abound in these two groups—graduate degrees which represent specialized preparation for highly technical tasks. Because of this advanced training and the resulting better salaries, their professional and social status is becoming assured.

3. The training procedures in our 1927 institutions are showing the effects of the newer philosophies, checked up by the real onset of the scientific movement applied to education. From formal Herbartianism we are turning—indeed, we have turned—to modern freer activities both for the cadet and the pupil; and withal, we are sensing the necessity for a longer period of training wherein we can secure maturity, judgment, adequate training, and even artistry in teaching.

Truly, we have come a long way since 1907, with the major part of the progress accomplished within the last decade. The necessity for a fair and free credit interchange has had its part. Not a little have administrative ambitions entered. But behind these and many other reasons that might be listed lies the fundamental need for adequately trained teachers in a democracy. And this latter reason alone justifies all we have done and all we can do to make our institutions really professional. Whatever the ultimate decision may be as to whether the training school is the center of our activities, an added factor to an already going institution, or possibly a reorganization to fulfill some new but now unforeseen conception, it is unlike any other professional activity; and we who know it best must assume full responsibility for its future development. The American Association of Teachers Colleges is the agency, unhampered by any other agencies whatever, to determine the standards for directing its future growth and evaluating its contributions.

TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

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The Situation in 1908—The year 1908, just twenty years ago, is and will continue to be one of the most significant in the history of education. It was in that year that the first standard educational test was published, the Stone Reasoning Test in Arithmetic. It was in that same year that Binet and Simon published the first extended revision of their now famous test for the measurement of intelligence. The significance which these two contributions have had during the past twenty years can hardly be estimated, since there is almost no portion of the field to which they have not penetrated, and hardly a development that has not been influenced because of them.

Most of the agencies which are now operating for the improvement of teachers in service were in operation at that time, but the problem of the improvement of teachers in service overshadowed the problem of their professional education. Professional education, as we know it today, was just beginning to be developed. The normal schools were working with the teacher in training, not the teacher in service. The colleges of education were academic in character. Supervision was largely inspectional and extension offerings were meager.

The professional levels of the work with teachers in service were less than collegiate. A short time later Ruger reported that the great professional influences were institutes, reading circles, and supervision.

The institute had become an unwieldy agency. The increasing aggregation of teachers, and the consequent generalization of the programs in many places were reducing their effectiveness so that protests were voiced against the legislation which in many places maintained their existence.

Indifference to institutes on the part of teachers was due as much to the lack of professional point in the programs as to mandatory attendance.

Supervision was as yet not generally differentiated from inspection, and was quite generally administrative in character. The supervisor was more often than not considered largely as a roving teacher, and was one in whom opinions were the chief sources of help. Supervisors were hampered by ignorance of the problem with which they were dealing.

Reading circles exerted a tremendous influence, but were hampered by a lack of truly professional books.

The professional agencies on the higher levels were just getting under way, the summer schools, the colleges and schools of education, and the various groups of extramural, intramural and correspondence extension activities, and their offerings were largely on an academic preservice level. The demand for professional recognition for professional growth had not yet come about.

The first decade—During the next decade, which included the beginning and ending of the World War, many developments affecting the teacher in service took place.

One of these developments was financial. There was a growing impetus towards the more adequate financing of schools. The development of industry, particularly in the states of the middle west, and the great increases in population there, had their influence upon schools and teachers. The increase in prosperity, inflated greatly during the World War, had its influence slowly upon the rewards for teaching service. By the end of the decade, when teaching service had been greatly depleted and there was much consequent demand, teacher compensation had risen more nearly to meet the need. Economically the changes in living conditions in general acted adversely upon teachers at first, but later the balance was restored.

In education in general profound changes were taking place which were bound to affect the teacher in service.

A new philosophy of individualism, placing greater and greater emphasis upon the pupil, was spreading throughout the country. It had its effect not only upon the pupils but also upon the teachers. A new psychology which augmented this individualism, and particularly a new psychology of learning, was making itself felt in the understanding of learning and in its application to the school and to the teacher. Educational and mental tests were rapidly developed. A bewildering array of tests, measures, and technics appeared during this decade, and scientific diagnosis of the actual work of teachers and of the true growth of pupils became more and more possible.

These developments had their influence upon the schools and upon the teachers. The administration of schools came more in the hands of people who represented the new professionalism. Elliot had emphasized his distinction between supervision and inspection. Courtis had used scientific measurement in the school survey. Public interest was centering more and

more in the schools as the cost of public education rose, and school administrators were increasingly finding it necessary to justify their work. Teachers were finding it increasingly necessary to keep abreast of the advancing flood of new ideas, new technics, and new knowledge.

Better able to assume the financial burden, increasingly aware of their needs, determined upon advances in their profession, teachers seized upon the agencies which could best meet the situation.

One reaction was the rapid development of the summer session. As has been pointed out, summer sessions in 1908 were in existence, but they were few and small. More institutions, influenced partly by the economic desirability of extending the use of plants and staffs otherwise idle, and partially by the increasing professional needs of teachers, opened summer sessions. Attendance increased greatly and the breadth of offerings followed suit.

Paralleling the development of the summer session there also occurred the development of extension work for teachers in service. Institutions in the larger centers, particularly those institutions dealing largely on the preservice levels of teaching, began to offer intramural extension at such times as teachers could take advantage of it, in the late afternoons and on Saturday mornings. So far as adjustments could be made the extramural work was developed as well, and the collegiate influence was extended by means of extension centers remote from institutions as well as through correspondence.

A third development which occurred during this decade was the rapid expansion of the professional schools and colleges of education, which offered professional education for those in service who could afford to take advantage of leaves of absence to prepare for new types of positions.

The second decade—During the second decade, from the time of the closing of the World War to the present, the developments in the education of teachers in service have been as profound as those which preceded them, but have been more subtle. The first decade provided the basic changes in the improvement of teachers in service from elements on a less than college level to collegiate work of a high grade. The second decade of development has consolidated those gains, has systematized them, and incorporated them in present practice. But it has done far more than that, the significant development of the past decade has been the professionalization of the education of teachers in service.

As the responsibility for the improvement of teachers gradually transferred from the inadequate agencies on the noncollegiate level to the more adequate collegiate levels—the professional schools—the essential needs of teachers became more and more apparent. It is impossible to discuss at length questions relating to teaching with those who must face the solution of those problems in the classroom, without perceiving that it is the professional attitude only which can bring about a satisfactory solution. There then developed the professional course for teachers. Even a casual glance over the catalogs of professional institutions during the past twenty years

will show the increasing tendency towards professionalism in the work which is offered for teachers. Whereas twenty years ago the professionally titled courses were almost absent from the catalogs of professional schools, and academically titled courses were much in evidence, today practically every catalog contains many courses such as "The Psychology of the Elementary School Subject," "Activities in Primary Grades," "How to Measure in Elementary Education," and the like.

During this second decade there has come about a stabilization of the teaching population. During the previous decade, while the economic and social characteristics of the nation were in flux due to the War conditions, the economic and social characteristics of teaching were also in flux, but in the second decade these conditions became more stabilized as well. The better financial records of teaching attracted better individuals to the service, the preservice institutions were able to attract better students and graduate better prospects, and the schools were staffed with better teaching material. The increasing professionalism of school administration and the growing competition for teaching positions is now leading to advances in the professional level of teachers.

The contribution of the past twenty years—The progress of the past twenty years in the professional education of teachers in service has had several definite results.

One of the more important of these results has been the recognition upon the part of teachers, administrators, and professional schools of the necessity for professional growth while teaching. The result is evidenced by the teachers in their demands through summer schools, intra- and extra-mural and the like for professional advancement.

It is evidenced by the administrators in the changing conceptions with respect to supervision and with respect to providing for the needs of the teachers in specific lines of growth. It is evidenced by the professional schools in the changed and extended character of the offerings for teachers in service.

A second important result of this progress has been the change in emphasis from academic-collegiate and professional noncollegiate types of work to professional-collegiate offerings. This has been due in part to a desire on the part of teachers for professional recognition, but it has been due in greater degree to the greater inherent capacity of these agencies than of those formerly employed to meet the professional needs of teachers. A survey of the status of agencies at present operating to improve teachers in service shows the increasing placement of this work on a collegiate level. Significant developments have taken place in various places. Practically every professional center is working close to the administrations of nearby school systems in an effort to supplement the supervisory activities of the schools with definite professional offerings for teachers. Many school administrations, notably those in St. Louis, Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Detroit, have linked their higher institutions so closely with the schools as to allow each to supplement the other to the full.

A third significant development has been the increase in the professional recognitions of growth while teaching. Since professional work has been placed upon a collegiate level the collegiate recognitions have been adapted to the needs of teachers, and degrees are granted to teachers and valued by them in terms of professional advancement.

A fourth significant result has been the increasing harmonizing of the requirements laid down by the boards of education and the professional institutions with respect to professional growth. School systems are recognizing the values of professional advancement in terms that are also recognized by the collegiate institutions, and are incorporating the recognition in the single salary schedule or in some form of school recognition. There is an increasing respect on the part of boards of education for the type of professional collegiate work which is being pursued by teachers, and encouragement is given to teachers, by means of subsidies, leaves of absence, scholarships, and the like, to develop. There is, as is evidenced by the increasing reliance upon the school survey in the improvement of schools and teachers, a greater respect for the expert leadership of the professional institutions.

Throughout the development of institutions for the professional education of teachers there has been a weak link in the training program. This is true in all of the professions and has been variously solved. It consists in the adjustment of novices. In medicine it has become usual to provide for protected practice in hospitals. In law an internship is also necessary. In teaching it is impossible. Many of the larger school systems have adopted the doubtful practice of requiring their young teachers to gain experience elsewhere. In the smaller systems and in the remoter districts this cannot be done, and the obvious solution, intense supervision, is practically impossible.

That the problem has been attacked from many angles is one of the contributions of the past few years. The teacher-center plan of Buffalo, the exchange of student-teachers, in Cincinnati, the building assistant plan of Springfield and other cities, and the like are forms of the solutions. Where such means are not available, other means must be found, such as the supervision plan for rural schools suggested by Pittman, and although the beginning has been made the solution is not yet complete.

During the past twenty years the improvement of teachers in service has been changed into the professional education of teachers in service. It has been transferred from a noncollegiate level, to a collegiate level; it has been dignified with professional recognitions rather than merely with financial recognitions, and it has been developed increasingly by all of the forces, administrative and collegiate, which can influence or direct teachers. It has been actuated by one clear and indubitable aim, that which has as well actuated the tremendous advances in other fields—the welfare of the public school pupil.

TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN THE TRAINING OF RURAL TEACHERS

ERNEST BURNHAM, STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, KALAMAZOO, MICH.

Two great committees of the National Education Association, circulars and special references in general reports of the Federal Bureau of Education, specific publications by several state departments of education, and departmental organizations, state education associations, and state normal schools had begun the differentiation of rural education in the general field of the study of public education in the United States before 1908.

The Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools was made up of the strongest men in the National Education Association in 1895, and reported in 1897, putting special emphasis on the preparation of rural teachers. The Committee on Industrial Education for Schools in Rural Communities reported to the National Education Association in 1905. This report emphasized the truth that the introduction of vocational courses must not outrun the preparation of teachers in the subjects to be taught.

These two reports and other somewhat miscellaneous efforts of federal, state, and local leaders in chronological coincidence with an emerging national conservation policy indicated the imminence of a masterly expression from some source.

This expression came in June, 1907 when President Theodore Roosevelt in the midst of his great oration on "The Man Who Works with His Hands," which was a part of the exercises in recognition of the 50th Anniversary of the first state college of agriculture in America, turned abruptly to Secretary of Agriculture James Wilson, who sat near him, and said—"The work of your department, sir, has in the past dealt with soil conservation, and the improvement of plant and animal life. This is a great work and it must continue to advance, but a greater work remains to be done. Your department must also address its efforts to research in the human side of the problem. The economic, domestic, educational, and social conditions of the farm population must be made matters of public information and concern."

President Roosevelt himself nationalized the new work by appointing The Commission on Country Life, and the inquiries, meetings, and publications incident to the work of the Commission gave clarity, interest, and impetus to the so-called rural problem, a problem which becomes more vividly vital with each annual decrease in the food producing population. Clearly this population is becoming more rather than less important as it approaches the minimum proportion of the total people for the safe performance of the fundamental function of food production.

Public appreciation of the rural life problem, which has been renamed and is now called the rural-urban relations problem, grows apace in informed and purposed effort as evidenced by journal, periodical, and book publications, by intercollegiate debates, and by conference and dinner dis-

cussions. Walter Lippmann in his new book—*Men of Destiny*—gathers the whole problem into this phrase—"A major aspect of the destiny of American civilization."

Many able minds in America as well as abroad have thought on this major aspect of destiny since the report of the Country Life Commission. Thomas N. Carver of Harvard wrote in 1911—"No other problem is even second in importance to that of maintaining the native quality of the rural population." Woodrow Wilson speaking in 1911 inquired—"Do you find society renewing itself from the top? Do you look to the leading families to keep on leading you? They may—sometimes they do—but you cannot count on them. What you are constantly depending on is the rise of leaders out of the ranks of unknown men." Edward A. Ross of the University of Wisconsin, speaking "On Behalf of Rural Civilization" in 1914, in view of the vortex effect of centers of population and wealth, said—"I would rather the next million dollars this state gives to education went to rural schools than to city schools or high schools or universities. It may be as unfair to spend taxes from city people in bettering the country as it is to spend taxes from country people in bettering the city but it is not so foolish."

Under the administration of Commissioner P. P. Claxton the federal bureau had regional conferences on rural education throughout the nation after organizing a division of rural education in 1911, and this national action led to similar organizations in many state departments of education, and in state teachers associations. Special emphasis was given to rural teacher preparation by the National Education Association in 1910 in Boston, in 1915 in San Francisco, and in 1919 in Chicago. The Department of Rural Education of the National Education Association was set up and authorized as a permanent organization at the winter meeting in Chicago in 1919.

Dean James E. Russell asked Walter H. Page, representing the Country Life Commission, to speak before the Alumni Conference of Teachers College, Columbia University, in February 1910. The necessity for trained leaders in the field of rural education was given new impetus by Mr. Page's address.

In a letter to the Iowa State Board of Education in 1912, Dean Russell made a clarion call to action on the part of the state teacher-training institutions of the nation in these words: "In my judgment the chief task of the normal schools in the next generation will be to ascertain how to train teachers for rural schools, to educate rural communities to the point of demanding a suitable rural education, and to elevate the professional standing of the rural teacher. All this is a great work, probably the greatest educational work ever attempted in this country. It is the most interesting and inspiring task that has ever been proposed to any body of educators. Any institution fortunate enough to be permitted to enter upon it is to be congratulated."

TWENTY YEARS' PROGRESS OF RURAL TEACHERS IN THE UNITED STATES

Sampling of States	Average academic preparation after the 8th grade of teachers in rural schools		Percent of teachers in rural schools that have any professional experience		Professional training												
	20 years ago	10 years ago	Sept. 1, 1927	20 years ago	20 years ago			10 years ago			Sept. 1, 1927						
					Less than 1 year	1 year	2 years	More than 2 years	Less than 1 year	1 year	2 years	More than 2 years	Less than 1 year	1 year	2 years	More than 2 years	
Massachusetts.....	5	5.5	5.7	46	67	90	0	45	1	34.6	3	61	1.4	15	10.7	67	7
Ohio.....	2	4	5.7	10	80	98	95	4	1	0	50	45	4	1	5	65	5
Minnesota.....	2	3	4+	22	70	98	16	5	1	0	30	38	2	0	3.5	81	1
Louisiana.....	1½	4	5	20	50	100	100	0	0	0	60	40	0	0	15	25	0
Kansas.....	1	2	3+	10	40	80	5	2	2	1	5	27	5	3	5	60	5
Montana.....	1	2.5	4.5	3	10	99	3	0	0	0	6	2	1	1	40	25	15
Washington.....	0	4	6	10	75	100	90	6	3	1	5	44	50	1	0	2	5
13 Southern States.....	1	2	4.3	5	12.5	66.6	90	6	2	2	80	10	8	2	50	25	10
Approximate summary for 42 States reported.....	1.25	3	4.6	18	46	90	80	4.5	4	1—	60	20	14	1+	25	39	7

The response to this challenge has been effective to this extent: The average academic preparation of teachers in rural schools has advanced more than three years; the professional preparation of rural teachers, practically negligible in 1912, has now reached 90 percent of the total, and the median time given to it is one year beyond high-school graduation. (Specific data from forty-two states will be distributed on separate sheets. Six states most completely urban or most completely rural have no adequately differentiated data.) These are great achievements, but it is well to remember that the rural standard thus revealed is less than one half the minimum standard preparation for public school service in the cities, and that many other baffling problems of organization, finance, administration, and teaching are still unsolved in rural education.

Dean Russell began the attempt to answer his own challenge by offering rural education for the first time in Teachers College in the summer session of 1912. In the years since 1070 undergraduates and 2140 graduate students in Teachers College have taken, along with the best general courses in the college, courses in administration, supervision, curriculum making, teaching and social science, which have been taught with special reference to the application of the best general principles of education and sociology to the educational problems of small communities.

The following paragraph descriptive of Teachers College is offered as a type and a suggestion to the presidents of the great state teachers colleges.

Teachers College has thus through all departments, and specifically through her department of rural education, sought to do a great national and international function in enriching the education of rural peoples. The further and adequate elaboration of the department of rural education, the evoking of maximum effort for rural education by every department of the college and the economically efficient correlation of these two services in spirit and in fact have no doubt already enlisted the splendid powers of Dean William F. Russell.

The 20th Anniversary of the Country Life Commission affords a great occasion upon which the American Association of Teachers Colleges may well be impelled to inquire for a summary of what has happened in the field of thought about the rural-urban situation. And to seek a somewhat focused vision of their resources and responsibilities in regard to rural teacher training.

This nation needs an integrating, clarifying service by her institutions of higher learning. None are more strategically located in the public educational equipment to render this service than the state teachers colleges. These institutions may well assume a distinctive part in lifting to the highest possible degree of consciousness and understanding upon the part of the whole public the truth of the inescapable interdependence of city and country.

The Country Life Commission and its natural offspring, the American Country Life Association, have done great service as thought provoking

agencies. More and more penetrating questions have been formulated. Some study has been given to establishing fact perspective for these questions.

The Bureau of Agricultural Economics in the Federal Department issues a quarterly—*Farm Population and Rural Life Activities*, now in Volume I, which is a review of current rural research and other related projects. A bimonthly—*Agricultural Cooperation*, issued from the same source, now in Volume VI, contains authoritative information on the legal, economic, and organization features of cooperatives. Leaflets, bulletins, and press letters are distributed by many government agencies and by private institutions.

The Purnell Act of the U. S. Congress, which went into effect July 1, 1925, authorized and subsidized for the first time research by the agricultural experiment stations in the economic, social, and domestic problems of the rural situation. This Act added \$960,000 to the \$1,440,000 previously received by the experiment stations through the Hatch and Adams Acts, and will in 1930 increase the federal endowment of the state stations to \$4,320,000 annually. Some publicists hold that the ultimate results of the better balanced program of research thus made possible will give the Purnell Act rank in importance with the Morrell Act, establishing the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts in 1862, and the Hatch Act founding the state experiment stations in 1886.

Rural sociology made its appearance as a college subject about twenty years ago, and had become recognized and respected by 1917 when 2000 college and university students were receiving instruction in the subject. The past decade has seen a rural sociology section organized in the American Sociological Society, several excellent college textbooks in this field have been published, and last year there were more than 500 college teachers of the subject in the United States and 20,000 college students were studying the social side of rural life.

In general there has been a decrease in enrolment in college courses in agriculture since the War. However, there has been a broadening of the curricula of state colleges of agriculture and the introduction of more liberal arts subjects has tended to keep up the total enrolment of these colleges. Extension for adults of both sexes, the Smith-Hughes federal subsidy for secondary school instruction in agriculture and the "4H" Clubs for boys and girls are agencies by which the diffusion of information about agriculture is widespread.

The economic motive as expressed in the far flung cooperative marketing movement among farmers and the political discussion of farm relief have lifted both the agricultural or production side and the distribution or business side of the rural-urban relations problem into vivid relief. Striking results of efforts to rationalize popular discussion are available in books and addresses.

The "Condition of Agriculture in the United States and Measures for its Improvement," by the Business Men's Commission on Agriculture

authorized by the National Industrial Conference Board and the Chamber of Commerce of the United States; Nourse's "The Legal Status of Cooperation," authorized by the institute of economics; the documents incident to the organization of the Federated Agriculture Trades; the research projects completed by the Federal Council of Churches and the Institute of Social and Religious Research; and addresses by leaders in Congress are illustrations of the present stage of thought.

Can any one longer doubt that even in this young American nation the ages old Agrarian question has become intricate and baffling to the popular mind? Is it not obvious that this nation desperately needs an integrating and clarifying service by her teacher-training institutions in order that the rising generation may not miss in the city or the country the great truth in the destiny-laden, controversial rural-urban relations problem, the great truth of the inescapable interdependence of city and country?

*WHAT ARE THE PSYCHOLOGICAL MATERIALS, A
KNOWLEDGE OF WHICH IS MOST
ESSENTIAL TO TEACHERS?*

FRANK N. FREEMAN, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, CHICAGO, ILL.

The question of the type of psychology which should be taught prospective teachers is answered in a variety of ways. Studies of textbooks indicate that there is little agreement among writers as to the subjectmatter which should be included in educational psychology. An examination of the content of courses in the subject indicates an equal variety of opinion. A few examples of the contrast in opinion and practice may serve to introduce us to the consideration of the problem.

One of the sharp contrasts which is represented in both textbooks and courses is that pertaining to the use of general psychology and applied psychology. Some of the textbooks in educational psychology can hardly be distinguished from general textbooks in the subject. In fact, a number of textbooks are used both for courses in general psychology and courses in educational psychology. To some writers and teachers, educational psychology means psychology for teachers, and psychology for teachers means general psychology with a few incidental educational applications. A good many teachers of psychology in teacher-training institutions have received their own training with psychologists whose interests are general. The students, then, reproduce in their own courses the kind of psychology which they learned from their teachers. In other courses in educational psychology, a much more earnest attempt is made to introduce those problems which will be of direct service to the teacher in the work of instruction. In such courses those topics of psychology which have direct bearing upon education are selected and emphasized. The educational problems themselves are discussed, and the psychological issues which are involved in them are presented, even though the discussion of these issues does not fall within one of the ordinary topics in the field of general psychology. One who pursues this method does not rest satis-

fied in the blind faith that the students will somehow be able to make application of the facts that they learned, but takes the responsibility of directing the attention of the pupil toward the applications.

Another variation consists of putting different amounts of emphasis upon the various fields of educational psychology. Some books and some courses emphasize learning as the chief subject of study. Some enlarge upon child psychology and mental development. Others give greater emphasis to individual differences and mental tests. This variation in emphasis represents the opinion of the teacher as to what is most important, but it does not in most cases, I venture to say, represent a careful analysis of the educational field to determine what is most useful. The emphasis is frequently determined, no doubt, by the topics which are treated in the textbooks which the teacher finds most available.

Finally, courses are found to differ from each other according as they follow the natural order of topics in the science or the order of topics as dictated by the natural sequence of educational problems. Most courses and books are organized according to the science rather than according to the sequence of the educational problem to which the science is to be applied. The usual practice is to discuss sensation, memory, imagination, reasoning, etc., and then to apply the discussion of these topics to methods of teaching or to other educational problems. Whether it would be better to start with the methods of teaching, or the methods of classifying children, or the methods of organizing the curriculum, etc., and then to ask what psychological problems are involved in these educational issues and discuss them in the order dictated by the natural organization of the practical problems is an issue which I shall discuss at the end of my paper.

In view of the great confusion which exists in the field of educational psychology, it is very desirable that constructive suggestions be formulated. I have recently been given an opportunity in conjunction with two other educational psychologists of gathering material which gives some basis for such suggestions. This material has been gathered in connection with the analysis of teachers' activities being made under the direction of Professor Charters. This inquiry consists of two parts. The first part concerns an analysis of the subjectmatter of educational psychology by a study of some sixty textbooks on the subject. The purpose of this analysis is to collect and classify a series of statements which will represent collectively the conclusions of the various authors on the various problems of educational psychology. In order to give this summary of conclusions a more solid foundation than a mere collection of opinion, we plan also to bring together an analysis and summary of the experimental investigations on the various problems. The second part of the study will consist in an attempt to bring together the summary of facts in psychology and the classification of duties of teachers. Our problem will be to discover how best to teach the psychological facts so as to enable the teacher more effectively to perform his duties.

This study has not yet advanced far enough to yield final conclusions, but we can at least outline some of the problems and make some tentative suggestions toward their solution.

Our main problem is to discover what use psychology is to the teacher. In other words, we are considering psychology as a professional subject. It is conceivable that the study of psychology might be justified as a purely cultural subject. Its use might be merely to make the teacher a more broadly educated person. Psychology might then be considered as having the same justification as any other merely cultural subject. While psychology does undoubtedly have cultural value, I am considering here its professional and not its general significance.

From the point of view of its professional value, then, psychology seems to me to be of importance to the teacher for two reasons. In the first place, psychology gives the teacher a basis for the understanding and comprehension of the entire process of education in all its phases. Whether or not the teacher takes any direct share in the organization of the curriculum, or in the classification of pupils, or in educational guidance and research, he should at least know the fact that somebody has to meet these problems and have some comprehension of the way in which they are being met. This understanding implies a knowledge of the pertinent psychological facts and principles.

In the second place, the teacher needs to know those facts and principles of psychology which are necessary in order to guide him in the performance of his own specific duties. These duties fall largely within the fields of instruction and management. Those phases of psychology which bear directly upon methods of teaching and methods of handling pupils, then, should be presented to the teacher in full detail. Those aspects of psychology which bear upon the more general problems should be treated less fully.

For convenience in considering the aspects of education with which the teacher should be acquainted in order that we may know what facts and principles of psychology will be useful, we may classify the educational procedures roughly under eight heads. The first is organizing the curriculum. The central importance of this procedure is recognized in the current importance which is attached to it. The second procedure consists of guiding and promoting the learning of pupils. This is ordinarily called "methods of instruction." It seems to me somewhat more illuminating to start with the method by which the pupil learns and then try to derive from that the methods by which he should be instructed. This, obviously, is one of the subjects on which the teacher needs special knowledge and one which deserves the largest emphasis both in the general training and in the instruction in educational psychology. The third procedure consists of management, control, and discipline. It would be a mistake to imply that this is wholly separate from the guidance of learning. The relationship between the two are very intimate. However, there are certain problems in management which are relatively independent of the

problems of instruction. This, obviously, is also one of the immediate concerns of the teacher and one on which psychology should throw all the light which is available. The fourth procedure is the classification of pupils. In this, the teacher usually has joint responsibility with other officers of the school system. The same thing is true of the fifth procedure, educational guidance, leading perhaps to vocational guidance. The sixth procedure may be defined as promoting health, correcting physical defects, and promoting physical development. This procedure does not primarily rest upon psychological principles. The seventh procedure is research. In this, the teacher may have some share although it is largely carried on by specialists. Finally, we have the organization of the school and the administration of the various educational agencies.

Psychology contributes a great deal to some of these procedures and little to others. Before considering the contribution which psychology has to make to each of them, we may review in similar fashion the chief divisions of educational psychology itself. The analysis of textbooks on which we are now engaged enables us to draw up a list of these divisions in educational psychology which may be accepted as fairly complete.

As in all subjects, we may begin with an introductory topic, the purpose of which is to define the subject, indicate its scope and its presuppositions. This introductory topic may include such discussions as the nature of education as a psychological process, the various points of view in general psychology and their bearing upon education, and the purpose, methods and scope of educational psychology. Following this topic may come a discussion of the foundations of human behavior and learning. An understanding of the detailed facts of learning and of behavior is probably promoted by the general conception of the nervous system and of reflex and instinctive action. This topic includes those portions of general psychology which are most useful for the student of education. The third topic brings us to the heart of educational psychology and should probably receive much the most ample treatment; that is the topic of learning. How the child learns, the methods which are natural to different forms of learning, the conditions which affect the rate of learning, the existence and factors in generalized learning, the factors in mental efficiency, etc., are among the chief topics for study. After the consideration of the general factors of learning comes the study of individual differences and their measurement. This topic is now receiving major emphasis in courses in educational psychology. It deserves large emphasis although it is secondary to learning. The fundamental methods which are common to persons in general are more important and more worthy of emphasis than are those methods in which they differ. However, this topic is of major importance. Just as individuals differ from each other, so persons of different ages differ in nature. It is, therefore, necessary to study the mental growth of children and the characteristics of children of successive ages. This topic was formerly treated under the head of child study and included some material of doubtful scientific validity. It is omitted from many

books on educational psychology but we are witnessing a revival of interest in it, and it is certainly deserving of an important position in educational psychology. The consideration of the general facts or principles of learning leaves out of account many specific facts concerning the mode of learning of the various school subjects. These facts have been discovered through careful experimentation and are among the most useful to the teacher. We should, therefore, include the psychology of school subjects as one of our major topics. Finally, two other topics are important and although our information upon them is still rather meager, they should probably be included. These topics are the guidance or control of behavior with the related social psychology and mental hygiene.

The person who sets out to organize a course in educational psychology usually stops at this point. After he has laid out such an outline as has been presented, he proceeds to treat the psychological topics in order, making a few educational applications. Such a course based on this outline would, I believe, study the relationship between the topics in the science and the educational problems. I am not prepared to present any final plan regarding the correlations between these two bodies of material.

I have experimented for two or three years with the practice of beginning with the educational problems and raising the psychological issues that seem to be involved in them, thus making the organization of the course depend primarily upon the natural arrangement of the educational problems. This procedure is an experimental one, and I am not prepared to say that it is the best. I shall content myself with indicating how this particular mode of correlation may work out in practice. The discovery of the best mode of correlation will depend upon more extensive experimentation.

If we start with the curriculum, our first problem is to discover what facts and principles of psychology are necessary for an understanding of the procedure which should be followed in organizing the curriculum, and should control in part the organization of the curriculum. We must consider first, it seems to me, the fundamental question of the child's relationship to his environment. The discussion of this problem occupies Part II of the *Twenty-Sixth Yearbook* of the National Society for the Study of Education. The organization of the curriculum also takes account of the child's native tendencies, interests, and capacities at various ages. This again is obviously a matter for psychology to deal with. Again, modern discussions of curriculum indicate that the general and special effect of training is still a vital problem. The discussion of this problem is sometimes unwittingly sidestepped, and it is sometimes ignored by assuming a certain dogmatic position regarding it. But this does not get rid of the problem. Finally, the curriculum must be based upon some conception of the goals of human life and activity. This is at bottom a psychological question. The ultimate goal of human life is the satisfaction of human wants, whether these wants consist of sensory gratification at the one extreme or the attainment of a satisfying philosophy of the universe at the other.

The second major problem, of course, is one which concerns the individual teacher most nearly. This is the problem of guiding or promoting learning—what ordinarily goes under the head of “methods of teaching.” The most useful aspect of educational psychology in connection with this problem, I believe, is one which is totally neglected in some treatments of the subject. This is the psychology of the school subjects. An analysis of how the pupil learns to write or to read or to figure or to spell has proved of great value to those teachers who inform themselves concerning the results of recent scientific study on these topics. Of importance also in adjusting work to the capacities and interests of children of different ages is the knowledge of the general psychology of childhood and of mental development. An understanding of the more general methods of procedure is gained by the study of the general principles of learning. A good many of these general principles apply as well to one subject as to another.

The second topic which is the most immediate concern to the teacher is the management or personal handling of the pupil. Failure in this respect may depend upon inability to guide the child’s learning properly. Assuming that the teacher can do this successfully, there remain other problems of adjustment which require other types of psychological knowledge. What is needed is an insight into the child’s attitudes, feelings, interests, beliefs. The sympathetic teacher may acquire a good deal of insight by direct observation of children, but this insight is greatly quickened by the knowledge of human nature which psychology can furnish. Such knowledge is found in the study of childhood, in a study of human instincts and impulses, in the study of the way in which one human being reacts toward another, and the way in which habits of reaction and of behavior are developed. To acquire insight into the foundations of one’s own behavior is perhaps the most effective way of learning to interpret the behavior of other persons. The teacher is inclined to fail perhaps as much from lack of self-knowledge as from lack of knowledge of the child. A good deal of specific information concerning the causes of misbehavior on the part of problem children has been gathered in recent years and is useful to the teacher.

The next topic is the classification of children. This obviously rests upon the facts of individual differences and their measurement. Mental tests have contributed an indispensable instrument and constitute an indispensable part of the technic of modern education. The exact interpretation of these tests is still a matter of debate, and the teacher should know something about the issues of this debate as well as about the technic of the tests themselves. The full treatment of the topic of classification includes also consideration of the effects of classification upon the learning and upon the attitudes of children, and of the type of treatment which is suitable for children of different grades of ability.

The procedure of educational guidance depends obviously upon a knowledge of individual differences and the means of measuring them as well as upon some ability to gauge the interests and special capacities of children.

The prosecution of educational research depends upon the mastery of all those forms of technic which are used in modern research. These include experimental methods, the technic of testing, the technic of diagnosis and treatment of exceptional children, a knowledge of behavior variations and their causes, a command of the methods of studying learning and the means of promoting it. The teacher can well make use of at least some of the more informal methods of research and will profit by an understanding of even the more technical procedures.

I have given these examples of the relationship between the educational problems and the psychological facts and principles not to argue for this particular method of bringing them into relation to each other; I use this example of the means of associating them merely to bring out the general point that it is the business of educational psychology to study this relationship as well as to study the facts of the science themselves. Such a study will enable the teacher of educational psychology to select those phases of a subject which are most pertinent and of most value to the teacher, and will at the same time lead to a method of teaching them which will enable the teacher to see the connection between psychology and the practices of education. It is my conviction that much of our educational psychology has not been very productive. The difference between general psychology and educational psychology is not that the one is one kind of science and the other another. Educational psychology is educational because a careful study is made of the relationship between psychology and education. We have too often left the study of this relationship to the student alone. It is the business primarily of the educational psychologist himself. The knowledge of psychology which a teacher should have is the knowledge which applies to his task. This is the knowledge which he should be taught.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND THE MAKING OF THE NATION

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EDUCATION, CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

America has yet to be persuaded that the training of teachers is a highly significant part of the making of the nation. In requiring two years of graduate study for the degree of Master of Education in the Harvard Graduate School of Education, we are testing the seriousness of our national faith in the schools.

As we see it, a teacher should first of all be a scholar, not of course, a perfected scholar but in sufficient measure a master of a subject. If some of our students are not intending to make their careers as classroom teachers, we may be justified in relaxing for them the requirement that they have command of a specific subject to be taught; yet even for the

future administrator, scholarship is from many points of view a matter of importance. Speaking broadly, every graduate of our school ought to have a field of knowledge in which he can call himself decidedly competent, and those who are to take up classroom work, even if only as a preliminary stage in their educational careers, should not go forth with our degree until we are assured that they have a substantial command of what they are to teach. This requirement of scholarship has not been met in America, and American schools of education have contributed in some ways toward our national failure to put sufficient value on the thorough study of subjects as a part of the training of teachers. Pedagogy has been valued too much among us, scholarship too little.

Our second requirement is that our students shall achieve with us a broad understanding of education taken as a whole. Our plan contemplates the making of educators rather than the training of craftsmen in teaching or administration. We want our students to understand the educational system in its completeness, to know educational institutions and practices, to grasp the problems of human growth and guidance in all their complexity, and to have well-developed views on the major issues of their profession. Every teacher and every school officer ought to be capable of taking part in the cooperative formulation of educational policies. School work is more highly cooperative than any other great social undertaking, even religion, even government. No one ought to enter the profession of education who is not competent to take part in responsible discussions of the general direction of educational effort.

Finally, every teacher should be really skilful in the practice of some part or phase of the educative process. There are many forms of educational practice besides classroom instruction, but in one form or another everyone who is fit to be called a master of education should have the necessary technical skill. No doubt Americans can claim no little advancement in the mastery of educational operations; and if it may be said that we become unduly enthusiastic over special technics, at least we have been close students of method, organization, and administrative procedures. What we have to learn from other countries is the development of our methods out of a fuller mastery of subjects and greater courage in perfecting institutions at the top which may serve as standards, models, and sources of leadership for the rest of the educational system.

We have adopted the requirement of two years of graduate study for the degree of Master of Education because one year was not enough to enable us to make sure of scholarship, educational understanding, and practical competence. We require sixteen half-courses to make sure that scholarship may be advanced by the inclusion in a master's program of courses in subjects other than education. We prescribe six half-courses and require a general examination to make sure of educational understanding. We insist on apprenticeship in some form, to make sure of skill. But we have been influenced also by a consideration less definite than any of these,

a feeling, "far more subtly interfused" in the complexity of our thought about the position of the teacher in American life. We felt that American education has not put sufficient emphasis upon maturity of mind and thoroughgoing professional purpose in the training and selection of those who are to carry on the schools. There has been much talk about the low pay of teachers; and this, no doubt, has been amply justified by the facts. But although we shall not call down upon our heads the charge of disloyalty to the profession by intimating that teachers do not deserve far greater rewards than they get, we are perfectly clear that talk about low pay should always and everywhere be accompanied by plans for more thorough professional preparation. The fact that we pay beginners in teaching relatively high salaries and accept as teachers youngsters without anything that can possibly be called an adequate preparation for an educational career, is merely an indication of our low estimate of what education can do for the individual and the country. If we took education as seriously as we are supposed to, we should make entrance into the profession difficult, initial earnings smaller in relation to final rewards, and the path to posts of larger responsibility longer and harder.

The fact is that America is still a frontier country so far as education is concerned. In conquering the natural resources of a vast continent rich in all material goods, we have learned to rely on mother wit, initiative, inventive genius, and individualism. The hand of fate is moving us forward to another stage wherein we shall have to place greater reliance on learning, trained capacity, and cooperation. Greatness no longer lies for us along the road of *laissez-faire*. Our conquests must be spiritual as well as material, our vision broadened and refined, or we shall court the fate which Spengler predicts for western civilization. In the development of a new and more complete and complicated command of our national destiny, education will play a far more dominating part than it has ever played before. How can we continue, then, to put school-keeping into the hands of boys and girls, almost uneducated, poorly prepared for their work, understanding its significance but superficially, lacking in distinction and personal power? Almost any plan to raise the general level of the profession is justified by a dispassionate view of the importance of education at the present stage of American civilization.

For ourselves, for this particular institution, we propose an honest effort to make a more searching selection of the best and most promising young men and women, those who mean to prepare themselves so seriously for their work in education that they are willing to devote two years of graduate study to their preparation for an educational career. And we shall do our best to make this preparation relatively final, so that we may say of our graduates that their scholarship is sound, their educational understanding adequate, their technical skills developed. No profession has "arrived" in which practitioners must pause in mid-career to learn the basic things.

The philosophy of our new requirements may be stated thus: The making of the nation calls for a new and higher standard in the training of teachers. That is the first line of attack upon the superficiality of American attitudes toward education. Too many among us still think of learning as something artificial and remote, the adornment of peculiar minds, an absorption in activities essentially dilettante, queer, and out of line with the serious business of life. The really educated man has seemed, perhaps too often he has been, an exotic, overdeveloped in a narrow way, a specialist "learning more and more of less and less." Or, if there are some who take a different attitude, it has been too often the attitude of respect for the unfamiliar, of bowing down before the shrines of the spirit as if they stood for mysteries beyond the reach of ordinary minds. Rugged disrespect for too much learning has appeared side by side with breathless admiration for any learning at all. The selfmade man has laughed at colleges and often found their weakest spots and poked fun at their excesses. The dabbler in aesthetics or philosophy has paid timid respect to scholars. Parents who face the educational situation in a matter-of-fact way have valued academic distinctions for what they seem to be worth, that is, as passports from one stage to another in the educational system, the really important things in either school or college being just what we have let them become, namely discipline, the formation of good habits of mind and body, fun, and friendship. Such things need not be less valuable when all these attitudes have yielded to a more searching criticism, when our teaching shall be more effective in providing youth with such knowledge and insight as youth must have in our new and more complex civilization. And no factor will be more important in bringing a more serious attitude toward education than the raising of teaching to a new level of competence. It is easy, therefore, to conceive our effort in the graduate school of education in the amplest social terms. We need not look upon it as something special and unique, suited to a little group of "highbrows" who want to become personally distinguished. The simple truth is that a more serious conception of the place of the teacher in the life of the nation is both necessary and timely.

Other schools of education in this country have developed their plans of instruction on the basis of convictions equally sincere, and no doubt equally national in scope. If we have departed from the more traditional course and if we have failed to take the way we have been urged to take by certain leaders in the field, it is not because we have failed to consider the possible consequences of our action.

There is, for example, the plan of work still largely followed throughout the country, and not without its analogue abroad, in which the teaching of education is conducted in a department of the faculty of arts and sciences—just as is the teaching of any other "subject" in the university program. We abandoned this plan of work when we set up a separate graduate school of education. Then we faced squarely toward the

profession and took upon ourselves the burden of developing a scheme of instruction which should be pervaded throughout by the spirit of higher professional training. The school of education is as much a vocational school as is the law school, the medical school, or the school of business administration. We do not regard education as a subject to be learned, but as a field of professional effort in which knowledge, understanding, skill, and outlook are to be fused into an active whole.

Among schools of education equally vocational, some are guided by conceptions which we have thought unsuited to our own enterprise. There is the plan often adopted even on a graduate level, and thoroughly American in its character, of making degrees dependent upon a collection of credits for courses, without much discernible unity or consistency in the general scheme. In schools of this character, the instruction expands and proliferates almost without limit. If a new educational movement appears, experts are secured to give courses in the new field. Specialization is carried to extremes, and one may secure a degree on a combination of courses, which is by no means certain to include the subjects generally recognized as fundamental.

There are schools, also, in which the development of the scientific attack in education has dominated every other consideration and in which, therefore, research has been allowed to overshadow training. The tendency in such schools is to make every course an analysis of a particular problem and to deal with all such problems "scientifically" or not at all. Even when such work is conducted by able and conscientious men, the limitations of science, strictly so-called, in providing solutions for educational problems are so great that courses of a scientific nature can cover only selected aspects of the whole field of education. Such a plan seemed to us unfavorable to the development of the broader and more fruitful conceptions of education by which teachers and administrators may guide their actual professional conduct.

We should be unwise, of course, if we were to omit consideration of new movements and new doctrines, and certainly we are earnestly endeavoring to conduct as much scientific research as we can profitably undertake. Our main effort, however, is this: to unify our professional program, to deepen it, extend its scope, and make it more practically effective; for the end we have in view is to prepare workers for all the higher grades of professional endeavor, both classroom teachers and school officers and specialists, as well as those who are to engage in the training of these workers, and so to prepare them that they may set up in their several positions new standards of professional achievement; to select our students rigorously, make sure of their scholarship, insist that they shall have a broad and well-coordinated view of education as a whole, and test their competence as practitioners in a given type of educational endeavor. It would be a mistake to conduct a program of this sort without seeing to it that the spirit of research pervades the whole, that conclusions shall be

based on fact wherever fact is available or can be secured, and that our staff and student body contribute continually to the increase of knowledge in education. Only, first of all, we wish to make sure that the body of graduates from this school shall have no scrappy, disconnected, or superficial preparation for their educational careers. We want them to see their professional lives both steadily and wholly. It is possible to rush too quickly into the "scientific attack" upon some single phase or aspect of education or some particular problem of the schools. Perhaps the general spirit of the university may best be worked into our plan of professional training if we succeed in developing constructive-mindedness in all our students—the power of critical analysis in a mind broadly and deeply informed.

Upon all that I have said falls the shadow of the conception that teaching may actually affect the life of a nation. Let me complete this address by a brief analysis of just that possibility. Perhaps I may be able to present it to your minds from a relatively novel point of view. If the plans of the graduate school of education are based on the conviction that the training of teachers is at bottom an undertaking of national importance and the still deeper conviction that education has national effects, in what sense do we hold any such convictions? Do we really believe that schooling may help to determine national destiny? Do we actually think that what we teach and how we teach it, the organization and conduct of schools, and the training and capacity of teachers, is a matter of importance not to individuals only but to the nation as a whole? I have tried to indicate that the Harvard plan for the training of teachers has been informed by broadly social conceptions of the importance of such work. In what sense do the effects of education transcend the limits of strictly individual living?

It has been justly said—and recently with greater insistence—that the individual is the only real object of education. Let me ask you to analyze with me, however briefly, some of the implications of this saying.

Probably no one will contradict the statement that teachers of every grade and kind are working with the ideas, appreciations, attitudes, reactions, and habits of individual human beings. The human system, in all its complexity, is the stuff with which the teacher deals. Books, laboratory instruments, courses of study, methods, school buildings, administrative organization, all these, when viewed from the standpoint of the educative process, must be considered as mere tools. We use them only to effect changes in the students we are teaching. If we sometimes forget this and act as if our means and materials were ends in themselves, the mistake may be natural, but it is none the less a mistake; and the confusion of means and ends may sometimes have very serious consequences. I recognize, of course, that our tools themselves are still in the making. As teachers we are concerned not only to use knowledge, but to increase it; not only to work with books, but to write new ones; not only to utilize old methods, but to invent better ones. Yet as teachers, even in the heat of our enthusi-

asm for the creation of new tools, we need not lose sight of the fact that tools are tools. In America, we tend especially toward enthusiasm for methods, as if the perfection of a given technic were something to be desired in and of itself. Mechanisms attract us. What an array of special plans and systems the educational historian may pass in review, each advocated in its time as if it could solve every educational problem, if only all of us could learn to use it perfectly! We have conjured with the names of Froebel, Pestalozzi, Herbart, and Rousseau, with the method of the recitation, with the Montessori system, with measurement, with the case or problem method, with schemes for individual instruction, with the project plan. When we decry an exclusive reliance on such externals and call for a return to principles, we are really insisting on the critical analysis of technics from the standpoint of their usefulness in accomplishing the only real end we have in view, namely, the changing of individual human beings in their outlooks and reactions on life.

But it is not enough to free the teacher from the bondage of mechanical procedures. That, to be sure, is difficult and highly important. To train the teacher as an artist means the selection of those who have some gift for the art, those who are "born teachers," and those besides who are at least capable of growing into some measure of artistry on the basis of ordinary endowments; and then it means imparting so much of the science of human structure and development and so much of the art of education as we know and can impart; and all this with the effort to make the teacher free and versatile in the use of what he knows. It is at the crest and pitch of this endeavor that we face the most difficult task of all. What are those "outlooks and reactions on life" toward which we wish to influence our students? If we ourselves are to be artists in education, working freely with the stuff of human selfhood, remaking human nature, what is the goal of our effort, what the model and pattern we have set for our work? Can we define the individual we want to make? To say that the individual is the object of education is to set ourselves straight in the face of a fundamental professional problem. But we must still answer the question, what do we want the individual to become?

Like many another question, perhaps indeed like all fundamental questions in the art of living, this question is easier to ask than it is to answer. We may present the problem in terms that are so sharply defined that we seem called upon to choose between solutions equally clearcut; yet when it comes to action, we may find that our conduct is based partly on one answer, partly on another, or on a confusion of many.

Who is willing, for example, to take the extreme position of the nativist, who says that nature makes us what we are and that education can give us, therefore, only facts and skills and other "usable" commodities? Pushed far enough, this leaves the ordering of life entirely to fate. It is *laissez-faire* applied not only to economics and government but to the whole of conduct. It discountenances even the effort to inspire and persuade. It leans toward fatalism. The individual will be what he will

be, and we as teachers can only put before each individual Cæsar that food on which he himself is willing to feed that he may attain that greatness to which he was born. But now, if we think this conception disconcerting and discouraging, shall we turn to the other extreme and become environmentalists pure and simple? Shall we emphasize out of all proportion the possibility of "inculcating" ideas, influencing "emotional set," or "developing new powers?" We have long ago discarded the notion that the mind is a *tabula rasa*, but we may be in danger of adopting an equally indefensible reliance upon the conditioning of responses. Can we mold human beings as if they were but clay in our hands, even if we begin with them as babies, and condition their responses with the greatest precision and effectiveness? Will they not escape from us, after all, and become rebels and mutineers in our camp? The environmentalist position, carried to its logical conclusion, makes us determinists in education. It expects us to develop a "science" that will enable us eventually to make mere puppets of each succeeding generation. We the teachers, even we, are to be the gods outside of the machine, the arbiters of human destiny. If nativism in education discourages the teacher, environmentalism may well dismay him.

Common sense, as usual, offers a compromise. Why not admit that education can affect human nature, but within limits? Why not say, with the behaviorist, that responses may be conditioned, habits and attitudes profoundly affected, conceptions and points of view established, and modes of thought and action rendered customary, and yet insist both that nature has set limits and given direction to the development of individual powers, and that the final integration of individuality, the final definition of selfhood, cannot be viewed as the conditioning of a response at all?

Let us vote then with common sense; let us reject, on the one hand, the view that individuality is fixed by birth, and on the other, the view that individuality is determined by education. Let us hold that in the end we do but give the individual the materials out of which he is to make himself, granting neither to ourselves the power wholly to fix his character and the uses of his life nor to nature or to chance the power to make him what he is. We shall have some part in the process insofar as we help to place every individual clearly in the center of his own world insofar as we put him in possession of a commanding knowledge of the issues of life, of his own powers and limitations, and of the possible consequences of his actions.

Again we have set our problem clearly before us. The individual is the object of education, and education is in part to make the individual, in part to help him to be what nature intends, and in part to help him make himself. Even yet, however, we face a dilemma of thought. If we as teachers make the individual at all, we must choose the kind of individual to be made. The teaching of one thing rather than another is a choice that makes some difference in the life of any given student. And all such choices are but minor elements in the making of individuals com-

pared with the major undertaking of presenting systems of connected ideas—economic, political, and ethical—by which lives may be guided and within which conduct may run. There is no escaping the moral responsibilities of teaching. We do make conservatives or liberals, progressives or reactionaries by the drift and pressure of our instruction, even in the earlier years. We cannot help but choose among the “outlooks and reactions on life” by which our instruction is guided. What we believe and what we hope, the faith that is in us, our flippancy or our seriousness, all enter into the influence we exert on the lives of our students.

Here again of course, there is a choice between extremes and position that commends itself to common sense. On the one hand stand those who wish to use the schools for propaganda. It is not the radical only who try to form the opinions of young minds in the direction of his own *partis pris*. Conservatives are as eager to use the schools for the dissemination of “sound doctrines” as are liberals to use the schools for the dissemination of “radical opinions.” The university administrator knows well how much courage it takes to defend freedom of teaching and freedom of learning against the dogmatists on either side.

On the other hand, there are those who would rule out of education all controversial issues and teach in the schools only the more formal subjects or only those doctrines which are sanctioned by majority opinion or hallowed by tradition. The course they recommend may be safe, but it leaves a vital part of education to newspapers, magazines, and chance discussion. With maturer students, especially in the senior high school and the college, we ought not to neglect such opportunities as we have to deal with the real issues of life, if they verge on the controversial. Furthermore, no true teaching of literature, history, or science can avoid bringing teachers and pupils face to face with issues that are still hot with conflict. Let the teacher of science in Tennessee bear witness!

Common sense would keep us once again from running to extremes. The teachers of a nation cannot become the proponents of special views, pedlars or panaceas, advocates of particular reforms. The schools are not to be taken as an arena for political warfare. Nor can we, on the other hand, exclude from our teaching the major insights of our times. Teachers are clearly called upon to be interpreters. They must speak for the present and the future as well as for the past. They must deal with their problems in the spirit of constructive statesmanship. I do not mean, of course, that the teacher of geography in the sixth grade must have positive views on the future of China and teach those views to her pupils; but I certainly do mean that teachers in general should compare favorably with any other class in the community in their understanding of world problems. Their patriotism should not be uncritical nor their devotion unreflective. In their associations, growing ever more powerful in this country, they should be worthy of the vision of Plato, who put philosophy at the head of the state.

To risk a specific test, let me ask whether 75 percent of our teachers could read with understanding such a book as Beard's *Rise of American Civilization* or Lowell's *Government of England*? If public interest in the larger questions is to be increasingly keen and intelligent—and if it is not, what becomes of democracy?—the interest of teachers, as a class, must be keen and intelligent. They must use judgment, to be sure, as to the time, place, and manner in which it is fitting for them to deal with particular issues. All the more reason why they should be well informed, well balanced, with a professional consciousness highly developed. That nation in which teachers work for the most part on small, mechanical tasks, under close supervision, out of textbooks, according to syllabi, is “submitting its future to the guidance of second-rate minds.”

The part of the teacher in the making of the nation is not unlimited, but it is real; and it is more important than we have dreamed of in our philosophy. If, fifty years from today, it can be said that the Harvard School of Education had a substantial part in raising the teaching in American schools to a higher level of intelligence and vigor, can we ask for a greater measure of the fame that

Lives and spreads aloft in those pure eyes
And perfect witness of all-judging Jove?

TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN THE PROFESSIONAL- IZATION OF SUBJECTMATTER FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

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I regret very much that an ungainly term has become associated with the idea or conception that I have been asked to discuss with you this evening. To speak of the professionalization of subjectmatter is almost to invite resentment that subjectmatter or anything else should be treated by so inhumane a process—whatever the process may be. I must assure you at the outset, then, that I have no dark designs on subjectmatter, and no intention to treat it harshly or cruelly. On the contrary, what I mean by professionalizing subjectmatter in the normal schools and teachers' colleges might quite justly be thought of as a really serious attempt to humanize knowledge, to reveal its true meaning, to show how it has evolved out of human experiences and how it has helped men and women to solve their problems and especially to show how it can be built into the experience of each oncoming generation. As I conceive it, indeed, the whole purpose of professionalizing subjectmatter is to make sure that knowledge will throb with life and meaning, and that it will enrich in the largest possible measure the lives of just as many people as possible.

In reflecting upon this problem and discussing it with my students and other friends over a long period of years, I have become more and more firmly convinced that the most important function of the professional

school for teachers is to do this very thing: to enable the teacher to make knowledge really live in the experiences of boys and girls. I have become more and more firmly convinced, too, that in discharging this transcendent function, the professional school must place its chief dependence upon its subjectmatter instructors.

It is at this point that the rub has come. In the development of professional education for teachers a sharp distinction has been made between a teacher's equipment in subjectmatter and his equipment in the art or technic of teaching. The subjectmatter equipment has generally been taken care of by instructors and departments that we have designated as "academic," while the theory and art of teaching have been taken care of by instructors and departments that we have called "professional." By our very terminology, then, we have implied that the subjectmatter equipment is not part of the teacher's professional equipment. Further than this, the dualism between subjectmatter and method has left the subjectmatter specialists generally speaking with little sympathy for the all-important task of making subjectmatter live in the experiences of boys and girls. That they have assumed, is not their problem, but rather the problem of the professional departments—the instructors in educational theory, psychology, and "method," and the supervisors of student-teaching.

The result of this division, in my judgment, has not been at all happy. In the first place, it has led to bickerings and jealousies among faculty groups. In many of our professional schools for teachers, there is either open hostility or at best an armed truce between the subjectmatter departments and the so-called professional departments. Much more serious than this, however, is the power and influence that the so-called professional groups practically monopolize in determining the work of the lower schools. This is not their fault. A monopoly has simply been handed over to them. By refusing themselves to professionalize their courses, the subjectmatter specialists have voluntarily surrendered their potential influence. My colleague, Dr. Evenden, has a very effective name for the courses which the professional departments offer to bridge the gap between mastery of subjectmatter and the actual work of teaching boys and girls—such courses as the psychology of elementary-school subjects, the teaching of the common branches, and the like. He calls them "George" courses, meaning that the subjectmatter specialists have been content to "let George do it."

The same general problem is met even more acutely in the liberal arts colleges and universities that attempt to prepare teachers. The subjectmatter specialists in these institutions usually take a most contemptuous attitude toward the professors of education to whom by default the problem of adapting subjectmatter to the needs and capacities of elementary and high-school pupils has been left. In recent numbers of both *The American Mercury* and *Harper's Magazine* there have appeared bitter attacks upon the professors of education. They have been accused of practically all of the sins on the calendar, and the righteous indignation of their academic colleagues has descended upon them. A few professors of educa-

tion have resented these articles, but not for long. And why not? Simply because they have been too busy doing necessary work that their critics have declined to do on the ground apparently that it might soil their hands or spot their lily-white reputations. And back of these critics that "George," with all of his obvious faults and imperfections, is after all exerting a tremendous influence. He is, and it is an influence that he and his group ought not to monopolize; it is an influence that ought to be shared by his academic colleagues, or at least by a certain proportion of them who would prepare themselves to undertake the responsibilities. As a matter of fact in our country today the policies and practices of the lower schools are being determined in large part by professors of education—and chiefly because these men and women alone have regarded the work of the lower schools as worth studying. They are of course not competent alone to solve the problems, and they should have especially the cooperation of their colleagues in the various fields of human scholarship and culture. Lacking this cooperation "George" is doing the best that he can with a huge task—and I do not hesitate to say that in some cases I think that he is doing more harm than good.

As I see it, the influence both of the educational theorist and of the so-called educational scientist very distinctly needs the balance that the subject-matter specialist might well provide if he interested himself in the difficult art of teaching boys and girls. I do not mean by this that "George" should be dispensed with entirely. There is a place for the out-and-out student of education. But when we turn the entire field of elementary and secondary education over to him, we are giving him too large an order. We need only to glance at our prodigious professional literature to see how confused we are. And we need only to look at what is happening particularly in elementary education to find how our confusion is affecting the teaching of boys and girls. For some reason or another "George" is uncannily adept in the fine art of messing things up. Now it is perhaps true that things need messing up in education as a first step in making them better; but I have serious doubts that some of our recent efforts have carried us or will carry us very far forward.

Let me give a few examples of what I mean. For the past few years "George" has been busily engaged in what he likes to call "curriculum reconstruction." In this obviously important work he has found it necessary to introduce a host of new terms ostensibly to cover important ideas. As a matter of fact, many of these terms either merely cover up our ignorance, or are substitutes for much better terms that have, for one reason or another, become unpopular in our professional circles. The current vogue of such terms as "activities," "objectives," and "attitudes" illustrates what I mean by the introduction of words that merely cover up our ignorance; and the substitution of the term "social control" for the much more virile and significant term "discipline" indicates the lengths to which we go in trying to avoid even the barest suggestion of anything unpleasant in the processes of education. By far the most serious charge against "George"

is that he is partly, and I think pretty largely, responsible for the very serious softening of the educational fiber that has been going on for the past two or three decades. Having protested in season and out of season against these softening tendencies I believe that I may justly claim a personal alibi in connection with this charge.

Now one hope that I have had in urging a greater emphasis upon subject-matter in the professional education of teachers is that the subjectmatter specialist, working as he does in a much more limited field than that of the educationist, and concerned as he is with much more definite and tangible materials, will counteract looseness and softness toward which, for some inexplicable reason, the educationist almost always tends. But the subject-matter specialist cannot exert a corrective influence as long as he holds himself aloof from the lower schools and their problems. He may sneer at the educationist and proclaim in his own classes the utter futility of "George" and all of his works; but that will get him nowhere. "George" may be all that is said about him, but he is right there on the job, and the man who is on the job is the man who wields the influence.

The problem has become, then, one of getting the subjectmatter specialist on this job, at least to the extent of having him reflect in some of his courses the point of view of the teacher in the lower schools, with some concern regarding what elements among his own materials can be profitably taught to boys and girls and how such elements may be made to vibrate with life and meaning. If even so much as this could be done, I have contended, we could dispense with some of the courses in educational theory, some of which, as we all know, are extremely thin, and in many of which there is a great deal of overlapping.

I confess that I have been surprised that this proposal has met with so much opposition from the very people who would seem at first glance most likely to support it—namely, the subjectmatter specialists themselves. Many of them have asked very testily how I could propose that subject-matter and method could be taught at the same time. This attitude merely shows how deep-lying is the dualism that we have allowed to develop in connection with the professional education of teachers. As long as people hold this view, we may be certain what ought to be the finest of all fine arts will remain very largely a trade, and that its technic, which ought to grow out of the substance with which teaching deals, will remain a mere bag of tricks.

Just as surprising is the criticism that has come to my attention from Dr. Bachman of the General Education Board, who—I am told—has characterized my proposal as the most dangerous notion now abroad in American education. If so, I should say that it must be fairly perilous. Just why Dr. Bachman should oppose my efforts to put more substance into the professional education of teachers and dispense with some of the froth I am unable to see.

The topic assigned to me on the program is "Twenty Years' Progress in the Professionalization of Subjectmatter." I have not said very much

as yet about progress, and both my time and your patience are now exhausted. I should not leave you with the impression, however, that no progress has been made.

The first extended study of the problem was published in 1922—E. D. Randolph's *The Professional Treatment of Subjectmatter* (Baltimore: Warwick and York). Since that time there have been several monographs dealing with the problems of professional treatment in specific subject-matter fields. A substantial beginning has also been made in the construction of textbooks for professional content courses of collegiate grade. These have been prepared by subjectmatter specialists who are also close students of education and both familiar with and sympathetic toward the problem of teaching in the lower schools.

Beyond all this, however, and perhaps more important than anything else, is the greatly increased recognition of the problem in two institutions that prepare many of the instructors for the normal schools and undergraduate teachers colleges. I refer particularly to the George Peabody College for Teachers and to the Teachers College of Columbia University.

At Peabody, an effort is being made to discover in the several subject-matter courses the important contributions that they make to the work of the teacher and to bring these contributions into high relief in the organization and conduct of the courses. A member of the college staff has been relieved of other duties and assigned to study the various courses offered and the way in which they are taught. All of this is for the purpose of making these courses maximally helpful to teachers in the lower schools.

At Teachers College our subjectmatter departments are much more important than they were ten years ago—more important, indeed, than they have been since they were known as “secondary” departments, at a time when the college was predominantly an undergraduate institution and prepared many teachers for the high schools.

In recent years, Teachers College has become almost exclusively a graduate school, and its graduate students are preparing chiefly for supervision, for normal-school and teachers'-college service, and for administrative posts. When this change in student-personnel became apparent, there was a general conviction among the members of the staff that the subject-matter departments of the college would be superfluous, that the courses offered in the college would be exclusively technical and professional, and that whatever subjectmatter work our students wished to have could be provided in other colleges of the university.

It was very soon discovered, however, that this would not solve the problem. It was found that, even for graduate students preparing for elementary-school supervision or for normal-school instructorships, advanced courses in education alone did not suffice. It was found, too, that the purely academic subjectmatter courses offered elsewhere in the university would not entirely answer the purpose. In short, there was a real need for what I have termed professional-content courses—this time on the grad-

uate level. Our recent development has been distinctly toward the development of such courses. Today the group in Teachers College which has the largest enrolment of major students for the Master's degree is the English group.

These facts I advance as significant of the fundamental importance of the type of work which the professional treatment of subjectmatter represents. They offer further testimony to my main contention—namely, that the most unfortunate fallacy in the professional education of teachers is the assumption that only technic and educational theory are “professional,”—and that to equip the teacher with substantial materials for teaching is a task that has nothing professional about it.

It is time that this dualism, which has done untold harm to education, should be thoroughly resolved. I repeat that the fine art of teaching is something more than a mere bag of tricks. The notion of a “general method” of teaching which will be indiscriminately applicable to all materials is just as much of a delusion and a snare now when the “project method” or the “contract plan” or the “mastery formula” is the fashion as it was when the “five formal steps” were regarded as the universal panacea for all of our educational ills. Each of these and other theories of teaching has its place, but it is a place that must always be determined by the closest consideration of the subjectmatter to be taught. Technics which are merely “fastened on” to subjectmatter instead of growing out of the very nature and function of subjectmatter have not helped us much in the past nor will they help us much in the future. Only the “teacher-scholar” can resolve this fatal dualism. Unless our professional schools for teachers can develop these teacher-scholars and give them a position of significance in their organization, the professional school as such, I believe, will soon disappear. The preparation of teachers will become a minor function of the liberal-arts colleges, taken care of exclusively by detached departments of education, which will essay to solve the most intricate and important of all human problems on a necessarily superficial basis.

I believe that the time is peculiarly opportune for a much more extended attack on this problem than we have been able to make in the past. The lengthening of the curricula for elementary-school teachers is making it possible to give to these teachers a much richer equipment. We can insure both a broader outlook and a firmer and more dependable foundation. What may this mean to the lower schools? It will mean very little if the teacher regards the so-called academic courses as not having any relationship to the work of teaching on the lower levels; it will mean very little if the teacher in his exposure to these courses has gained the notion that what he calls culture is a thing apart from his daily work. In the professional education of physicians and engineers, it may be legitimate and wise to distinguish sharply between the vocational and the cultural but not in the education of teachers; for what we call culture is not only a part of the teacher's professional equipment—it is altogether the most important part. If, then, the broader outlook and the firmer foundation made possible by

our longer curricula can be directed definitely toward enriching the lives of children—if these developments can be made to mean a wider extension of culture among the masses of the people—a forward step of large magnitude will have been taken.

My very firm conviction is that this cannot be left to chance. I recently interviewed a number of young women just finishing their first half year of teaching in the elementary school. They had all taken courses in the so-called professional and academic subjects in preparation for their work. I tried to learn from them the types of courses that they had drawn upon in their teaching. With but one exception the testimony of the teachers was that the only helpful courses were those that had been taught in very close connection with the elementary-school problem—most of them “George” courses accompanied by observation and participation, but also a few subject-matter courses where a specific effort had been made to show what could be done with materials in the lower schools. All the rest of their preparatory work was detached and isolated. They frankly said that they were doing nothing with it.

One teacher, however, was the exception. A young woman of unusual intelligence and deeply interested in teaching, answered my first question by saying that she did not know of any course that she had taken that she did not draw upon in one way or another in her teaching—and she gave me clear-cut illustrations one after another, even showing how she had drawn on her Latin to tell some fascinating stories about words to fifth-graders, and on her French for some interesting folk-lore that was not available in English. That teacher’s “culture” was more than a personal adornment, and she was using it for something besides getting relief from the “humdrum” work of teaching children. She was using it to illuminate the lives of children—and because she could use it in this way the work itself was very far from humdrum.

Now this teacher had an unusual capacity for “transferring” her training from one field to another. The others did not, but their experiences proved clearly enough that they could transfer and transfer effectively when illustrative connections are made and clearly demonstrated in the preparatory work. What they were carrying over most frequently were the “George” courses—and by no means all of these. This means that, in general, their tendency was to carry over only the most superficial elements in their training. The most substantial and fundamental phases of their training remained things quite apart. It is this unnecessary wastage that I believe the point of view that I have set forth will do something to correct.

BIRTH OF AN IDEA

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

There are state normal schools or state teachers’ colleges in every state in the union and there is nothing available that gives the faintest suggestion of the birth throes of these teacher-training institutions in the New World. No history of education or encyclopaedia of education has any-

thing by way of enlightenment on this important development of the public school system.

It is traditionally recorded that state teacher training in the New World was created by Horace Mann at Lexington, Barre, and Bridgewater in 1839 and 1840, but this is as lifeless a statement as to say that a given baseball bat struck a home run.

In reporting the voltage in hydro-electric power there must be considered the resistance to the hydromotive force, so in estimating the relation of Horace Mann to the creation of state teacher training account must be taken of the resistance of teachers in service, of institutions already educating teachers, and traditional prejudices.

Horace Mann had two careers that were almost miraculous. The first was legislative, 1826 to 1837, the other was educational, 1837 to 1847. There was no "cloud the size of a man's hand" in his horizon from 1826 to 1843.

From 1843 onward there were few peaceful months in his life and his troubles date from this controversy with the 31 Boston masters which was due to his "Seventh Annual Report" in 1843 for which his relation to the state normal schools was responsible.

History deals generously with Mr. Mann's legislative and educational careers which culminated with his famous "Fifth Annual Report of 1841" than which there is nothing more remarkable in American educational literature. There is nothing for which to apologize in the 16 years of brilliant and noble public service of America's greatest educational leader.

At 30 years of age Horace Mann made his first public address, a Fourth of July oration in Dedham, on the 50th anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence. As a result of that address he was sent to the Massachusetts Legislature where he served heroically and grandly for 10 years.

At 40 years of age he created the Massachusetts State Board of Education whose leader he was for 12 years, and for six years of that time he was eminently fortunate in his official relations at home and abroad.

From the first Mr. Mann realized that if public schools were to be supported by public taxes the public must be responsible for the quality of the teaching. The legislature provided for a state normal school which was opened at Lexington on July 8, 1839; one at Barre opened on September 4, 1839, and one at Bridgewater, September 9, 1840.

Although the normal school enrolment was disappointing, Mr. Mann was so elated over the world reception of his "Fifth Annual Report" of 1841 that he gave little heed to the indifference of the public to the normal schools. In 1842 he went abroad to enjoy the fame resulting from his "Fifth Annual Report."

When Mr. Mann returned from his European trip of 1842 he discovered a well organized vicious opposition to the normal schools. The Lexington school was a failure. A change of principals had not saved it and a change of location was resorted to. The Barre school was in a bad

way and a change of principals and change of location were inevitable, and at Bridgewater the principal insisted that it was impossible to have a successful school on the original plan.

At Lexington, Rev. Cyrus Peirce, a man after Mr. Mann's own heart, admitted a change was desirable and Samuel Joseph May was put in charge and things were less satisfactory.

At Barre, Professor Samuel P. Newman of Bowdoin College had not been a success, had resigned, and plans were made for the removal of the normal school to Westfield. At Bridgewater, Nicholas Tillinghast, a wonderful teacher, a graduate of West Point, protested that it was impossible to educate teachers under the plan of Mr. Mann and the state board of education which allowed students to come as they pleased and earn a certificate by patching up a course when it was convenient. Comparatively few students had been graduated and the opposition was now in the open, ridiculing the hop, skip, and jump plan of changing principals and locations.

Mr. Mann was in no mood to withstand the irritation of this situation. He foolishly thought the remedy for the failure of his pet scheme was to attack the public schools as utter failures and with that purpose he wrote the tragic "Seventh Annual Report."

Two years before, in his "Fifth Annual Report," he had convinced the world that his public school scheme had made Massachusetts an educational paradise, and in 1843 in his "Seventh Annual Report" he declared that the public schools of Massachusetts were an abomination to be compared to hibernating animals. All this in the interest of his normal schools. He centered his criticism on the Boston schools. We have often referred to that "Seventh Annual Report" as an "inexplicable." Now we realize that it was inevitable.

The Boston masters were then, as they have always been, as scholarly and as highly respected as other professional men of the day. They did not start a public attack on Mr. Mann, though they undoubtedly did enjoy his discomfiture at the failure of his normal school scheme.

This vicious attack was met by a pamphlet of 144 pages by 31 Boston masters—"The Remarks on the Seventh Annual Report of the Honorable Horace Mann." This is the most masterful document ever issued in any educational controversy in the New World. It made the "Seventh Annual Report" ridiculous to the nth degree. It was even enjoyed by the friends of Mr. Mann. It so enraged him that he published a hastily written "reply" which was in no respect worthy of the man. He compared the 31 grammar masters to 31 vulgar fractions multiplied into themselves, yielding a most contemptible product, many of them were "mewling and purring in their nurse's arms."

The "Rejoinder" to the "Reply" by the Boston masters was even more unfortunate for the Boston masters than Mr. Mann's "reply" had been to him, and they lost the public completely. They attempted to defend

the a-b-c method of teaching reading. They tried to defend the indefensible. They were virtually attacking Mr. Mann and all of his noble supporters. It was high tragedy.

Mr. Mann's "Answer" was in his best form. It was the work of a master and it secured the intensified loyalty of the great men of the day, like Edward Everett, Charles Sumner, Samuel G. Howe, George B. Emerson. Mr. Mann was once more on the throne. His "Seventh Annual Report" was now a part of the controversy, and he had won in the controversy. That report was never thereafter classed as one of his "Reports" as secretary of the state board of education.

While the Boston masters had lost the public in the controversy, they had solidified the profession in New York as well as New England. This was really distressing to Mr. Mann. He could not understand why he was professionally friendless in New York and Brooklyn.

The controversy had won the public but it had lost him the profession, and 25 years afterwards it cost the National Teachers Association the loyalty of Boston teachers and many other New Englanders when its name was changed to the "National Educational Association." That controversy made the name "teachers" sacred professionally.

Mr. Mann's educational work in Massachusetts was never the same thereafter. His friends had a feeling, which he seems to have shared, that he was too big to waste talent on schoolmasters, and they in return regarded him as a politician rather than as an educator, and it was inevitable that he should be active in the political arena at an early age.

Mr. Mann sacrificed everything for the state normal schools, but the controversy really led to their alignment with the teachers where their interests really were. For this change of alignment Nicholas Tillinghast of Bridgewater was largely responsible. From the first he appreciated the fatal weakness of Mr. Mann's policy.

Mr. Tillinghast insisted that the business of the normal school was to make every teacher a success, and he said that was impossible unless they stayed in the school in three successive classes. Mr. Mann wanted as many as possible inoculated with some captivating slogan.

In those days a "class" was a short-lived affair, possibly only an eleven weeks' experience. I entered the Bridgewater state normal school when it was 23 years old but I was in the 61st class.

Mr. Tillinghast did not object to students coming at random, but he did protest against giving a certificate of ability to teach unless the three terms had been consecutive. In 1846 he was so disgusted with the state board of education that he resigned as principal. This made a straight issue and the board of education refused to accept his resignation and made new rules to meet his demand.

From that time onward the three normal schools made the sole business of a state normal school the education of teachers, but since it was Bridgewater that made the issue this Massachusetts standard has been designated as Bridgewater's professional contribution.

*TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN THE SERVICE REND-
ERED BY NORMAL SCHOOLS AND
TEACHERS COLLEGES*

BRUCE R. PAYNE, PRESIDENT OF GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS
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If the average American citizen or a good many of the academic "high-brows" were to be asked, what is the institution in America known as the normal school or teachers college, the answer would be, it is a place where women school teachers are taught how to methodize, the "high-brows" adding the facetious remark that they were taught methods without being taught anything to methodize about. Both of these interpretations are foolish—one involuntary and the other voluntary. A good deal of this talk is propaganda upon the part of individuals and institutions that believe there is no other way of doing it except their way of doing it—people who believe that a man can teach whatever he knows whether he has ever learned how to teach it or not.

In the first place, there have been no investigations of an accurate sort upon this subject, and any opinion uttered or published is merely the prejudiced expression of the uninformed.

As a matter of fact, if the old type of academic subjects alone are considered, namely, the five subjects of English, mathematics, history, foreign language, and science; in 48 of the normal schools and teachers colleges which belonged to this Association last year students took 499,847 quarter hours. In other words, it would take 10,413 years for one man, taking 48 quarter hours or 16 college hours throughout a scholastic year to complete the courses in English, mathematics, history, foreign language, and science taken last year in only 48 of the normal schools and teachers colleges of America. If one adds the number of quarter hours taken in these institutions in those other academic subjects of the newer sort which have been introduced into the curriculum during the last 50 years, such as geography, fine arts, agriculture, commercial subjects, home economics, health education, industrial arts, and sociology, he will find that there were 419,952 hours taken, which would require a man 8479 years to complete if he took 16 colleges hours or 48 quarter hours per year.

Adding these two groups of subjects which are credited toward academic degrees in the various universities of America, it would take one man 18,892 years to complete them. These are all state institutions. The larger, privately endowed institutions, such as Teachers College of New York, George Peabody College for Teachers of Nashville, and the University of Chicago, are not included in this scoring. I happen to know, for instance, that last year in George Peabody College for Teachers it would take a man 700 years to complete all the hours taken in the group of five academic subjects first referred to.

In these 48 state institutions, there were 373,272 quarter hours of psychology and education taken, which would take a man 7776 years to complete.

In brief, the ratio of purely academic subjects to professional subjects is no less in these teachers colleges and normal schools than it is in the larger universities which allow the first year of medicine to count for the senior year of the baccalaureate degree.

In the second place, the table, showing the growth of attendance in 47 of these institutions in the last decade, gives an astounding figure to the average citizen. In 1917, there were 15,849 students in the three quarters of the scholastic year in these institutions; in 1926, there were 38,076. In the summer session of these institutions, in 1917, there were 13,362 students; in 1926, there were 39,414 students. Without excluding duplicates, these 47 institutions during the summer and winter quarters combined taught 77,490 students in the year 1926. The growth of attendance has been 240 percent in the last decade.

Or, if one takes the attendance of all the normal schools and teacher-training institutions in America, the total, as shown by the Commissioner's report, Bulletin 12, 1925 is 228,142 whereas the state universities and state colleges of America showed for the same year in all departments 216,782, a difference of nearly 1200 in favor of the former. Of course, in their education departments, which train teachers who go out to teach in the great people's schools where 97 percent of the population go to school, namely the elementary and high schools of America, they would show no figures to compare with those of the normal schools and teachers colleges. In brief, the teachers colleges and normal schools are training the teachers of America who are trained to teach 97 percent of the population.

The industrial, the educational, the spiritual life of the 97 percent of the citizens of America upon whose shoulders in this representative form of government is thrown the burden of the responsibility both for the maintenance of law and order and for progress depend upon these teacher-training colleges.

These are the only types of institutions of higher learning in the United States which actually take their students from the schools below and send their graduates back to the schools below.

This leads me to give the figures, showing the graduates of forty-two normal schools and teachers colleges of this same group in the years 1917 and 1926.

The two-year institutions, in 1917, graduated 3324 persons; in 1926, they graduated 6151.

The four-year institutions conferred 654 baccalaureate degrees in 1917, whereas in 1926 they gave 3191 baccalaureate degrees to people who were going back in all instances to teach the masses of our population.

The total number of instructors in these 48 normal schools and teachers colleges has grown from 1891 in 1917 to 3821 in 1926.

Someone may say that numbers do not count. Well, I am not so sure of that, for on election day some of our political friends are rather impressed with the idea that they do count. When it comes to law and order, to voting for the right person and adopting the policies of the right leaders, I have the feeling that the great founders of this republic were strongly of the opinion that it was important to educate intelligent followers as it was to provide intelligent leaders; for we have discovered in the long years of the operation of our experiment in government that the intelligence of the leader is dragged down to the very level of the intelligence of the voters who voted for him; that the blocs decide things in Washington and in our state legislatures about as often as the highly trained political leader does. It is, therefore, high time in this great new government of ours that we did consider that the quantity, as well as the quality of our citizens, has a great deal to do with what may happen in this country at any moment.

But, if one may take the degrees held by the instructors in these 48 normal schools and teachers colleges which I am studying, the quality has improved as well as the quantity in this period of time. While ten years ago there were only 68 instructors in these institutions who held the Ph. D. degree, in 1926 there were 162; while there were only 325 who held the Master of Arts degree in 1917, in 1926 there were 1061. There were 592 instructors holding the baccalaureate degree in 1917, and 980 in 1926. On the other hand, those who held no degrees have dropped from 490 in 1917 to 252 in 1926. Or, if one takes it in percents, 4 percent of the total in 1917 held Ph. D. degrees, whereas 7 percent of the total number of instructors in these 47 institutions, in 1926, held Ph. D. degrees. In 1917, 22 percent of the total held M. A. degrees, and 43 percent held that degree in 1926. In 1917, 43 percent held no degree and only 10 percent held no degree in 1926. In the summer sessions, the figures are quite better so far as the prolonged period of study by the instructors is concerned. We are assuming that the advanced degrees require longer periods of study than the undergraduate degree. We are also assuming, of course, that one who has studied longer knows more—at least the same man may know more than he did before, although I suspect a good many of us have thought that some of our students displayed the reverse order. That, however, might have been due to the instruction in our case.

I have heard a great deal of bragging in my lifetime upon the part of certain institutions which claimed to be the heads of the school systems in the great commonwealths in which they were located. Most of these are located in the greatest state in the union.

I sometimes wonder what the qualifications are to establish such a claim.

It has been shown that the teacher-training institutions have the largest number of students, and that they take them certainly from the masses of our population. It is only a question, then, as to what becomes of them

after they finish in the different types of institutions. If we say that institution is the head of the educational system of a commonwealth, which receives from the public schools the largest number of pupils in the long run, then the industrial institutions such as the stores and the commercial enterprises can claim to be the head of the state school system, because, in the long run, they receive the larger percent of school population.

I wish to give to you a new definition of what may constitute the head of the educational system in a state. It is that institution which not only receives and trains the greatest number of people in any state, but it is that institution which sends back to the people the largest number of helpers and workers. It is that institution which not only receives from the public schools the largest number of students, but sends back to the public schools and the state the largest number of trained workers. With that definition, I wish to assert, without fear of successful contradiction, that the teacher-training institutions are par excellence the heads of the educational systems of their respective states and communities, for they are sending back to the communities from which they take their students as public servants in those communities a larger percent of the students than any other type of institution of higher learning that this country has ever discovered.

The other gentlemen on this program can give you an adequate description of the size of these institutions so far as buildings, grounds, and operating funds are concerned. They may be able to tell you how much money is invested in this type of institution in America both in capital investment and in annual operating funds. But after all has been said, the teacher is practically all there is that counts so far as the transmission of the rich inheritances of the past and the high ideals of the present to the oncoming citizens of tomorrow is concerned. There is not any other way, in this country of ours to transmit knowledge and ideals, ethical codes and profound philosophies, the discovered knowledge of mankind, the scientific investigations, and the results of the research that has been made by the bright minds of the world to the masses of the people except by the training of teachers, human beings who are guaranteed to go back to the people.

We cannot educate people by newspapers and pulpit oratory alone. Even the home has abandoned the hope of doing it by itself. There is no other way, I say, except by systematically training teachers to give systematic instruction in the ideals and in the subjects which human society feels that it needs each generation to know in order to function properly as efficient citizens within its own borders.

We have had so much talk about buildings, equipment, laboratories, libraries, statistical work, and this, that, and the other in recent years that somehow we seem to have forgotten that the teacher is the only distributing agency.

I have had the honor, then, to talk to you today with regard to the pipe lines of distribution that lead down from the reservoirs of discovered

knowledge in the world. There are no other pipe lines possible except those which the teachers themselves establish by word of mouth to their own pupils.

This, then, is the only type of institution which, in any very large and appreciable way, stands as a sort of hopper into which every grain of truth, when poured, may be sent down to the eager minds of all the people and especially of the 97 percent who never go to college or university.

TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN THE QUALIFICATIONS AND THE SALARIES OF TEACHERS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

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Source of Data—This study is based upon data secured from A. L. Crabbe of the George Peabody College for Teachers. I am also indebted to Miss Pauline Humphreys and her class in educational tests and measurements of the Central Missouri State Teachers College for graphs and deductions.

Data from 48 institutions were submitted by Mr. Crabbe from which thirty schools had, in 27 cases, complete information from 1917 to 1927, and three had all data, practically complete, for the ten years covering this study.

The U. S. Bureau of Education was the source of information concerning the class of institution into which each school fell.

Preliminary explanation—From the list of colleges chosen, some have always been four-year colleges throughout the ten-year period from 1917-1927, while others were two-year colleges and are now four-year, others have remained two-year schools throughout the period 1917-1927.

Those that have been four-year colleges throughout the ten-year period have been given the numbers 1 to 7 inclusive on all of the charts presented. These will be referred to as the schools in the 4-4 group.

Those that have evolved from two-year institutions to four-year institutions between 1917 and 1927 have been assigned numbers 8 to 26 inclusive. I shall call these the 2-4 institutions. Numbers 27 to 30 were reported as two-year institutions throughout the period (1917 to 1927) studied. These we shall call 2-2 schools.

How the data was treated—Since the members of the faculties of standard teachers colleges should hold at least an A. M. Degree, Chart I is arranged, according to the magnitude of the number of A. M. degrees. The institution having the highest percent of its faculty in the A. M. degree class is placed first in each group, the institution having the next highest percent of its faculty in the A. M. Degree class was placed second in its group, and so on to the one having the smallest percent of its faculty equipped with the A. M. Degree at the last.

The percent of the faculties having no degree is represented in black on all of the charts, the percent of A. B. degrees is represented by horizontal lines in charts I and II, and by left diagonal slants in Chart III.

The A. M. degrees are represented by left diagonal slants and the Ph. D. degrees are left clear.

The average for each institution was secured by totaling the number in each class for the ten-year period, dividing by 10 and reducing each quotient thus secured from the grand total of each class of schools for the ten-year period, dividing this by 10 and reducing to percents.

Interpretation of data—If we study each group separately we find some interesting facts.

We note first that all schools have had on their teaching staff some who have no degrees. In the 4-4 group the range is from 7 percent at Kirksville to 40.1 percent at Clarion, Pa. Looking at the same item—no degrees—in the 2-4 group we find the range slightly greater from 7.5 percent in Albany to 43.4 at Eau Claire, Wisconsin. In the 2-2 group, all have practically one fourth to two fifths of their faculties with no degrees.

Noting the percent of A. M. degrees, we find that in the 4-4 group 22.7 percent to 49.9 percent hold A. M. degrees. Denton, Texas, leads. In the 2-4 group we find that Huntington, W. Va., leads. It should be noted that in the case of Huntington, and Athens, W. Va., the data was not available for the entire period. It should also be noted that if the percent of A. M. and Ph. D. degrees were combined that Chicago would rank first and Albany, N. Y. third. Nine of the schools in the 2-4 class have a smaller percent of A. M. degree teachers than the highest school in the 2-2 group, namely, Cheney, Washington, which has 27.9 percent of its faculty equipped with A. M. degrees.

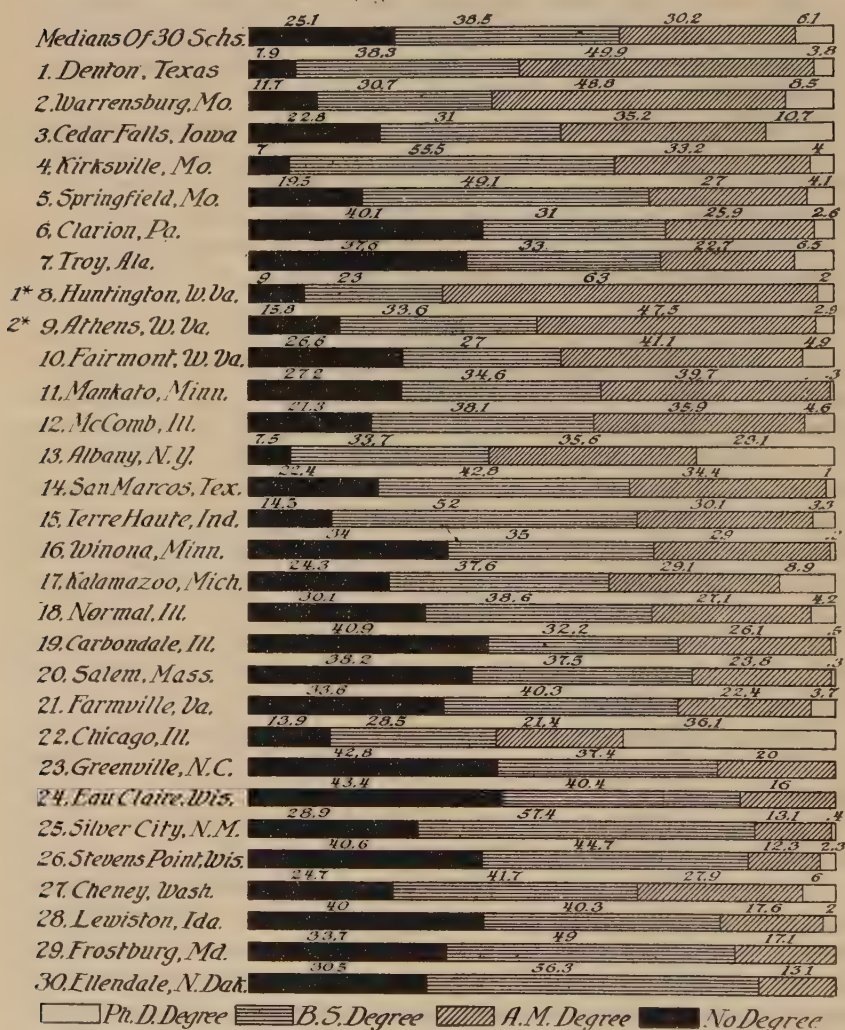
Cedar Falls, Iowa, in the 4-4 group, has 10.7 percent of its faculty with Ph. D. degrees while 2.6 percent of the faculty in Clarion, Pa. have the doctor's degree.

Chicago leads the 2-4 group with 36.1 percent of its faculty in the Ph. D. degree class, while two schools, Greenville, N. C. and Eau Claire, Wisconsin, have no Ph. D. degree instructors. Only three schools in the 2-4 group have a greater percent of Ph. D. degree members on their teaching staff than Cheney, Washington in the 2-2 class.

Conclusion—Based on the study of Chart I: We find that all institutions studied whether they have been four-year colleges for the past ten years or have grown from two-year institutions to four-year colleges, or are still in the two-year class, have on their teaching staff those with no degrees, that the percent of A. B. degrees range from 23 percent to 57 percent A. M.'s from 12.3 percent to 63 percent and Ph. D.'s from 0 to 36.1 percent.

Charts IIA and IIB represent the findings of a study of the conditions in 1917 and 1918 and 1926-27. The arrangement is according to the

AVERAGE PREPARATION, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTS, OF THE FACULTIES OF 30 TEACHER COLLEGES CHOSEN AT RANDOM~1917-27.



1* Period Represented 1920-27.

2* Data For 1918-21 Not Available.

Chart 1

increase in percent of A. M. degrees. Here we note very readily the effort made by the schools in the 4-4 group to reduce the percent of teachers having no degrees. Clarion, Pa., shows greatest progress, having reduced the no-degree class from 57.8 percent in 1917 to 5.5 percent in 1926-27.

Springfield, Missouri, was able to reduce its number in this class from 27.2 in 1917 to none in 26-27.

Kirksville, Mo., and Warrensburg, Mo., changed their percents in this class only slightly.

Denton, Texas, made greatest progress in reducing the percent of A. B. degree teachers from 54 in 1917 to 13.3 in 1926-27, and in increasing the percent of A. M. degrees from 28 in 1917 to 78.6 in 1926-27. There were slight changes in the percent of the Ph. D. degrees. Springfield, Mo. shows greatest increase—from 1.8 percent to 14 percent, while Troy, Alabama reverses the order showing 14.2 percent of Ph. D.'s in 1927 and 3.3 percent in 1926-27.

With the exception of Frostburg, Md., the institutions in the 2-2 class made progress, decreased the percent of no degrees, and A. B. degree teachers and increased the A. M. degree class.

In every case the institutions in the 2-4 group have reduced the percent of no degrees. We note that the increase in the percent of A. M. degrees is from 17.3 percent to 68.9 percent in the case of Fairmont, W. Va. and that Huntington, in the same state, increased its A. M. degree class from 54.1 percent to 60 percent. Two things may be noted at this point, namely, the high percent at which Huntington starts and the fact that data was not available for 1917 (1920-21 was the basis of this comparison.)

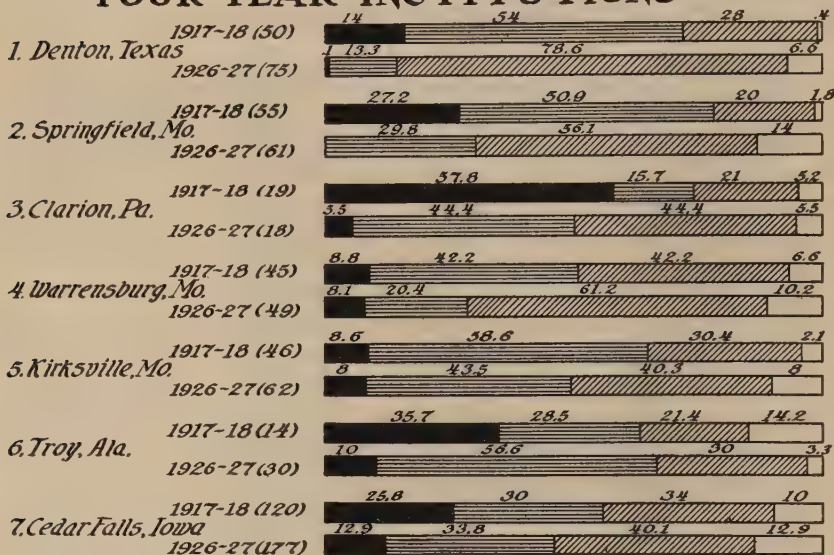
Charts IIIA and IIIB show the status of the institutions in 1926-27. The graph shows the status of all schools, of each group and of each school. It is, therefore, possible to compare each school with the practice throughout the country and with the general practice in the schools of its own class.

The vertical lines indicate the practice in the thirty institutions so that each school can be compared with the general practice as represented by the thirty schools studied. For example: The continuous line indicates the no-degree class. If the first black bar for representing no degrees extends to this line, this school is said to follow the general practice. If the black bar does not extend to the continuous black line, the school is said to have fewer no degree teachers than is the practice throughout the country. If, however, the black bar extends beyond the vertical line, the school has more no-degree teachers than is the practice throughout the country. The numbers under the names of each school indicate the size of the faculty.

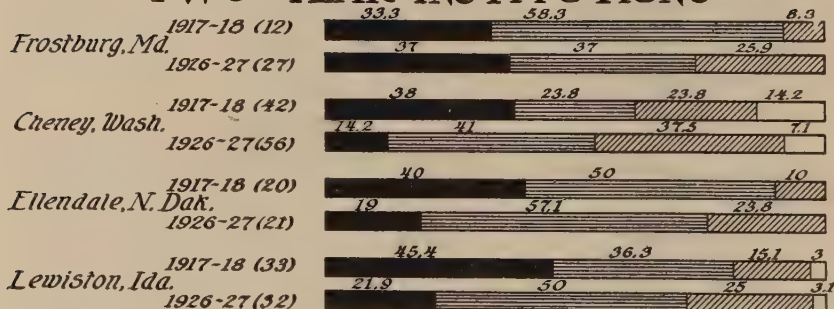
The percents on the right side are the data upon which the graph is based.

PREPARATION OF THE FACULTIES OF 30 TEACHERS COLLEGES IN 1917-18 AND IN 1926-27

FOUR YEAR INSTITUTIONS



TWO YEAR INSTITUTIONS



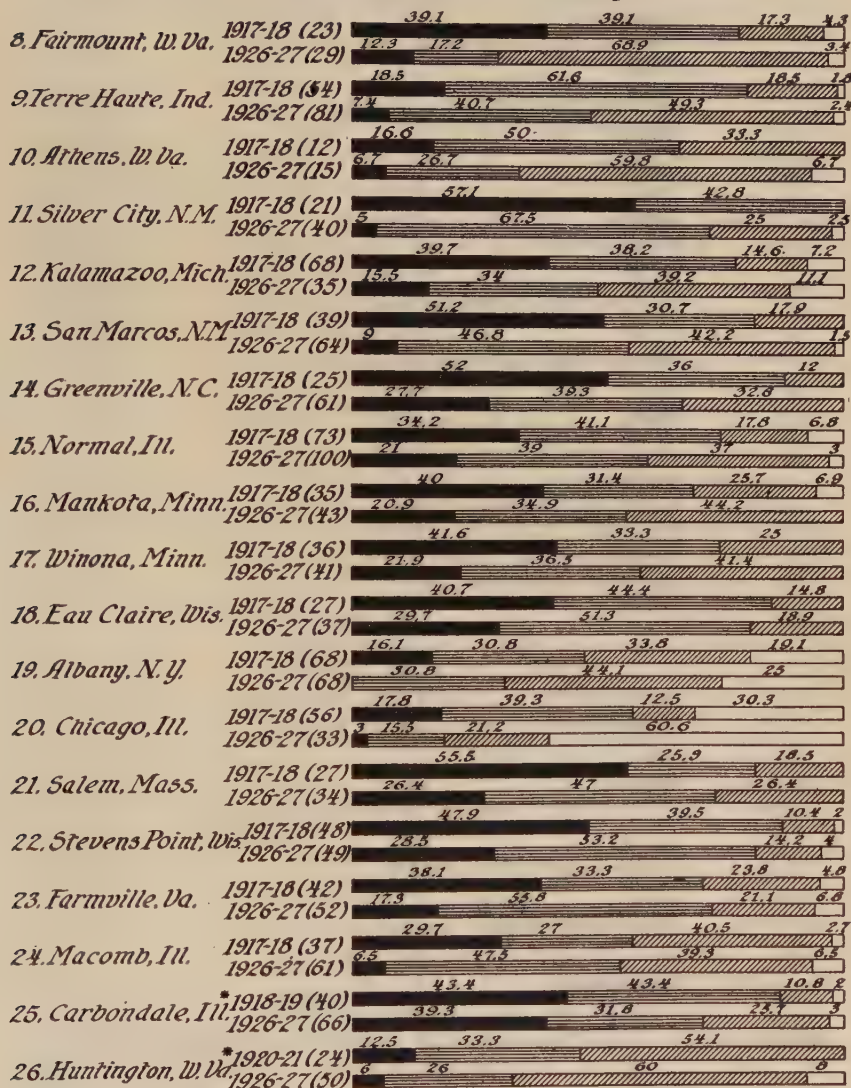
No Degrees
 A.B. Degrees

A.M. Degrees
 Ph.D. Degrees

Chart 2a

PREPARATION OF THE FACULTIES OF 30 TEACHERS COLLEGES IN 1917-18 AND IN 1926-27

Reported 2 Year Colleges In 1917 And 4 Year In 1927.



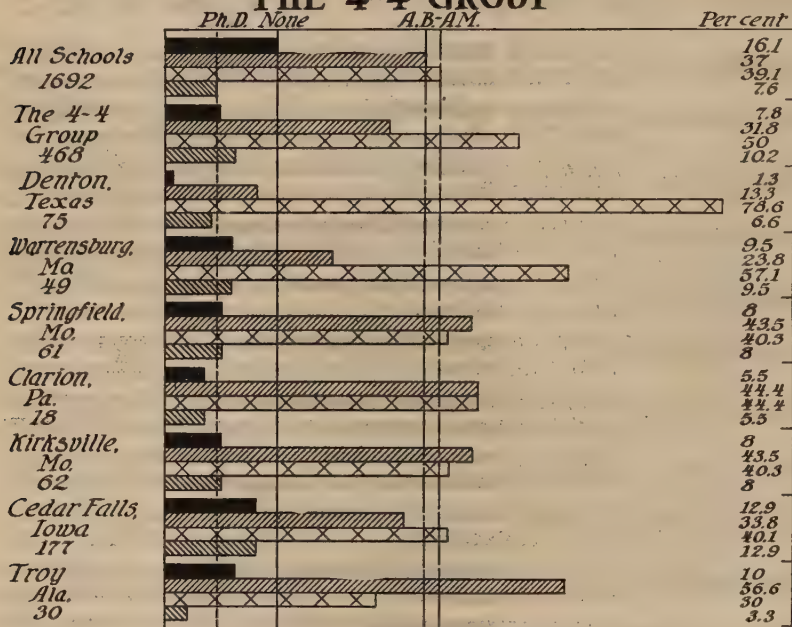
■ No Degree ▨ A.B. Degree ▩ A.M. Degree □ Ph.D. Degree

*Data for 1917-18 not available - Figures substituted for years indicated.

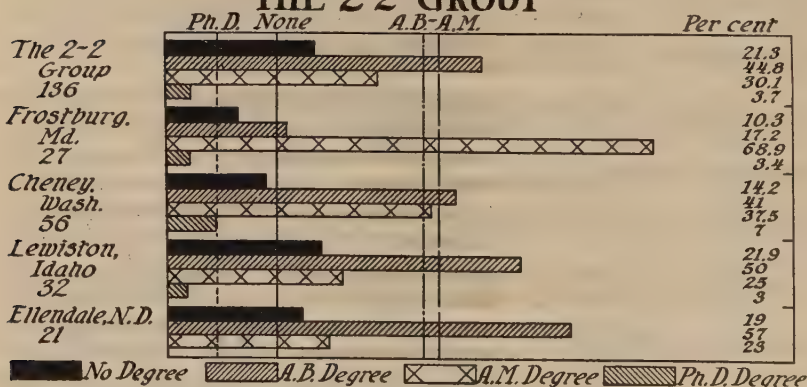
Chart 2b

A COMPARISON OF 30 TEACHERS COLLEGES. TRAINING OF FACULTIES - 1926-27

THE 4-4 GROUP



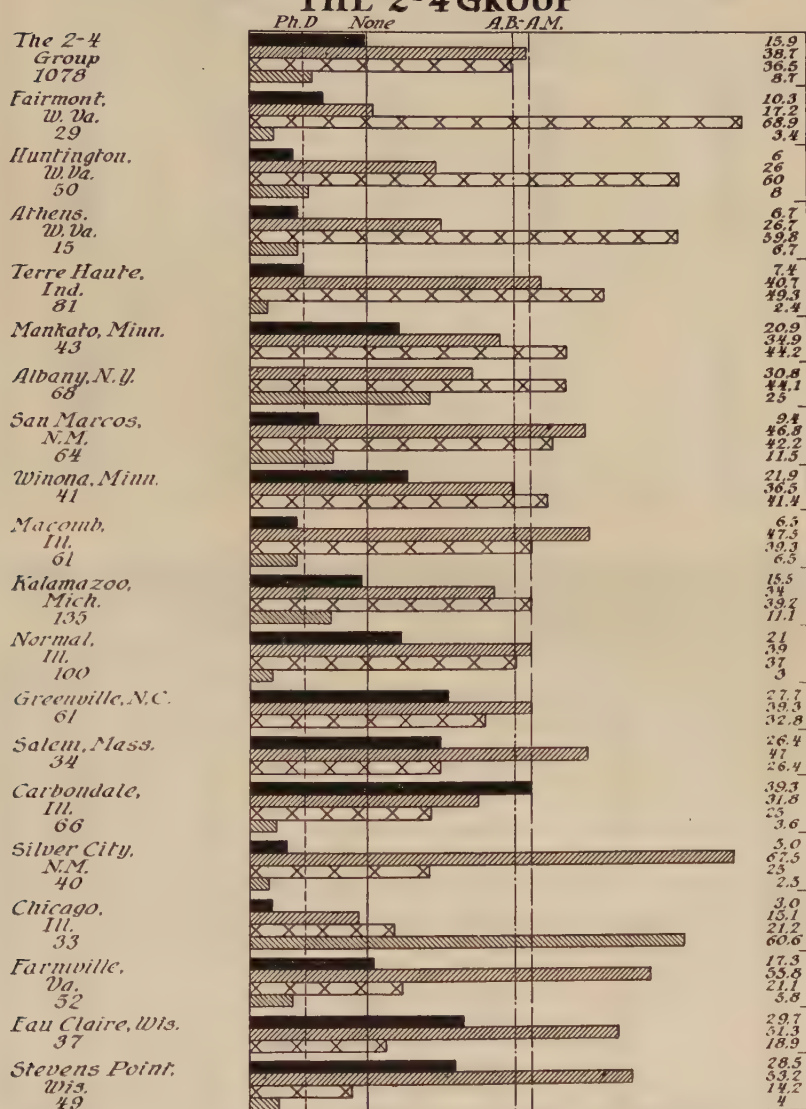
THE 2-2 GROUP



No Degree
 A.B. Degree
 A.M. Degree
 Ph.D. Degree

Chart 3a

A COMPARISON OF 30 TEACHERS COLLEGES. TRAINING OF FACULTIES-1926-27. THE 2-4 GROUP



No Degree

A.B. Degree

A.M. Degree

Ph.D. Degree

Chart 3b

INDICATING DISTRIBUTION OF DEGREES AMONG FULL TIME STAFF MEMBERS IN TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS DURING PAST TEN YEARS

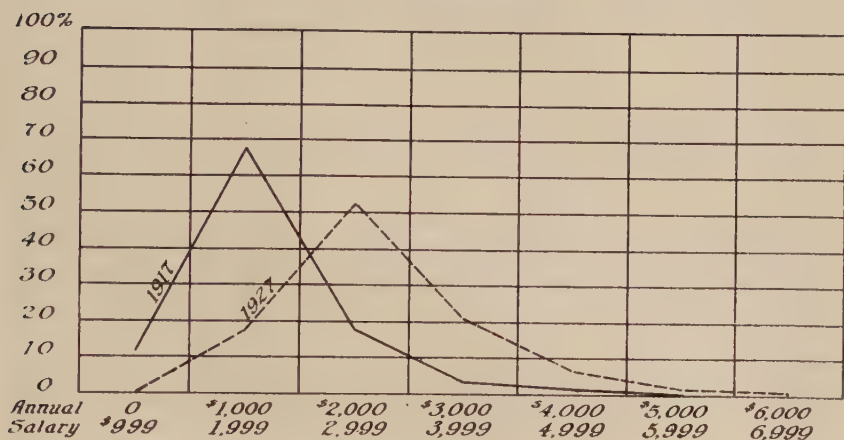
0	A. B.	A. M.	Ph. D.	Year
Regular Session				
490	592	325	68	1917
504	550	331	75	1918
485	615	362	104	1919
255	565	562	100	1920
461	679	468	106	1921
455	751	480	152	1922
431	783	698	165	1923
221	901	597	133	1924
461	963	897	157	1925
252	980	1061	162	1926
Summer Session				
271	310	197	61	1917
286	338	202	57	1918
279	354	246	56	1919
309	396	274	94	1920
315	361	350	82	1921
363	529	359	107	1922
235	255	577	145	1923
305	686	562	135	1924
250	732	709	142	1925
187	740	841	181	1926

INDICATING DISTRIBUTION OF DEGREES IN PERCENTS HELD BY FULL TIME STAFF MEMBERS IN 48 TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS DURING THE PAST TEN YEARS

0	A. B.	A. M.	Ph. D.	Year
33	40	22	4	1917
34	38	22	5	1918
30	35	20	6	1919
17	38	37	6	1920
25	37	25	5	1921
25	41	24	8	1922
21	37	34	8	1923
10	50	32	7	1924
19	39	36	6	1925
10	40	43	7	1926
Median	23	38.5	28.5	6
Range	10-34	35-50	20-43	4-8
Years	1918-1924	1919-1924	1919-1926	1917-1923
32	37	23	7	1917
32	37	23	7	1918
30	38	26	6	1919
28	37	26	8	1920
28	33	32	8	1921
27	38	26	8	1922
20	21	47	12	1923
18	41	33	8	1924
14	40	38	8	1925
10	38	43	9	1926
Median	27.5	37	32	8
Range	10-32	33-41	23-37	6-12
Years	1926-1927	1921-1924	1917-1923	1919-1923

SALARIES OF FACULTIES IN TEACHERS COLLEGES IN 1917 AND 1927

48 INSTITUTIONS REPRESENTED



Salaries—The accompanying graph indicates in a general way the salaries of faculties in teachers colleges in the years 1917 and 1927.

A recent study of the five teachers colleges of Missouri made by Clyde M. Hill of Yale University is in harmony with the graph and is doubtless indicative of the situation generally among teachers colleges. Dr. Hill's study compares the years, 1915-1926. The median salary for men increased during these years from \$1800 to \$2979, and for women from \$1400 to \$2088. The median salary increase for both men and women was from \$1650 to \$2340, or forty-two percent. The increase in the median salaries of university professors during the same period of time was fifty percent. However, since the purchasing power of the dollar has been so greatly reduced during the same period of time the actual value of salaries of teachers college professors is virtually unchanged.

Some Deductions and Suggestions

The data secured for this study covers a period of time coincident with the great development of teachers colleges in America. The advance in qualifications of professors in teachers colleges is far greater than the advance of their salaries. There is no depreciation in the value of skilled instruction. Salaries are inadequate and the qualifications of faculty members are not all desired. There is zest in this challenge of the future.

SALARIES OF FACULTIES IN TEACHERS COLLEGES IN 1917 AND IN 1927

SALARIES FACULTY 1917							SALARIES FACULTY 1927							
Schools	0 999	1000 1999	2000 2999	3000 3999	4000 4999	5000 5999	0 999	1000 1999	2000 2999	3000 3999	4000 4999	5000 5999	6000 6999	
Terre Haute.....	2	20	16	19			2	18	43	19	6			
Stevens Point.....	11	34	3		1			2	24	10	8	1		
Hays.....		13	20					3	33	7	2			
Troy.....	2	7	4					14	9	3				
Mankato.....	7	21	6					4	27	7				
Frostburg.....	4	4	2					4	7	2		1		
Kent.....	6	23	12	1			11	27	21					
Conway.....	1	17		1			12	30	1			1		
Buffalo.....	1	21	7	1			1	37	13	4		1		
Johnson City.....		8	10	1			3	14	8					
Durant.....		19					6	31	13					
Brockport.....	12	13					7	12	5	2				
Oswego.....	1	21	3	1				23	7	4	1	1		
Hattiesburg.....	10	10	1				18	14	4	1				
Cedar Falls.....	24	76	19	1			1	29	123	20	2	2		
Normal.....		38	20	3	1	1	9	56	28	3		1		
Albany.....	5	29	11	5	1	1	8	28	10	17	2	1		
Trenton.....							4	28	19	1				
Kalamazoo.....	5	40	12	10			5	113	43	28				
Sam Houston.....		36	3				16	35	13					
Wayne.....		20	14				2	22	11					
Peru.....	1	32	4				2	28	9					
Natchitoches.....		29	9				4	57	19					
San Marcos.....		31	1				19	30	17					
Ypsilanti.....	4	65	9	13			6	121	34	29		2		
Talequah.....							5	14	12			1		
Florence.....	3	12					10	21	2					
Rock Hill.....	29	32	11				40	32	27					
Springfield.....	6	32	9	1			1	17	33	19			1	
Fairmont.....	16	1	1				2	19	9	1	1			
AB.....		33						34	23	14	1			
BC.....	6	38	22	3			18	89	25	34				
Kirksville.....	1	31	8				5	28	18	4	1	1		
Bridgewater.....		22	8		1		10	24	6					
Winona.....	11	26	2				5	8	12	10		1		
Spearfish.....							14	18						
Kutztown.....		22	7	1			10	10	18	1	1			
Clarion.....							7	18	6					
Morehead.....							7	16	5					
Oshkosh.....	5	34	7					19	23	10				
Carbondale.....	14	29	2	1			9	16	34	14	1		1	
Canyon.....	10	14		1	1			17	20	8	1			
Marquette.....	0	17	13				0	9	25	19	11	1		
Alva.....	5	22	1				0	4	23	9		1		
Harrisonburg.....	8	9	1				2	1	21	2				
San Diego.....	1	21	4				4	11	27	1				
Warrensburg.....	0	44	10	1	1		7	44	10	1	1			
Arcata.....	0	9						15	3					
Chadron.....	0	18	1				3	22	11					
Kearney.....	3	30	2				0	33	7					
River Falls.....	6	31	3				1	17	14	8				
Salem, Mass.....	4	22	8	1			7	22	8	0	1			
DeKalb.....	4	30	6	1		1	2	12	39	13	1			
Pittsburg, Kans.....	5	43	11				10	81	15	6				
Emporia.....	10	61	7		1	1	39	55	13	4	1			
Springfield, S. D.....		12	14	1	1		17	4						
Moorhead, Minn.....	8	25	4		1		16	20	4					
Greenville.....		13	6	2			3	22	5	6				
Tempe.....		21	11	2	1		4	27	5	10				
Gunnison.....		8	4				3	17	10					
Bowling Green.....		15	5		1		28	29	15				1	
Madison, S. D.....	5	13	2					18	14					
Mayville, N. D.....	1	11	5		1				20	2	1			
Totals.....	266	1438	374	76	10	4	20	541	1871	808	226	25	7	
Percent.....	12.2	66.3	17.2	3.5	.46	.18	.5	15.4	53.4	22.8	6.4	.7	.2	

How may better financial support be secured? More than a decade ago the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching showed that the social position of the college professor is constantly lowered by the increased cost of living without accompanying increase in salary. Our system of control by political parties is the chief obstacle to proper financial support. Thus far the best way for a political party to remain in power is to favor a reduction of taxes. Since boards of control are in some measure dependent on a political organization it is not always easy for them to do what they know should be done.

In my judgment the best way to secure adequate salaries is to merit them. In the second place teachers colleges need to acquaint the public with the services which they render. A member of the faculty with which I am associated is chairman of the state committee on education. He will attend political meetings over the state and meet members of the coming legislature. He will inform them of educational needs—in no sense for personal gain but for the good of the state. A warning is here presented. For as schoolmen we possess dual personalities. We are both taxpayers and recipients of the taxes paid. We have a right to adequate remuneration but we recognize the sovereignty of the state and the character of our political system. Our ego must include the objective good of all. This is tactful publicity.

The increase in qualifications of faculty members in our normal schools and teachers colleges is one of the most gratifying achievements of education in the past decade. In helping to secure this improvement in instructional ability acknowledgment must be made to our universities. The influence of departments of education in our universities has been especially helpful. An increase in salaries and the sabbatical leave of absence for study have encouraged us. Adherence to the standards set up by the American Association of Teachers Colleges has also been most helpful. How may this improvement of teachers continue?

I desire to suggest several methods which at once become apparent. First, salaries must become more nearly commensurate with the service rendered. Second, internal improvement of the teaching itself should be cultivated, as suggested in an address by President Arnold Bennett Hall before the American Association of State Universities. This internal improvement may be stimulated by self-rating tests as suggested by Dr. Rugg. It develops in regular professional meetings of the faculty. An occasional exchange of faculty members with other institutions is instructive. Faculty participation in policy making, if not in administration, is helpful. Encouragement in the publication of books, dissertations, and magazine articles counts for added qualifications. Controlled experimentation is to be desired. And, lastly we have a great opportunity, as yet unused, in integration of our teachers colleges and the public schools. For after all is said, the public school system is our great laboratory of experimentation.

TWENTY YEARS OF PROGRESS IN THE FINANCIAL SUPPORT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS AND TEACHERS COLLEGES

R. M. BLACK, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL AND INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL
ELLENDALE, N. DAK.

Of the past twenty years the first ten was a decade of steadily increasing national wealth, and a rapid growth in an enterprise as important as the training of teachers was to be expected. For the last decade a number of the years have fallen in hard times and our state legislatures have felt the need of economy. Yet in these times of financial stringency remarkable growth has been made.

Normal schools had become pretty well established by 1907. The people of some states had already seen that teacher-training schools were in need of adequate housing and worthy of financial support. Of 167 public normal schools in 1906 reporting to the Commissioner of Education 152 had an appraised value in buildings, grounds, apparatus and other property of \$31,738,192, or a median valuation of \$208,806 each. Of these one school in Nebraska gave its valuation of this class of property as \$10,000, the smallest appraisal of the wellknown schools; and De Kalb, Ill., Cedar Falls, Iowa, and Bridgewater, Mass., gave appraisals of \$500,000, or more. Of these schools 159 reported a total income of \$5,759,153 or a median of \$36,222 each. Of these Cedar Falls reported \$194,250 as the largest income and Maryville, Mo., with \$5600 had the smallest reported income.

In 1926, the latest date for which complete figures are available, 90 teachers colleges and 87 state normal schools reported to the Commissioner of Education a total property valuation of \$78,705,071, or a median appraised valuation of \$460,263 each. The highest and lowest came from schools in Pennsylvania, where Westchester reports \$2,719,000 and California \$69,250 as their respective appraisals, with the two comparatively new schools of Kent and Bowling Green, Ohio, with a valuation of over two millions dollars each in their plants and equipments. The school that reported a valuation of \$10,000 in 1906 had property worth \$966,000 in 1926. The school reporting \$69,250 in 1906 gave a valuation of \$274,200 in 1926.

The total income reported from 171 institutions for 1926 was \$30,269,783 or a median of \$117,016 each. At this time Cedar Falls reports an income of \$1,144,384, with two schools reporting \$30,000 or less and one as low as \$15,656.

In the twenty years the median valuation had risen from \$208,806 to \$460,263 or an increase of 120 percent, and the income from \$36,222 in 1906 to \$117,016 or an increase of over 300 percent.

This of itself makes a very commendable showing, but it is the last ten years of the period that marks wonderful progress in the advance-

ment and support of teacher-training schools. The greatest decade in education of all time since the Renaissance has shown a rallying to the support of education that has enabled many struggling schools to flower into service worthy of modern times.

We have authentic and up-to-date figures for 1927, from 64 typical schools in 32 states or an average of two schools to each state reporting. Of these 64 schools sixty of them in 1917 had a total income of \$8,291,636 or a median of \$121,500 each, with the highest income for Rock Hill as \$573,293 and the least at Arcata, California, as \$42,295. Ten years after that Arcata is getting \$159,945 and Rock Hill \$923,203. But better yet comes the news that Cedar Falls gets \$1,218,890 and Kent \$1,140,785, while Frostburg, Maryland, which had an income in 1917 of \$30,000 is now enjoying an increase of 150 percent.

In 1917 we had five schools with a valuation of a million dollars or more and a median valuation of a half million. In 1927 there were eight schools who reported a valuation of over \$2,000,000 each and one school not identified in its report gave a valuation of \$3,299,000. Kent gives \$2,750,000 as its valuation and fifteen other schools report \$1,000,000 or more as their valuation. Where there were five schools in 1917 there are twenty-three in 1927 with property in excess of \$1,000,000 to such an amount as to bring the median valuation to a million dollars for the sixty-four schools reporting, and no school was below \$312,000.

Within the ten years twelve schools had increased their property holdings 125 percent, thirteen 150 percent, seven 175 percent, three 200 percent, ten 250 percent, six 300 percent, two 400 percent, one 550 percent, one 700 percent, one 1250 percent, and one 1400 percent.

With this rather remarkable increase in property valuation there has been a good percent of increase in incomes. Seventeen schools show an increase of income in the ten years of 150 percent, fourteen of 200 percent, fourteen of 250 percent, nine of 300 percent, four of 400 percent, one of 500 percent, two of 600 percent, or better, and two of 700 percent.

This shows something of the appreciation of teacher-training institutions, but yet figures to the facts are only what graphs are to real pictures. The figures on incomes present no adequate picture of the service rendered by the schools in return for this income. The wonderful statistics on property valuation conveys only poor and faulty impressions of the beautiful grounds, commodious buildings, and inspiring surroundings that make our teachers colleges and normal schools worthy training places for the teachers of America's children—worthy of a nation which in this more recent Renaissance since the Great War has lifted itself from a nation of sixth graders to a nation of tenth grade education. The progress in financial support that has been made in the last ten years is an earnest for a future support that will place these institutions in the position of leadership merited by the service asked and given. While Mark Hopkins on one end of a log and the boy Garfield on the other might have made

a college in a former generation, the American people are manifesting a willingness to assure the inculcation of highest ideals in their teachers to be passed on to the future citizens of the great republic.

OPPORTUNITIES AND PROBLEMS AHEAD

JOHN W. WITHERS, DEAN, SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY
NEW YORK CITY

The problems of education were never more grave, difficult, or important than they are today. This is true because the problems of American life are more complex and more difficult than they have been hitherto and in the last analysis these problems depend for their solution primarily upon popular education. They must be solved if solved at all by the educated intelligence of the American people.

The last fifty years and particularly the last twenty years has been a period of rapid transitions and new developments. These changes are still going on, many of them with an accelerated pace and there is every prospect that they will continue in the years that are ahead. Among the most important of these changes which affect profoundly the work of education we may note the following:

1. A rapid and continuous transition from rural to urban conditions throughout the United States, from a condition in which the formative and directive influences were chiefly rural to a condition in which such influences are predominantly and increasingly urban.

2. A rapid transition from a condition in which industry was carried on largely by individuals with the use of simple tools, to a condition in which industry is more and more determined by cooperative effort and by machine production.

3. A rapid transition from an economic situation in which the chief economic problem was to prevent a deficit, to a situation in which the chief economic problem is that of dividing a surplus or distributing the accumulating goods of life in accordance with a generally accepted and satisfactory principle of justice.

4. A transition from a period during which the chief emphasis of life was placed upon things material and the exploitation of natural resources to a time in which the chief emphasis must be increasingly placed on things human and spiritual. This change is as yet scarcely above the horizon, but it is coming and should afford in the years ahead one of the greatest opportunities of American education.

5. A transition from a condition of living and a general philosophy of life in which external authority and institutional methods were effective means of social control to a condition in which such means have become increasingly ineffective and in which we must depend for adequate control more and more upon the voluntary choice and behavior of individuals. Social control of individuals which has hitherto been largely externally

imposed must, because of the changing and complicated conditions of life, become increasingly internal and voluntary. No student of American life today can fail to note this change and the great responsibility which it inevitably places upon the agencies of popular education.

6. A transition from a state in which the full exercise of the principle of democracy was confined to the adult male population over twenty-one years of age to a social situation in which the privileges and responsibilities of democracy have been extended not only to adult women, but also to children of adolescent and even preadolescent age to an extent hitherto unknown in the history of the world. We are today considering our children individually and collectively as free agents with a right to self-determination and selfexpression in a manner and to a degree never dreamed of in the days of our fathers. The principle of democracy is being extended in its application, theoretically and practically to include every member of American society, male or female, young or old. In this movement we have one of the most interesting and at the same time one of the most difficult and critically important problems of education. It is in fact, the supreme test of democracy as we conceive it here in America. Whether it succeeds or whether it fails our system of education will be considered largely responsible.

7. A sudden transition from a relatively isolated independent debtor nation to a creditor nation vitally concerned with the stability and economic progress of other nations throughout the world has taken place.

The effect of all of these changes and of others equally important has been in general to accelerate the pace of life, open up its marvelous opportunities, increase its strains, multiply and complicate its problems and render far more numerous the opportunities to go wrong as well as to do right. Our civilization far more than any other confers upon us great benefits but at the same time it imposes exceedingly heavy burdens. To continue and increase its benefits we must provide the necessary means of carrying its growing burdens. If the benefits are to be enjoyed by the rank and file of the people then must the burdens also be borne by the rank and file. There is apparently no limit beyond which the benefits may not go, if the ability, disposition and intelligence needed to carry the burdens can be correspondingly increased.

Such then, briefly and in general, are some of the great problems in whose solution we are all deeply concerned. To those of us who are engaged in education these problems constitute a most interesting and inspiring challenge. If, as I have said, their ultimate solution must be attained primarily through education, it is easy to see that the difficult burden of preparation for such solution must be borne by the elementary and secondary schools of the nation; for in a democracy such as ours no matter how well-trained and efficient the available leaders may be, if they are actually to serve as leaders, they must be chosen for this purpose by an intelligent and discriminating public. If the right choice and continuance

of such leaders is to be had, the rank and file of American citizens must have a much more advanced general education and a much more vital and thorough knowledge of present life and its meaning for the future, than the present or any past generation has had. The young people now in our schools will stand in even greater need than we do of the ability and disposition to think sanely and constructively concerning the issues of life and of citizenship in all their relations both at home and abroad. In addition to adequate knowledge they will need those perspectives, attitudes of mind, ideals of character, and standards of value that are fundamental to the continuation and success of American democracy and that will function intelligently and also, to a large degree, automatically in the affairs of everyday life.

Those qualities of personality that are most fundamental in regulating the customary affairs of life are almost wholly developed in the elementary school and in the early home and neighborhood life of the child. If this statement be true, and I think few will deny it, it follows that the chief concern of American education is and will continue to be the elementary school and it follows just as certainly that the chief problem of the elementary school is and will always be the elementary school teacher and the elementary school principal. The teachers colleges of the United States will therefore be working twenty years from today as they are working today at the most vitally important spot in American education and consequently also in American life.

Therefore these colleges are, and if they remain true to their supreme mission, will continue to be most influential and important agencies in promoting the strength and stability of our country. Unbiased investigation of the problem of public education, taking the United States as a whole, will, I think, make it clear to any candid student that although state teachers colleges have developed out of state normal schools, and will no doubt increasingly and rightly train teachers for service in secondary schools, their chief work is and must continue to be that of producing satisfactory teachers for the elementary schools, and their greatest service must be devoted to the improvement of elementary education. Here they have a mighty problem, the proper solution of which they have only begun. Twenty years from now the teachers colleges of the United States, working in close cooperation with each other and with the school systems and other agencies in their appropriate spheres of influence and service, should have the solution of this problem practically accomplished. I believe they will. But if they do it will be necessary in my judgment that they shall examine very critically present tendencies in their own development, the relation of these tendencies to the progress of education in general, and the educational philosophy that lies back of the present movement; that in the light of the cooperative scientific study of these matters they shall decide upon a more satisfactory and defensible policy for the professional education of teachers, based upon actual needs, present and prospective; that they

shall set up a satisfactory, workable program for the progressive execution of this policy over a period of years; and finally that they shall, through properly organized effort, devote themselves earnestly and energetically to the task of making this program effective.

From the speakers who have preceded me, you have heard the proud and inspiring story of the development of state teachers colleges during the past twenty years—a development resulting among other important things in the adoption of a four year standard program of post-high school, preservice education for elementary teachers, requiring essentially the same conditions for admission and graduation as those imposed by the best four year colleges of arts and sciences, and conferring upon their graduates the same baccalaureate degrees. This is a bold and splendid ideal. But is this standard one that is practically attainable? Teachers colleges are young institutions; and therefore have the fine ambitions appropriate to vigorous youth. May not the picture which they have drawn be too highly colored—the product of a youthful imagination that must be considerably toned down by the more mature experience of the next twenty years? There are lions in the way; it does not require prophetic vision to note that fact. Can these obstacles be met and overcome without losing too much the fine courage and enthusiasm so characteristic of this body at present? I am not at all certain that they can, nor am I fully convinced that the standard as defined and adopted at the Washington meeting should be put into effect without modification. It is quite all right to set a high mark and hit the bull's eye if we can, but face the obstacles we must. This is our big job for the next twenty years. If our policy in setting up this new standard should prove to be essentially impracticable and unsound in the years just ahead, the outcome in its influence on our future leadership in the education of teachers will be very unfortunate. It is highly important, therefore, that as leaders in this movement we should face the facts squarely and not ignore them or minimize their importance.

First, then, it should be noted that the great majority of the school children of the United States are still found in rural communities. The census of 1920 showed that although 48 percent of the adult population between the ages of 21 and 45 were living in the cities having a population of 5000 or more, these cities contained only one third of the children of school age, therefore two thirds of the school children of America were living at that time under rural conditions, since communities of less than 5000 must be considered essentially rural in their general character and influence. Although there were but $33\frac{1}{3}$ percent of all school children living in cities, this group furnished 35 percent of the total school enrolment, 38 percent of the actual daily school attendance, and approximately 45 percent of the total attendance. In the education of this group the United States spent in 1920, 51 percent of all salaries paid to public school teachers and more than 80 percent of all expenditures on school buildings, grounds, apparatus, and material equipment and for the administration and

supervision of schools. By combining the amount spent for all purposes on elementary and secondary education we find that two thirds of all expenditures were devoted to the education of the one third of the children who were attending school in cities and one third of all expenditures were devoted to the education of the two thirds who were attending school in the country. In other words, for every dollar of public money spent on the education of the rural school child four dollars were spent on the education of the city child. This practice is not only unfair but it is also unwise from every point of view. The problem of the proper education of the country child is just as much a vital concern of cities as it is of rural communities. This is true even from a selfish point of view. Fifteen years from today every child over six years of age now enroled in the public schools who will be living at that time will belong to the adult population group between the ages of 21 and 45. If the same forces and influences that have been in operation during the past fifteen years continue to operate with equal effectiveness during the next fifteen, the cities of 5000 population or more will contain not 48 percent of the total population between the ages of 21 and 45 but approximately 60 percent. If all the children who are now attending schools in cities and who will be living at that time were to spend the remainder of their lives in cities they would constitute but 25 percent out of this 60 percent. A relatively small fraction of the remaining 35 percent will be supplied by immigration; a somewhat larger fraction will be made up of persons who are already members of this group and will continue to be at that time. But when these two sources are fully accounted for we may confidently expect that at least 25 percent of the total group will be made up of those who are now enroled in the rural schools. That is to say that every child who will be a member of the city population group between the ages of 21 and 45 at that time now attending a city school will be matched by another member of the group who is now attending school in the country.

If for reasons already stated the serious problems of American life fifteen or twenty years from today will very certainly be urban in character, and if the formative and directive influences determining the course of events in our national life at that time will be city influences, it is evident, for the sake of the cities as well as for the country districts and for the nation as a whole, much greater and more active interest must be taken in the extension and improvement of rural education. This problem should be effectively solved during the next twenty years. Entire responsibility for its solution does not of course belong entirely to teacher-training institutions, but it is quite obvious that toward its solution state teachers colleges should make a very fundamental and necessary contribution. The situation affords a magnificent opportunity for distinguished service to education which I am sure will receive proper attention from this organization. It will not do to look upon rural education as an insoluble problem as some in the past have been inclined to do. We must adopt the philosophy

of Henry Ford and say that the job must be done with the least possible delay.

If the new standard for the professional education of elementary teachers is desirable for the children of the city it is equally desirable for rural children. If it is to be maintained for the one group it must somehow be maintained for the other group also.

This introduces the second great problem to which I would call your attention. In our splendid enthusiasm over the recent formal adoption by this body of this new standard for the education of elementary teachers we dare not blink the fact that we are at present a long, long way from the actual attainment of this new standard. The long distance from where we are to where we have decided to go must be accurately measured and the difficulties on the way to the goal must be carefully and intelligently studied.

Out of more than 700,000 teachers in the public schools of the United States there are not 5000 classroom teachers regularly employed in the elementary schools today who have had four years of post high-school professional education prior to their appointment and not more than 8000 such teachers who hold a baccalaureate degree obtained as a result of preservice and inservice training combined. Twenty-five thousand of our elementary teachers instructing the children of 3,000,000 American people have had no formal education beyond what they received in the eight grades of the elementary school. Three hundred fifty thousand teachers have not had more than a good high-school education and more than 200,000 have not had an average of more than the standard training hitherto accepted, of two years beyond a good high-school course. Furthermore, approximately 100,000 teachers are quitting the service each year.

In view of this situation we shall need to answer four important questions if the new standard of teacher training is actually to be reached. What will it cost? What equipment will it require? How long will it take and will the public be willing to pay the bills, not only for the increased cost of the professional education of teachers, but also for the larger salaries that must be paid in order to retain in the service of the elementary schools a staff of teachers who have had the requisite training?

Figured on the most conservative basis it would cost \$500,000,000 distributed over a period of eight years if the schools were to be closed tomorrow and the present staff of teachers were placed in training long enough to bring all of them up to the new standard. At the rate at which teachers are at present withdrawing from the service it will also require \$80,000,000 to give a sufficient number of high-school graduates the requisite amount of training.

It will require an additional sum of \$10,000,000 annually to educate a sufficient number of high-school graduates to fill the new positions required on account of the normal increase in school attendance. With conditions most favorable, with an equipment that is adequate and with the people willing to pay what it costs it will take at least 25 years with

an annual expenditure throughout the period of approximately \$140,000,000 for instruction alone to place and keep in every classroom in the public schools of the United States a teacher who, in addition to a good high-school course, has had four years of preservice education.

In 1913-14 the total amount spent on the public normal schools and teachers colleges of the United States was \$15,283,037. In 1923-4, ten years later, this had increased to \$42,257,527. At present the annual expenditure is approximately \$50,000,000. This is a gratifying increase but it is obviously a long way from the amount required.

Is it possible, considering these facts alone to put the new standard into actual operation in the next twenty years? It is possible, of course. But is it probable and if probable is it desirable that we should aim directly and continuously at four years of preservice training for all elementary teachers? From the standpoint of financial support and material equipment alone this problem calls for serious study. An unwise handling of it at this time would be very unfortunate. In 1890 the United States spent a total \$140,506,000 on public elementary and secondary education; today we are spending annually more than \$2,000,000,000, an increase of 1428 percent. It would require the entire wealth of Germany or nearly twice the wealth of Canada or Japan invested permanently so as to yield a net income of 5 percent annually to maintain the public school system of the United States at the present rate of expenditure. Reactionary tendencies against further increases in the cost of public education are becoming increasingly evident in various parts of the United States and it is important to consider carefully how much further it is wise to go each year if the improvement of popular education is to be continuous and permanent.

The solution of this problem cannot be determined wholly or even very largely by decisions reached in conventions of this kind. The extent to which the people will go in promoting professional education of any type is determined fundamentally by two conditions; first by the value they place upon such education—its relative worth among the other interests of life, and secondly, by their ability and willingness to pay what it costs. These conditions vary widely from community to community and from state to state. The first may be influenced by the extent to which we as educators can honestly and convincingly demonstrate to the public the value of our product; the second is beyond our control. If our national prosperity and increasing wealth should continue for the next twenty years at its present high level the outlook for the four year standard is a hopeful one. That this condition will prevail, however, no one can predict.

The situation calls for careful study of the following problems, among others, in which it is highly important that this association should take the lead.

A study to determine the optimum relations of preservice to inservice education in setting up and maintaining four year curriculums for elemen-

tary teachers; would it not be wiser under present conditions to set up for elementary teachers a four year objective but at the same time provide that one or even two of these years may be taken while the teacher is in service? Would it not also be better to refrain from pushing too rapidly the standardization of teachers colleges in a nation-wide movement without proper regard to local conditions, thus insisting upon the four year standard as the necessary badge of professional respectability among these institutions? Would it not be better as a national policy to carry the preservice education of elementary teachers as far toward the four year course as the conditions in the local community or sphere of service make it wise to go, and then set up as a requirement for permanent certification for promotion or for increase of salary a satisfactory amount of inservice education to complete the course? There is much to be said in favor of this combination. The cost of preservice education will in general be less; a higher standard of student admissions can be maintained and a better body of students secured; professional training while in service can be more varied, better adapted to the needs, and more effectively directed; teachers can be more successfully guided in finding the fields of service in which they will be happiest and most effectual; better cooperation between the teachers college faculty and the field force of supervisors, principals, and superintendents can be secured to the great advantage of both; more intimate and mutually advantageous relations between the teachers college and the high schools from which it draws its students can be established; the danger of drawing teachers away from rather than into a vital interest in elementary education can be avoided; and finally the professional education of teachers while in service can be carried on in such intimate touch with the actual problems of teaching that their interest in the profession and their scientific attitude toward it can be deepened and intensified. The complaint at present is almost universal that those who have taken four years of preservice professional education and won a baccalaureate degree desire to enter upon secondary rather than elementary teaching.

Again we shall be concerned with securing an increased enrolment of better selected students in our teacher-training colleges, the determination of the extent to which such increase is actually required and the best ways and means of securing students of superior quality.

Closely allied to this is the problem of discovering and applying the most effective means of increasing the average tenure or length of service of teachers in the public schools, thus reducing the cost of educating so many new teachers each year and at the same time increasing the efficiency and improving the morale of those who remain. The preservice education of teachers can be extended in this way without increasing the total cost.

Again it is pertinent to inquire to what extent it is possible and desirable that students who are preparing to teach should share with the state the cost of their professional education. This is a problem to which little attention has thus far been given. It has generally been taken for granted that those who are preparing to teach in the elementary schools

should be educated at the expense of the state, but those who wish to teach in secondary schools should in general themselves pay the cost of their professional education. If the movement for equal salaries for elementary and high-school teachers eventually prevails, this discrimination cannot be justified, especially if more extensive preparation of secondary than of elementary teachers continues to be required.

The problem of securing increased facilities and improved equipment for the professional education of teachers will doubtless continue to trouble us. There are few state teachers colleges in the United States that are equipped with adequate facilities under their immediate control to meet the increasing demands that are being made upon them. Dormitories, libraries, classrooms, laboratories, office accommodations, facilities for observation and practice teaching and for the scientific study of education in general and of teaching in particular are almost universally inadequate and unsatisfactory. At the same time the great laboratories to be found in the public school systems themselves lying near at hand and affording opportunity for the direct and stimulating study of education in all its phases must be made more accessible and be more extensively used for the pre-service as well as the inservice training of teachers. This problem must be cooperatively solved by the teachers college faculties and the field forces of the school systems which they serve.

The securing of better educated, more experienced, and otherwise better equipped facilities to meet the new and increased requirements that are being imposed upon teachers colleges and schools of education is a matter of the greatest importance. It is not meant to discount the preparation of present faculties for the work which they have hitherto attempted. But whatever may be our judgment of past achievements or present efficiency the most superficial student cannot fail to see that the present outstanding opportunities for leadership and expert service require much more thorough and extensive scholarship and professional and technical ability in the faculties of these institutions than have hitherto been demanded. The scholarship required though of a different sort must be even more thorough than that which is regarded as satisfactory in the best colleges devoted to cultural education.

Moreover the next twenty years must somehow bring about better articulation of teachers colleges with other agencies of education within their appropriate spheres of influence and especially with the schools and systems from which their students are drawn and with those in which their graduates are employed. It is difficult to say what plan of organization we shall ultimately adopt, where elementary education will leave off and secondary education begin; whether secondary education will be extended to include the present freshman and sophomore year of college education, what will be done with the junior college movement; to what extent schools and colleges on private foundations should be utilized for the education of teachers. These and a host of similar questions will certainly confront us during the next twenty years.

*REPORT OF BOARD OF DIRECTORS OF AMERICAN
COUNCIL FOR SOCIAL STUDIES*

H. B. WILLIAMS, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, BOWLING GREEN, OHIO

Some years ago at the request of the National Council for the Social Studies, this Association created the office of director for the social studies. Similar action was taken by a number of other societies with the result that a considerable number of the governing board of the Council has been chosen from persons outside of the Council. The plan has proved unwieldy and inefficient, and it is now proposed to change the organization so that the board will be composed of members only. The president of the Council, J. Montgomery Gambrill, of Teachers College, Columbia University, last December sent a letter to the officers, expresidents, and a few others who have been most interested and active in the work of the organization, requesting suggestions regarding the future policy of the Council, desirable changes in management, financial support, and the best time for holding the annual business meeting.

In a conference with the president he stated that the replies thus far received to his inquiry indicate a general feeling of the need of reorganization and that the major efforts of the society in the future should be to stimulate publication and research.

In view of the movement to reorganize the official staff of the Council, it seemed that this might raise a question about the desirability of continuing the practice on the part of this Association of selecting a director from its members. When this matter was mentioned to Dr. Gambrill he advised that the office be continued and if the Council should take action next July uniting membership in its directorate to members of the Council that the representatives from other cooperating bodies, such as this Association, would constitute an advisory board.

Announcement has been made that library and "laboratory" equipment for junior and senior high schools is to be one of the special projects of the Council in the near future. This will be another illustration of the valuable service of the Council to the teacher-training institutions of America, and will place this Association under renewed obligation for the valuable contributions which the Council has made toward the improvement in the teaching of the social studies in all types of schools.

*MINUTES OF THE MEETING OF THE EXECUTIVE
COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN COUNCIL
ON EDUCATION*

JANUARY 14, 1928

A regular quarterly meeting of the Executive Committee of the American Council of Education was held in Atlantic City, N. J., Saturday morning, January 14, 1928, at eleven o'clock. Those present were Walter Dill Scott, Chairman, Lois Hayden Meek (proxy for Dean Gildersleeve),

and Messrs. C. S. Boucher (proxy for Judd), Capen, Dietz, Harris, Mann, Robertson (proxy for Lewis), and Shankland.

1. The minutes of the meeting of September 24, 1927, were read and approved.

2. (a) The director reported one new institutional member, namely, Holy Cross College, Worcester, Mass.

(b) The balance on the Council's account as of December 31, 1927, was \$8523.98.

(c) The reorganization of international relations, as approved by the Executive Committee at its last meeting, has been completed. The American University Union in Europe is now operated by the Institute of International Education. A full statement explaining the reorganization is included in the January number of the *Educational Record*.

(d) The assistant director reported that the *Handbook of American Universities and Colleges* is in press and will be published about February 1st.

(e) The assistant director reported that the work of the Personnel Committee is proceeding well. Tentative forms for experiments with personal records, achievement tests, rating scales, and vocational monographs will be ready for use before the close of the current academic year.

3. It was reported that the Committee on Enlistment and Training of College Teachers, appointed at the last meeting, has held one meeting. A preliminary cooperative experiment in defining the objectives of the college teacher was approved. On motion duly seconded,

It was voted, that Professor Hardin Craig of the University of Iowa, representing the American Association of University Professors, be added to this committee.

4. The question of offering the psychological examination for college freshmen to secondary schools for use with their senior class was raised. The examination this year requires only one hour and shows a higher diagnostic value than previous tests. It was the sense of the committee that an early trial of these tests is desirable and that the matter should now be taken up with secondary school authorities with a view to using the test this spring in the secondary schools.

5. It was reported that several deans of engineering and deans of liberal arts colleges had suggested that they would like to receive the *Educational Record* regularly. On motion duly seconded,

It was voted, that the *Educational Record* be sent without charge to deans of engineering and deans of liberal arts colleges of all institutional members of the Council, provided such deans indicated their desire to receive it.

6. A list of national associations that might be invited to take constituent membership in the Council was presented. On motion duly seconded,

It was voted, that the Council extend an invitation to constituent membership to the American Association of Dental Schools and that the director be instructed to secure further information about the other associations.

7. It was reported that the Council had been able to raise only \$5800 of the \$10,000 required to meet the conditions of Mr. Rockefeller, Jr.'s, pledge for the support of cooperation with industry. The case had been presented to Mr. Rockefeller and he had made a pro rata payment on the pledge and extended the time for meeting it to December 31, 1928.

8. Several members of the Executive Committee have been asked if they would be willing to serve on a commission of twenty to visit Russia during the coming summer on invitation of the Soviet Government. The question was discussed at length and it was the sense of the meeting that any member of the Committee might with propriety accept such an invitation with the understanding that his participation in the enterprise in no wise officially involved the Council.

9. An invitation was presented from the University of Porto Rico to send a delegate to the twenty-fifth Anniversary in March. On motion duly seconded,

It was voted, that the director be authorized to appoint a delegate to represent the Council at the twenty-fifth anniversary of the University of Porto Rico.

10. The program for the annual meeting, May 4-5, 1928, in Washington, was discussed, but no action was taken.

11. The next meeting of the Executive Committee was set for March 16, 1928, in Chicago.

12. The meeting adjourned at one o'clock.

Respectfully submitted,

S. D. SHANKLAND, *Secretary*,
(Signed) E. L. Hendricks.

Membership List—1927

Alabama		
Florence.....	State Normal School.....	Henry J. Willingham
Livingston.....	State Normal School.....	G. W. Brock
Troy.....	State Normal School.....	E. M. Shackelford
Arizona		
Flagstaff.....	Northern Arizona Teachers College.....	Grady Gammage
Tempe.....	Tempe State Teachers College.....	A. J. Matthews
Arkansas		
Conway.....	Arkansas State Teachers College.....	E. W. Torreyson
California		
Arcata.....	Humboldt State Teachers College.....	Ralph W. Sweetman
San Diego.....	State Teachers College.....	E. L. Hardy
San Francisco.....	State Teachers College.....	C. C. Roberts
San Jose.....	State Teachers College.....	T. W. MacQuarrie
Santa Barbara.....	State Teachers College.....	C. L. Phelps
Colorado		
Greeley.....	Colorado State Teachers College.....	C. W. Frasier
Gunnison.....	Western State College of Colorado.....	R. Aspinall
Connecticut		
New Britain.....	State Normal School.....	Marcus White
New Haven.....	State Normal School.....	J. L. Meader
Willimantic.....	State Normal School.....	George Shafer
Georgia		
Athens.....	State Normal School.....	J. M. Pound
Milledgeville.....	Georgia State College for Women.....	J. L. Beeson, acting president
Valdosta.....	Georgia State Women's College.....	R. H. Powell
Hawaii		
Honolulu.....	Territorial Normal and Training School.....	B. O. Wist
Idaho		
Lewiston.....	State Normal School.....	J. E. Turner
Illinois		
Carbondale.....	Southern Illinois State Normal University.....	H. W. Shryock
Charleston.....	Eastern Illinois State Teachers College.....	L. C. Lord
Chicago.....	College of Education, University of Chicago.....	W. S. Gray
De Kalb.....	Northern Illinois State Teachers College.....	J. S. Brown
Macomb.....	Western Illinois State Teachers College.....	W. P. Morgan
Normal.....	Illinois State Normal University.....	David Felmley
Indiana		
Muncie.....	The Ball Teachers College.....	B. J. Burris
Terre Haute.....	Indiana State Normal School.....	L. N. Hines
Iowa		
Cedar Falls.....	State Teachers College.....	H. H. Seerley
Kansas		
Emporia.....	Kansas State Teachers College.....	T. W. Butcher
Hays.....	Kansas State Teachers College.....	W. A. Lewis
Pittsburg.....	Kansas State Teachers College.....	W. A. Brandenburg
Kentucky		
Bowling Green.....	West Kentucky State Teachers College and Normal School.....	H. H. Cherry
Louisville.....	Louisville Normal School.....	Elizabeth Breckenridge
Morehead.....	Kentucky State Normal School.....	F. C. Button
Murray.....	State Normal School.....	Rainey T. Wells
Richmond.....	East Kentucky State Normal School and Teachers College.....	T. J. Coates
Louisiana		
Natchitoches.....	Louisiana State Normal College.....	V. L. Roy
Maine		
Farmington.....	State Normal School.....	W. G. Mallett
Gorham.....	State Normal School.....	W. E. Russell
Maryland		
Frostburg.....	State Normal School.....	J. L. Dunkle
Towson.....	Maryland State Normal School.....	Lida Lee Tall
Massachusetts		
Boston.....	Teachers College of the City of Boston.....	W. C. Boyden
Bridgewater.....	State Normal School.....	Arthur Boyden
Framingham.....	State Normal School.....	James Chalmers
Salem.....	State Normal School.....	J. A. Pitman

Michigan

Kalamazoo.....	Western State Normal School.....	D. B. Waldo
Marquette.....	Northern State Normal School.....	J. M. Munson
Mt. Pleasant.....	Central Michigan Normal School.....	E. C. Warriner
Ypsilanti.....	Michigan State Normal College.....	Charles McKenny

Minnesota

Bemidji.....	Bemidji Teachers College.....	M. W. Deputy
Duluth.....	State Teachers College.....	E. W. Bohannon
Mankato.....	State Teachers College.....	C. H. Cooper
Moorhead.....	State Teachers College.....	R. B. MacLean
St. Cloud.....	State Teachers College.....	G. A. Selke
Winona.....	State Teachers College.....	G. E. Maxwell

Mississippi

Hattiesburg.....	State Teachers College.....	Joe Cook
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Missouri

Cape Girardeau.....	Southeast Missouri State Teachers College.....	J. A. Serena
Kansas City.....	Teachers College, Kansas City.....	G. W. Diemer
Kirkville.....	Northeast Missouri State Teachers College.....	Eugene Fair John Kirk, President Emeritus
Maryville.....	Northwest Missouri State Teachers College.....	Uel Lamkin
St. Louis.....	Harris Teachers College.....	J. L. Purdom
Springfield.....	Southwest Missouri State Teachers College.....	Roy Ellis
Warrensburg.....	Central Missouri State Teachers College.....	E. L. Hendricks

Nebraska

Chadron.....	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College.....	R. Elliott
Kearney.....	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College.....	George Martin
Peru.....	Nebraska State Normal School and Teachers College.....	W. R. Pate
Wayne.....	Nebraska State Normal School Teachers College.....	U. S. Conn

New Hampshire

Keene.....	State Normal School.....	Wallace Mason
Plymouth.....	State Normal School.....	Ernest Silver

New Jersey

Trenton.....	State Normal School.....	D. C. Blise
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New Mexico

East Las Vegas.....	New Mexico Normal University.....	Frank Carroon
Silver City.....	New Mexico State Teachers College.....	A. O. Bowden

New York

Albany.....	State College for Teachers.....	A. R. Brubacher
Brockport.....	State Normal School.....	A. C. Thompson
Buffalo.....	State Normal School.....	H. W. Rockwell
New Paltz.....	State Normal School.....	L. van der Berg
New York City.....	Teachers College of Columbia University.....	J. E. Russell
Oswego.....	State Normal and Training School.....	J. G. Riggs

North Carolina

Boone.....	Appalachian State Normal School.....	B. B. Daugherty
Greenville.....	East Carolina Teachers College.....	R. H. Wright

North Dakota

Dickinson.....	State Normal School.....	S. T. May
Ellendale.....	State Normal and Industrial School.....	R. M. Black
Mayville.....	State Normal School.....	C. C. Swain
Valley City.....	State Teachers College.....	C. E. Allen
Minot.....	State Teachers College.....	George McFarland

Ohio

Akron.....	University of Akron Teachers College.....	W. J. Banks
Athens.....	College of Education, Ohio University.....	Thomas McCracken
Bowling Green.....	State Normal College.....	H. B. Williams
Cincinnati.....	College of Education, University of Cincinnati.....	L. A. Pechstein
Cleveland.....	Junior Teachers College of Cleveland, School of Education.....	Charles W. Hunt
	Senior Teachers College of Cleveland, School of Education.....	H. Irwin
Kent.....	State Normal College.....	David Allen Anderson
Oxford.....	Teachers College of Miami University.....	H. C. Minnich

Oklahoma

Ada.....	East Central State Teachers College.....	A. Linscheid
Alva.....	Northwestern State Teachers College.....	J. P. Battenberg
Durant.....	Southeastern State Teachers College.....	H. G. Bennett
Edmond.....	Central State Teachers College.....	John Mitchell
Tahlequah.....	Northeastern State Teachers College.....	M. P. Hammond
Weatherford.....	Southwestern State Teachers College.....	J. W. Turner

Oregon

Monmouth.....Oregon Normal School.....J. S. Landers

Pennsylvania

Bloomsburg.....Bloomsburg State Normal School.....F. B. Haas
 Clarion.....Clarion State Normal School.....R. M. Steele
 E. Stroudsburg.....East Stroudsburg State Normal School.....T. T. Allen
 Kutztown.....Keystone State Normal School.....A. C. Rothermel
 Indiana.....State Normal School.....C. R. Foster
 Slippery Rock.....Slippery Rock State Normal School.....E. L. Eisenberg

Rhode Island

Providence.....Rhode Island College of Education.....J. L. Alger

South Carolina

Rock Hill.....Winthrop College.....D. B. Johnson

South Dakota

Aberdeen.....Northern Normal and Industrial School.....A. H. Seymour
 Madison.....Eastern State Normal School.....E. C. Higbie
 Spearfish.....Spearfish Normal School.....E. C. Woodburn
 Springfield.....Southern State Normal School.....C. G. Lawrence

Tennessee

Johnson City.....East Tennessee State Teachers College.....Charles C. Sherrod
 Nashville.....George Peabody College for Teachers.....Bruce Payne

Texas

Alpine.....Sul Ross State Teachers College.....H. W. Morelock
 Canyon.....West Texas State Teachers College.....C. A. Hill
 Commerce.....East Texas State Teachers College.....S. H. Whitley
 Denton.....North Texas State Teachers College.....R. L. Marquis
 Huntsville.....Sam Houston State Teachers College.....H. F. Estill
 Nacogdoches.....Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College.....A. W. Birdwell
 San Marcos.....Southwest Texas State Teachers College.....C. E. Evans

Utah

Salt Lake City.....School of Education in University of Utah.....Milton Bannion

Virginia

East Radford.....State Teachers College.....J. P. McConnell
 Farmville.....State Teachers College.....J. L. Jarman
 Fredericksburg.....State Teachers College.....A. B. Chandler
 Harrisonburg.....State Teachers College.....Samuel Duke

Washington

Bellingham.....Washington State Normal School.....C. H. Fisher
 Cheney.....Washington State Normal School.....Richard G. Hargreaves
 Ellensburg.....Washington State Normal School.....G. H. Black

West Virginia

Athens.....Concord State Normal School.....George West Diehl
 Fairmont.....State Normal School.....Joseph Rosier
 Huntington.....Marshall College.....M. P. Shawkey
 Shepherdstown.....Shepherd College State Normal School.....W. H. S. White
 West Liberty.....West Liberty State Normal School.....J. S. Bonar

Wisconsin

Eau Claire.....State Normal School.....H. A. Schofield
 La Crosse.....State Normal School.....G. M. Snodgrass
 Menomonie.....Stout Institute.....Burton E. Nelson
 Oshkosh.....State Normal School.....H. A. Brown
 River Falls.....State Normal School.....J. H. Ames
 Stevens Point.....State Normal School.....Robert D. Baldwin
 Whitewater.....State Normal School.....F. S. Hyer

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 1928-29 are: *President*, Mrs. Anna V. Dorris, Director of Visual Instruction, State Teachers College, San Francisco, Calif.; *Vicepresident*, W. M. Gregory, Director of Educational Museum, Cleveland School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio; *Secretary-Treasurer*, Elda L. Merton, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Waukesha, Wis.; *Executive Committee*, C. G. Rathmann, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo.; John A. Hollinger, Director, Department of Nature and Visualization, Public Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.; W. W. Whittinghill, Supervisor of Visual Instruction, Public Schools, Detroit, Mich. This Department meets once each year, in July. 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	1925:864-871	1927:951-970
1924:963-985	1926:947-963	

THE USE OF THE PHOTOPLAY IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

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The Photoplay and the Course of Study

THE first question which confronts the would-be user of these photoplays is: "To what extent do they fit my course of study?" "Are they merely so much supplementary material or are they entitled to the same consideration, for example, as are the pages of a textbook?" Naturally the more foreign they appear to the existing course of study, the more unwilling are administrator and teacher to accord them a place. Any innovation in the schoolroom meets the same objection: "It is fine but there is no place for it in our course of study." Are these photoplays, then, so foreign to existing courses of study in history, so outside the limits which they prescribe as to present serious obstacles to their use?

There will be 33 of them when the series is complete. It is assumed that these 33 represent the "high spots," the important phases in the history of this country from its discovery through the Civil War. In a school year of 40 weeks, making due allowance for the period not covered by the photoplays which have been released or are in process of preparation, i. e. from about 1870 to the present, this is little better than an average of one photoplay per week. When we take into account the fact that American history may not be taught on each of the five school days available this seems like an excessive number of historical motion pictures. It might seem to reduce the whole presentation to a series of screen representations. Perhaps this is as it should be in some courses of study and the photoplays should serve as so many foci literally plotting the course from its beginning to its end. On the other hand, courses differ in emphasis and in the time allotment to particular episodes or to particular aspects of the history.

Let us take the photoplay, *The Puritans*, as an illustration. This is one of five photoplays planned for the colonial period. Four of these are now available, *Jamestown*, *The Pilgrims*, *The Puritans*, and *Peter Stuyvesant*. *The Puritans* covers approximately ten years of their history, setting forth their story from the time when they planted their first colony at Salem until the Short Parliament met to bring to a close the personal rule of Charles I. Its theme and content, however, strike the keynote, not simply of colonial development in a single colony, Massachusetts, but of an entire section, suggesting the conditions which spread Puritanism over all New England, to say nothing of its attempt to reduce to more or less concrete terms the outstanding interests of this dominating element.

In the elementary school—It is generally agreed that the course of study in the elementary grades calls for emphasis upon the story element, upon strange modes of life and unfamiliar surroundings. The story of the Puritans, linking up as closely as it does the interests of church and state, may

need simplification. Possibly the main theme—the struggle against foes within and without—should be ignored as too difficult for children of this grade. They can follow some of the minor threads, such as the story of the sufferings and hardship encountered, the presence of unwelcome neighbors, the jealousy of rival colonizers as embodied in Gorges, and the friendship of Winthrop and Roger Williams and the expulsion of the latter. The material offers no greater difficulties under the guiding hand of a teacher who appreciates the limitations of her group than the ordinary textbook.

She probably will be more interested in familiarizing her pupils with Puritan ways as shown in dress, habits of life, house furnishings, and surroundings. The church, the gathering place or meeting house, the great house, the minister, the rude shack, grinding corn and spinning flax, the trading operations of these New Englanders, are among the topics covered by the photoplay. If it seems pertinent to present the Puritan at this level, this kind of material cannot be ignored.

In the junior high school—But how is it in the junior high school grades, where the emphasis is transferred to shifting scenes and dramatic movements, where action is the key to the presentation? The time allotment for the study of such a photoplay is naturally reduced, as in all probability the two elements in New England, Pilgrim and Puritan, must needs be more closely related. Together they form part of what becomes in time a great Exodus. A whole section is peopled with one of the best elements in English society of that or of any other time—an element accustomed to the good things of life and composed of men of affairs who preferred the hardships of life in a new land to what they considered the flesh pots of Egypt.

In the senior high school—The time devoted to colonial history in the senior high school has been considerably curtailed as the result of a shifting of emphasis to more recent history. A photoplay such as *The Puritans* could claim a place here only as it stimulated that critical attitude toward history which should begin to form one of the objectives of the instruction. With this would undoubtedly be combined a greater appreciation of the essential unity of American and European development and a sense of our indebtedness to them and they to us. A photoplay of this character, presenting in such contrast European and American conditions, should contribute to this end. That perplexing question of church and state is embodied here in such a form as to give it real significance. That essentially human trait which tends to make a man mix his politics or his business with his religion is also set forth in concrete fashion.

Conclusion—In short, without proceeding further into the domain of college instruction, the selection of the photoplay as material to be incorporated in the course taught is conditioned primarily by two considerations, the general theme or topic involved, and the content embodied in the picture itself. The present photoplay like so many others represents a theme or aspect of history which cannot be ignored. From the stand-

point of actual organization and material it supplies enough pertinent data to make it a valuable source of information and discussion at all these levels, if that part of its content be utilized which corresponds with the objectives sought by the teacher. At the same time the essential unity of the subject is preserved, enabling the pupil to see what he sees in its proper relation to a larger whole even though that whole may not be altogether understood or appreciated.

The Photoplay and the Textbook

Another real difficulty or problem is presented by the place of the textbook in our scheme of instruction. "The American method" is the designation given by our friends across the water to all textbook teaching in history, so dependent are we upon it. Where the textbook is accorded so prominent a place, it is not easy to make room for other material, no matter what its form or nature. A movement, however, has been slowly growing within recent years to displace some of this textual instruction for what has been called an "activities" program. While the pendulum may have swung too far in the other direction, it has encouraged the introduction of a mass of new material. In spite of this, all instruction is measured primarily in terms of the printed text and this makes it difficult to fix the place of the photoplay.

In the photoplay, *The Puritans*, bits of history are narrated that have never found their way into our textbooks. An illustration of this is the story of Thomas Morton and Merrymount. Again, details appear here as to dress, environment and action that are denied a place in the textbook because of the very limitations of space imposed upon the author. They appear here in an organization which lends itself more readily to economy of presentation. The textbook tends to abound in conclusions and generalizations. These take on another form in the photoplay just because it is material of a different form and structure.

A wellknown junior high-school text, after stating briefly that the Puritans wished to remain in the Church of England and purify it, states the fact of the resulting enmity of King Charles and their migration under John Winthrop. They are described as men of wealth and influence and are pictured coming over a thousand at a time, well provided with this world's goods. The names of the settlements follow and certain facts as to the place of the church in the political life of the community. The only story element in the narrative is the tale of Roger Williams' opposition and his consequent banishment. The essentially human aspects are wanting except as the teacher or child supplies them by transforming these ideas into personalities and dramatic action in an appropriate setting.

One of the principal tasks of the textbook and teacher is to organize the information so that its significant relationships are apparent. The author strives for this but often the best he can do is to set forth the facts in a logical sequence. The photoplay is still another way of accomplishing

this. By change of scene and juxtaposition of events, by its power to direct the attention along a definite route, it becomes a powerful aid in securing appreciation of what is involved in historical study. In this photoplay, for example, you are impressed by the contrast between Charlestown and Boston as a favorable place of settlement. You readily sense the added danger which threatened the new colony with the arrest and banishment of Morton. It is a matter of grave concern that the activities of Archbishop Laud in England coincide with the ambitions of Sir Ferdinando Gorges to rule New England. Young Sir Harry Vane's arrival takes on added significance following as it does so closely on the heels of the demand for the recall of the charter and the need for influential friends in England. And so it goes.

A line or two in the textbook, as, for example, those embodying the danger which threatened them in the loss of the charter, is translated into a series of happenings which not only make the danger real, but impel the spectator to share the feelings and emotions of those actually threatened. The combination of the dramatic and the strictly visual punctuates, as it were, the high points in the story and facilitates a ready carry-over from one happening to another.

The personalities are so impressed upon the spectator that he becomes constantly critical of their every act. If not actually critical, the emotions are challenged in such a way as to lead to a kind of appraisal of their acts.

The Photoplay and the Teacher

There is still another major consideration associated with the use of these photoplays. Perhaps it is the most important of all, although closely related to those already mentioned. The key to the successful presentation of this or of any other historical material is the teacher. Her realm is the classroom and it is to this which we would now direct our attention. Periods of 40-60 minutes are at her disposal in the junior and senior high school, 20-30 minutes in the elementary grades. How shall the photoplay be related to these? What kind of a class session or recitation do they involve?

The photoplay must be handled as an integral part of the instructional unit if it is to accomplish the most. The progress within recent years toward project or problem teaching, involving as this does the recognition of well defined units of instruction, makes it easier to harmonize such a photoplay as *The Puritans* with the regular classroom procedure. The question to be answered is: "What is my specific objective in this unit, and how far does the photoplay lend itself thereto?"

If interesting the class is the first consideration, then it may serve to motivate whatever textual or other material is used, the projection preceding or following this as the case may be. If it tells the story better or in a sufficiently different manner to make for reality or definiteness, then it should be given a prominent place along side the text or other material. If it

furnishes the necessary data for real problem work, then it should be drawn upon and analyzed with the same care as the printed page.

If the work of the classroom is essentially that of reconstructing the past, however narrow or restricted the field under consideration, then *The Puritans* furnishes a model or a sample of such reconstruction on the external side and serves as an effective check on the individual labors of teacher or class. This type of recitation in which every faculty is called into play and where imagination is wisely capitalized finds in the photoplay the data and the organization which are needed to assist teacher and pupil to attain real progress. Old England is transferred to "New" England through such living personalities as Winthrop, Cotton, Saltonstall, Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, and their unknown comrades. All of these reflect Puritanism with its hopes and aspirations as transplanted to a new soil. The charter—a mere name heretofore—as it is actually unrolled for consultation or as it is carefully taken from the huge chest in its curiously shaped case, becomes a reality and arouses some of the same thoughts and feelings which must have inspired those who handle it so reverently in the picture. Even one of its grantees appears on the scene to give it added meaning, if this is really needed. Differences of opinion due to different ways of looking at the same thing arouse an interest as they are set forth in the photoplay which it is difficult to secure from a class, however important these may seem to the textbook writer or whatever the amount of space which he may have devoted to presenting them. The meeting house, prototype of the beautiful church buildings which still adorn the commons of many a New England village, by being actually peopled and by the very fact of its being the scene of such significant doings, is immediately accorded that place in the history of these people which it rightly deserves.

Reference has already been made to the photoplay as its story forecasts the years which were to follow when Puritanism had become a mighty force in New England. The story of the next fifty years as set forth in the textbook reveals the predominance of the same questions as to the relation between church and state and the jealousy with which these rights were safeguarded. Witness for example the renewed attempt to create a single administrative unit under Andros and the conflict over the charters of colonies like Massachusetts and Connecticut.

The painstaking care with which a great amount of data drawn from books, pictures, maps, and actual topographical studies has been brought together, coordinated, organized, and fitted into the presentation, like the parts of a beautiful mosaic, make it highly probable that the teacher with vision will discover there a great wealth of material which will tend to enrich the subject beyond her fondest imaginings and in many cases will result in an entirely new and more potent method of instruction.

VISUAL INSTRUCTION IN TEACHING THE NATURAL SCIENCES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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The objectives of general science in the junior high school must contribute to the present concept of education, the causing of desirable modifications in the life of the child in order that he may be more perfectly adjusted to his environment, if its place in the curriculum is justified. If we who teach science aim for mere erudition of principles and information, we shall find our position challenged by the other social studies. Therefore, it is necessary to have the adjustment of the child uppermost in the consciousness of the teacher in order that she will organize the content and adopt a technic which will bring about attitudes of understanding and appreciation of the civic and social problems of the community.

In the junior high school, we have a period in which we are putting the individual in intelligent contact with the major aspects of his environment. These significant aspects are the determiners of the organization of the units in elementary science. In the lower grades, we consider nature study from the point of view of seasonal or interesting topics, for example, the monarch butterfly or the formation of snowflakes. Now, at the higher level, we organize around a worthwhile major problem of daily life, such as "Our Food Supply," "Our Water Supply," "Transportation," or "Keeping Physically Fit." We avoid teaching facts in isolation but interpret the science which underlies the facts. Each unit is divided into subordinate problems, the solution of which leads to the understanding of the major problem.

We have found that the technic which brings about the desired adaptations consists of five phases, exploration, presentation, assimilation, organization, and recitation. These phases provide for the steps in the learning cycle. The exploration, which tells the teacher how to operate, and the presentation, which orients the pupils by giving an overview of the problem, serve as the stimulus or motivation. The assimilation in which the pupil reflects, formulates ideas, and solves the problem is analogous to physical assimilation. The reaction or use of the knowledge is provided for by the organization and recitation during which the pupil without the aid of notes, outlines and represents from a different viewpoint the substance of the unit in such a manner that the teacher is certain that an attitude of understanding is attained by the pupil. This is not the plan for a single period but requires from two to four weeks for completion. During the assimilation, the activities of the pupil consist of intensive and extensive reading, simple experimentation, demonstration, and drawing. It is a period of directed study whereby the pupil has an opportunity to apply himself.

I shall tell briefly how visual aids may be used in the various phases of the unit.

In the exploration, there is no place for visual aids as it is a period of testing and determining the previous background of experience. In the

presentation, however, the film may be used advantageously. As the object of the presentation is to give a preview of the problem, a short reel which does not go into detail or does not show complicated action has the ability to furnish content of experience, to establish an apperceptive mass. It lays the foundation for subsequent lessons because it gives the child something to think about. Children will think if they have (1) a motive for thought, (2) material to think about, and (3) a method of thought. The film, when it is used in this phase, furnishes the motive and the experience but the teacher directs the method. In certain units, it is essential to establish a sequence of time and this may be accomplished by a film. An example of this is a reel on transportation. At this point, we must remember that the film must be focused upon the unit, must be short, and must exclude details.

During the assimilation of a long unit, it is often advisable to re-present or to give a subpresentation which is focused upon a subordinate problem. The film may be used in this case to explain complicated action or the nature of a movement which cannot be demonstrated by a model. Slides may be used where it is necessary to analyze a structure. Often a single copy of a textbook will contain an illustration which throws light upon the problem at hand. In that case, a pupil may make a slide of the illustration and it may be thrown on a daylight screen where it does not interfere with or distract those who are at work on a different portion of the unit. It is available to more than one pupil at a time. General science laboratories are not equipped with compound microscopes but a projector of microscopic slides is economical. Diagrams may be placed upon the blackboard but with the present teaching load, it is not practical to place all diagrams on the board where they are likely to be rubbed or erased. The slide conserves time and energy of the teacher and gives profitable employment to a member of the class. The making of slides, copies, or originals, is a worthwhile project for those who progress at a quicker rate than the majority of the class.

When the group is ready for the organization, a longer film with more detail may serve because the class understands the action and is in a position to appreciate the complicated movement. There is not a possibility that the main problem will be lost as this showing is after the solution of the unit and serves as a summary, or an elaboration of a section of the problem. An example of such a film is *The Interdependence of Living Things* in which various insects and plants are shown in their relation to each other. This would not be appropriate for the presentation because too many unknown and rare insects are shown. The pupils would lose sight of the main idea in the attempt to remember the actions of the insects portrayed.

When the class has shown by the results of tests that there is evidence of assimilation, the pupils are given an opportunity for original work in the recitation because they may use whatever materials they desire to illustrate the talks. Many use slides which were made during the assimilation

while others prepare chalk talks, charts, and models. Occasionally, a boy who can operate a projector asks permission to show a film that bears on the unit but has not been used before.

In these ways, visual material supplements the regular classroom procedure and proves effective if we do not lose sight of the purpose of the phases into which the instruction is divided and use the aids accordingly.

RECENT EXPERIMENTS IN CLASSROOM PROCEDURE

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During the past year an experiment in the use of classroom films was conducted in the following twelve cities of the United States by the Eastman Kodak Company:

Atlanta, Ga.	New York City
Detroit, Mich.	Oakland, Calif.
Newton, Mass.	Denver, Colo.
Winston-Salem, N. C.	Lincoln, Nebr.
Chicago, Ill.	Rochester, N. Y.
Kansas City, Mo.	San Diego, Calif.

Two courses of study were specifically outlined for this experiment. Each course covered a period of ten weeks: One course was for sixth grade geography and the other course in junior high-school general science. These courses of study were formulated under the general direction of Dr. Ben Wood of Columbia University, and Dr. Frank N. Freeman of the School of Education of the University of Chicago. Twelve thousand students participated in the experiment, there being approximately 6000 in the control group and a similar number in the experimental group. Films made by the Eastman Kodak Company for the standard course in the fifth and sixth year geography and the standard course in the first and second year general science in junior high schools were used with the experimental group. Films were not used as a means of instruction in the control group.

The area of instruction to be covered was outlined, and was identical for each of the groups. Each group was permitted to follow such methods of instruction and to use such aids as the teacher desired. The limitations were that each group should cover the same area in each subject, but the experimental group should use classroom films, and that the control group should not use motion pictures. Either group could, and the control group did, use other types of visual instruction.

The usual procedure was followed to make sure that children of the same intellectual level were selected for each group, and that teachers of equal qualifications, so far as we were able to determine, were assigned to these respective groups. In addition, tests were given at the beginning of the experiment and at the close. Several intermediate tests were also

given. Recall tests are to be given certain of the groups when they reassemble in school in September. In other words, the experiment and the tests conformed in every particular to the generally accepted standards in educational procedure and practice.

A most comprehensive study of the entire experiment and the results achieved under the tests is now being made under the direction of Dr. Wood and Dr. Freeman. The results will be published as soon as these studies are completed and provision made for a general distribution of the same among the leading teachers of the country.

Dr. Wood and Dr. Freeman have made a preliminary report of certain vital phases of the experiment which cannot be covered by the usual tests. Among other things they said:

Our own observation of the classes in operation with and without the films convinces us that the films contribute elements to the experiences of the children which it is difficult and often impossible to secure by any other method available to the school.

This preliminary survey indicated that the teachers are much pleased with films as instruments of instruction, that they consider these particular films to be excellent, and that it is their judgment that films should be made permanently available to the schools. This is our opinion, based on the testimony of the teachers and on our observation of the classroom work.

We are convinced that the production of these films, together with the guides (each film is accompanied by a teacher's guide to the subject), and further production of other films, makes a decidedly valuable contribution to educational procedure. The indication is that there is a strong demand for properly planned and well organized educational motion pictures of the character used in this experiment.

They reported specifically that on the information obtained from the teachers who participated in the experiment and from their own personal observations, as these experts went into a large number of classrooms in which the experiment was conducted, that the experiment had revealed the following advantages in the use of films:

1. That teachers were able to arouse more interest on the part of children with the use of films than without them.
2. That this interest is a sustained interest and that pupils continue to read about, to discuss, and to bring to the classroom material related to films, many weeks after the films were shown in the classroom.
3. That the children were induced to do more reading and to select books of finer quality. This viewpoint of the teachers is confirmed by the local librarians in several of the centers where the experiment was conducted.
4. That project work and other selfactivities of the children were stimulated.
5. That a greater desire is produced on the part of the children to write on some of the topics covered by the film and to discuss such topics in and out of the classroom.
6. That the children were led to correlate features of the film with their own personal experiences and with community conditions.
7. That the richness, accuracy, and meaningfulness of experience and imagery were increased.
8. That greater originality in the children was stimulated.

EFFECTIVE COOPERATION BETWEEN THE MUSEUM AND THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

C. G. RATHMANN, ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, ST. LOUIS,
MO., AND CHAIRMAN OF MUSEUM RELATIONS COMMITTEE

The two great educational agencies, the National Education Association and The American Association of Museums, have joined hands in a movement to promote visual education in the schools of our country.

Visual education is rapidly finding its way into the schools. It has come to stay. But if it is to function effectively, the schools must be supplied with such materials as will give the children concrete experiences as to things, conditions, and influences in the world in which they live and vivid and lasting impressions of them. If the child is to become acquainted with the world, he must be put into personal contact with the world. This can be done in two ways, by taking the child into the world and by bringing the world to the child.

To take the child into the world, we must get away from the idea that all teaching and all learning must be done in the schoolroom. The great outdoor museum in which nature can be studied in her own dominion and where she gives intelligent answers to all our questions, where animals, plants, and minerals can be studied in their proper surroundings, should be an additional schoolroom. Field, park, and forest with their roadbeds, slopes, hills, brooks, and ponds, the careful study of which will enable the children to picture to themselves the feature of land and water on the earth, should be visited by teachers and pupils. For the study of human environment, man and his wants, his occupations and pursuits, commercial and industrial establishments, shops, factories, foundries, and quarries should be visited and the actual work and conditions observed and studied so as to put the children into personal contact with conditions of life and work. To every place in the neighborhood of the school where the child can properly be given concrete experiences as to the physical and human environment in which he lives, teacher and pupil should go.

Visual education, through bringing the child into personal contact with facts, conditions, and influences of the environment of his school and home, and through giving him, by means of observation and study, opportunities to gather valuable experiences, is given too little attention in the schools of our country. The value of this first and most important step in visual education is not sufficiently recognized. Let us take the child into as much of the world as we can show him, and then bring the rest of the world to him through illustrative materials and visual aids.

What are these materials and aids? When we peruse the periodicals on visual education with which the schools are flooded at present, we are given the impression that only pictorial illustrations, such as moving pictures, lantern slides, stereographs, and photographs are effective means through which the child can become acquainted with what he should learn about the world in which he lives. The motion picture has begun to play

an important part in school education. Its value as a means of visual instruction will be recognized more and more, as more and better pictures are produced. It is the most lifelike pictorial representation of conditions, processes, and influences involving action that exists. But motion pictures, lantern slides, stereographs, and photographs are not the only media of visual education.

Just as effective means to lend life and reality to school work are objects such as mounted animals, birds, insects, specimens of sea life, food products, materials for clothing, materials for shelter, raw materials in the different stages of development, showing life and work in all parts of the world, actual specimens from the fields of biology, geology, botany, anthropology, and other branches of science, and materials illustrating the teaching of art and history. These are the materials found in the many museums of our country, and here we need the help of the museums. No better use could be made of many of these materials than to have the pupils observe and study them in connection with their lessons in art, history, geography, nature study, and literature. Many of the museums are giving most valuable help to the schools and are willing to do more if the schools will give them such cooperation as will enable the museums to help the schools most efficiently.

Wherever museums cooperate with the schools and where the teachers use the illustrative materials made accessible to them judiciously and intelligently, the teachers feel that they find more pleasure and satisfaction in their classroom work in science, geography, history, art, and literature, and get better results. But it is not only the schools that are benefited by such cooperation. The museums are given most valuable help by the schools. Learning to use and to value museum material, the children are trained to become frequent, interested, and intelligent visitors of the museums and their enthusiastic supporters when they are men and women. Fully realizing what valuable mutual service museums and schools may give each other, the National Education Association and The American Association of Museum two years ago appointed a joint committee to suggest plans for a systematic, extensive, and effective cooperation between museums and schools.

A report of the joint committee and the recommendations which it contains were presented to the meeting of The American Association of Museums in Washington last year, and were unanimously approved. They were submitted to the National Education Association by the chairman of the committee appointed by Miss McSkimmon, then President of the National Education Association, Henry Turner Bailey, at a meeting in Seattle, and were referred to this department for consideration and action.

The recommendations state 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 with the 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 are to be urged 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. It is recommended that, wherever museums are cooperating with the schools through supplying them with visual aids, the schools cooperate with the museums by bearing such part of the expense as will enable them to help the schools effectively. And, lastly, it is suggested that, wherever there are no public museums, steps be taken to open school museums or children's museums like those in St. Louis, New York, and Boston.

At the meeting of The American Association of Museums in Washington two months ago, the Philadelphia Commercial Museum, the authorities of which are deeply interested in this work and have for years supplied the schools of Pennsylvania with valuable illustrative material, through its representative, Charles R. Toothaker, a member of the joint committee, made the following offer:

If sufficient funds can be procured to pay a working staff and other operating expenses, the Philadelphia Commercial Museum declares itself willing,—

To furnish, free of cost, for three years, offices, space for work rooms, and storage of stock; to contribute a large amount of illustrative materials of many kinds from all parts of the world as a nucleus of a national school museum; to allow the use of its large collection of negatives and photographs; to gather from all possible sources, from museums of art, history, and science, from commercial firms, from publishing houses, from United States Department of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishery, from the mines of the country, from boards of trade of the various countries, actual objects, facsimiles, models, lantern slides, photographs, films, and illustrative pamphlets; to put these materials in proper shape for distribution and to keep the teachers of the country, especially those of rural schools and of the schools in the smaller cities, informed as to what materials are available and how they can be procured.

This generous offer was enthusiastically received by The American Association of Museums. As chairman of the Committee on School-Museum Relations, I was instructed to present the report of the Committee and the offer of the Philadelphia Museum to the Visual Education Department of the National Education Association for consideration and action.

Your committee feels that it should be accepted with the Department's profound appreciation of the splendid cooperative spirit shown by this

institution. This central agency is a beginning, a very promising beginning, of a movement which will bring visual education into all the schools of our country and make it function as it should function. The national school museum will become a potent factor in bringing the world to the child.

In conclusion, your committee recommends that the three officers of the Visual Education Department, in conjunction with a committee of The American Association of Museums, take steps to procure the necessary funds and give the Philadelphia Commercial Museum every possible help in its efforts to inaugurate the new work.

VISUAL INSTRUCTION EQUIPMENT AND HOW TO USE IT

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The speaker is conscious of the fact that his audience is a mixed one when considered from the standpoint of instructional interest. Some of you are classroom instructors interested in special subjects. Some are principals interested in all subjects in the curriculum. You are all anxious to know the latest and best aids in your work.

A casual survey of the changing industrial, commercial, and political realms reveals much to challenge our attention. New factors have been discovered and put into service to speed up output and to improve quality.

Today with our pupils we enter the industrial world and, by the film route, are taken to the mines and quarries and given a close-up view of the workers removing from their original beds huge quantities of iron, coal, copper, granite, slate, marble, silver, and gold; and we, also by the film route, follow those raw products to the centers of elaboration, where other workers fashion them into suitable form for the ultimate consumers. Likewise we travel to the forests and witness the felling of trees, their transportation to mills for transformation into various types of lumber, or to the pulp mills where trees are converted into paper products, or again we may follow the tree material into the factories where wood chips are converted into silk fibre called rayon, from which dresses, hose, and ribbons are made by the millions, thereby threatening the supplanting of the honorable silk worm.

Awakening from our reverie concerning these things we realize that wisdom urges the everlasting adjustment of ourselves to changed conditions in the world about us. We need to cultivate the courage of the pioneers. We must dare to try new ways to accomplish our tasks. We must be nonconformists to the old crystallized types of action. This is the *modus operandi* whereby the industrial world advances. True of the commercial world—aye, also of the political world.

In this visual preparedness problem there are, as in the business world, two ideas—organization and service. We apply our thought to the

appeals to the mind through the eye. To this problem we now give attention.

We are to discuss standard visual equipment for general school use in all grades and how to keep that equipment in constant service.

We must consider both the individual school, and a school system whether that be a city, county, or state unit. Each has distinctive controlling factors. All have budgets to be considered. Visual equipment can be purchased in keeping with your budget.

For the benefit of those who are looking forward to a beginning in this rapidly developing phase of teaching we mention some vital points.

Recall the rapid progress made in types of advertising employed by commercial houses, transportation organizations, and tourist bureaus, and you will realize what a grip visual methods have on modern life. Millions are spent annually in appealing to the minds of prospectives through the eye. These visual appeals are made from different motives from those which are employed in motion picture theaters or in the schools. Motion pictures for theatrical use are primarily for entertainment purposes. The motion picture service in schools is for instructional purposes. We should not confuse these distinct purposes nor try to divert the uses of picture material to purposes for which they were not intended.

In the accumulation of a library of pictures for a school system, whether it be large or small, a plan of selection, acquisition, arrangement and distribution must be made by someone or some group cooperating toward this end. Available aids must be located and funds provided to secure them.

A start can be made with limited funds but the visual equipment should be constantly augmented. The accumulation of good slide negatives should never cease. The negatives, once secured and carefully labelled and filed in convenient cabinets, will always be at hand for use in replacement of lost or broken slides. It is a gratifying sensation to see your negative library expanding as the years come and go.

Each school should have a projection equipment consisting of a good stereopticon, capable of projecting a clear picture on the screen, even in a semi-darkened classroom, on a bright day. There are several of this type now on the market at a reasonable price. The screen should be of a size not smaller than 4x4 feet. In the absence of such a screen, use the reverse side of a clean map.

The aim should be to make possible, with as little trouble as possible on the part of the teacher, the use in the classroom of projection equipment. The shades should be in good working order, but need not be of the black or opaque type. There should be provision for connecting quickly and easily the electric current to the stereopticon. A serviceable, portable stand for the stereopticon should be furnished with each machine. This should be of a type that can be easily placed in the aisle at about the center of the room. This will insure a bright picture on the screen

and when so placed will not deprive any pupil of his seat. The lantern does not need to be placed at the rear of the room. Better not be so placed. The aim is to produce a good, clear picture. A picture in the assembly hall, of course, should be larger than that in a classroom, in order that all observers may be given a view devoid of eye strain.

Educational films and projectors for their use are constantly being brought forward for school uses. At the present time good films and good projectors of many types are available. No fire hazard need be feared if safety films only be used. Either standard or narrow gauge films can be had in abundance and the subjectmatter is good and getting better all the time.

Adaptations to assembly hall lessons or classroom lessons can readily be made from the large variety of films now in the market. Do not try to make a classroom outfit function for the assembly gathering. The eye strain is too great and the projection results are not what they should be for good teaching.

For film projection, rooms must be darker than is required for slide projection. You must count on this or be doomed to disappointment.

The length of a film for teaching a lesson need not be more than 50 to 200 feet. This short type of film will become more and more in demand as the projecting machines become more numerous in service and films for teaching, instead of for entertainment, are made.

There are several 35 millimeter film projectors that can readily be used in either classrooms or ordinary assembly halls. They are equipped with mazda lamps, and if safety or slow-burning films only are used there is no fire hazard.

The film projectors for 16 millimeter films are safe everywhere, as films for their use are always printed on safety stock. Such projectors are not suitable for assembly halls and should not be so used on account of the eye strain in trying to make out what is shown on the screen.

Having made arrangements in a school for the use of the various types of visual aids, we turn our attention to the types of uses involving especially the motion picture projectors. There are two ways in which films can be used to good advantage. Realizing that films are of most effective use in teaching where motion is involved, they are becoming more popular. No still picture can replace the film when this thought is prominent. Films are of excellent service in showing the abundant connections of successive scenes, such as in traveling or transportation service, the activities in farming, lumbering, mining, or manufacturing. Certain phases of these scenes can be shown by still pictures, such as lantern slides or photographic prints; but the most effective thing, of course, is the motion picture which shows the sequence of activities involved in the study.

There are so many factors involved in the methods of using visual aids that it is unwise to make any ironclad statements about what can and what cannot be done. Much of the work depends upon the ability of the teacher.

Sometimes we hear expression given to the thought that good teaching cannot be done in the assembly hall. I think such a statement is erroneous. We must learn how to adjust ourselves to this newer type of instruction. The mounting cost of school buildings and equipment and the crowded condition of our schools will gradually force us into an adjustment of the way to proceed. We will be obliged to learn how to handle pupils in what is called massed groups, where several rooms of closely related abilities gather into the assembly hall for one basic lesson of the curriculum which will be within the grasp of all those groups. This will leave the individual teacher to do the filling in by development work in her own classroom. This phase of the work is being recognized quite rapidly at the present time. There is no question about the good results that follow such procedure. If you have not tried it yourself, you are not in a position to pass judgment on what can or cannot be done. With a school system such as we have in Chicago there are abundant opportunities of trying out these various ways of presenting the visual work correlated to the curriculum, and we are keeping our minds open, receptive, and expectant for good results and are making headway quite rapidly in our lesson presentations.

We believe that we have not yet really opened the door of our opportunities and laid hold of the resources at hand to capitalize our visual equipment as we should. We at least have made a start, which is, up to the present time, a very inspiring revelation.

Visual instruction is a money saver in a school system. It leads to a clearer understanding of lessons. It reduces the number failing to make grade and hence reduces the demand for seating capacity and extra teachers for the repeater group.

We believe that the school boards who provide adequate visual aids, and school administrators who require efficient use of such aids, are deserving of commendation and worthy emulation.

LOOKING INTO THE FUTURE THROUGH ELECTRICAL EYES—ABSTRACT

A. K. ASTER, MEMBER OF THE TECHNICAL LABORATORIES, BELL TELEPHONE CO., NEW YORK CITY

We are accustomed to talking into electrical ears and listening to electrical mouths. Electrical eyes as yet, however, are not very familiar. They have just come into existence. Today it is possible to see, as well as hear what is going on at some distant point.

Television makes it possible to see what is going on at a distant point at the instant that one is looking at the receiving apparatus and telephony makes it possible to hear what is going on at that same instant.

Often it is not necessary to know instantaneously what is going on at some distant point; all that is needed is a record of the sound and scenes of the event. Talking motion pictures fill this need.

Sometimes all that is needed is to be able to transmit at a moderate speed a visual record, a photograph of an event; telephotography makes this possible.

Systems of television, talking motion pictures, and telephotography have been developed by Bell Telephone Laboratories, the Research Laboratories of the Bell System as byproducts of the fundamental and practical studies in telephony which are carried on by these laboratories.

All of these systems are fundamentally similar. They are made up of three main parts: a device for converting sounds or light variations into variations of an electrical current, a line to transmit them or some means of storing them for later use, and a device for reconvertng these variations back into sounds or pictures.

In the telephone the electrical ear or transmitter is the device which converts sound into variations of an electrical current. The sound waves that strike the little metal disc or diaphragm of the transmitter, cause it to compress carbon granules in a little box behind it. This compressing varies the resistance of an electrical circuit of which the transmitter is a part, thereby varying the current in that circuit. These variations are then carried by a line which may be wholly wire or in part radio, to some distant point.

We have now two elements of the system, the transmitter which converts the sounds into electrical variations and the line which carries these variations to the distant point. To complete this system we need the third element which reconverts the electrical variations into sounds. This reconverter, the telephone receiver, has a magnet whose strength is controlled by variations in the electrical current which comes to it over the line. By magnetic action this magnet causes a little disc of metal, the diaphragm, to vibrate just as the sound waves caused the transmitter diaphragm to vibrate; and thereby it faithfully reproduces the original sound.

Television is a little more complicated. It is not as easy to convert light variations into variations of an electrical current. The problem of transmitting these variations is also more difficult as a much greater range of frequencies has to be transmitted, nearly 10 times that required for an ordinary telephone conversation. The receiver is also much more complicated than the simple telephone receiver. In short the whole problem is a much more difficult one.

A description follows of the television apparatus developed in Bell Laboratories:¹

In the sending machine an intense light is brought to focus so as to cover an area of about 2" x 3" on a metal disc in which a series of very small holes, 50 in number, have been drilled in the form of a single turn spiral. A metal plate having in it a 2 by 3 inch aperture is placed just back of this disc. The size of the disc and the locations of its 50 holes are so chosen that only one hole passes the 2 by 3 inch aperture at a time; and in the course of one revolution of the disc every part of the

aperture is passed once by a hole. As the disc is rotated each hole as it passes in front of the aperture allows the light to pass through to a lens which brings it to an approximate focus on the object to be transmitted.

The object, person, or scene, has to be about two feet from the machine and not greater than 2 by 3 feet in area. The disc is rotated 18 times a second. As it rotates each little hole in it acts as a source of light while it passes by 2 by 3 inch aperture. Hence as the disc makes one revolution 50 beams of light successively sweep across the object, one beam just above the other and very slightly overlapping the area covered by it. The result is that each part of the object is illuminated during one revolution of the wheel. The light from the object, as thus illuminated detail by detail, is received by three giant photo-electric cells which convert it into variations of an electric current.

The second element of the system, the line which transmits these variations is similar to the ordinary telephone line, except that it is provided with special equipment at each end so that it will faithfully transmit a very wide range of frequencies.

The third element of the system, the apparatus which reconverts these electrical variations into a picture employs a neon lamp, a device whose brilliancy corresponds to the strength of the electrical current applied to it. Then there is a duplicate of the disc of the sending machine rotated synchronously with it to redistribute the light from this lamp so as to reconstruct the original picture. The original picture is thereby reconstructed every one-eighteenth of a second. The reason why one-eighteenth of a second was chosen is that investigations in motion pictures have deduced the fact that when the human eye sees a motion picture projected at the rate of 16 pictures per second, or faster, it sees it as a continuous picture practically free from flicker. Hence what the observer sees at the receiving apparatus is a practically flickerless reproduction of the scene that is placed in front of the television transmitter.

The receiver which has just been described produces at the receiving station a picture only 2" x 3". This had the limitation that it can be viewed by only a single person at one time. In order that a group of people could view the transmitted scene a much larger apparatus was developed. It consists of a neon lamp in the form of a long tube bent back and forth over an area of 2 by 3 feet and provided with 2500 electrodes which gives the equivalent of 2500 small lamps. A rotating switch distributes to them individually the current from the line. The result of this arrangement is a picture formed of 2500 points, each point illuminated once during one-eighteenth of a second. As with the small receiving apparatus, the human eye sees this picture also as practically continuous and flickerless. The size, cost, and complexity of the equipment necessary means that television is not commercially practical as yet.

¹ A technical description of this system may be found in a Symposium on Television in the April 1927 issue of the *Bell Technical Journal* and a full popular description in "Through Electrical Eyes" which may be obtained from any Telephone Company of the Bell System or directly from Bell Telephone Laboratories, New York City.

*SECRETARY'S MINUTES***Minneapolis Meeting**

First session—Meeting called to order at 2 P. M., Tuesday, July 3, 1928, by Mrs. Anna V. Dorris, the President, who gave a brief address of welcome to those present and outlined the program of topics to be presented by the various speakers.

Community singing for 10 minutes led by James F. Lichtenberger of Minneapolis was much enjoyed by all.

Daniel C. Knowlton, Assistant Professor of Visual Instruction, Department of Education, Yale University, New Haven, Conn., was then introduced and gave an instructive address on "The Use of the Photoplay in the Teaching of History."

He developed the idea that a photoplay is a drama in film form and then showed how essential it is to consider it in (1) its relation to the course of study, (2) its relation to the textbook study and (3) how to proceed to make it most helpful.

Following his remarks, he projected a 3 reel photoplay on the Puritans in American History as an illustration of his idea of a photoplay in actual use.

The second speaker was Kathryn Steinmetz, a special teacher in science in the junior high school, and now principal of the Motley School of Chicago. She gave a demonstrative lesson in science teachings for junior high schools, having in her group pupils from the summer session of the Minneapolis junior high school classes. Preceding the lesson, she outlined briefly the fundamental motions underlying such lessons and gave to each person in the audience an outlined copy of the lesson she was about to present. The special topic Miss Steinmetz chose was "The Circulation of the Blood in the Human System." Much interest was manifested in the lesson on the part of the audience. Miss Steinmetz made use of both motion and still pictures to give the pupils the correct notions of the subject under consideration. Her lesson was a very successful one and left a very impressive and pleasing notion of the way such lessons should be presented.

The third speaker was Elda L. Merton, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Waukesha, Wis. Miss Merton by a spirited address made it quite plain that visual aids were very essential to efficient teaching of social studies in the elementary schools where children need so much of vicarious experience in order to get an insight into and an interpretation of ideals of life. Her address was very much appreciated by her audience.

Although the afternoon had been filled with interesting topics, yet all were glad to linger for the final speaker, Thomas E. Finegan, who has been doing some experimental work in the Eastman Teaching Film realm. All were anxious to learn what had been done, where it was done, and what the results indicate. Dr. Finegan regretted that up to the present time the percentile data had not been completed but that his reports from one hundred teachers who had carried on the test teaching—one half with specially prepared teaching films and the other half who gave the same subjectmatter without the aid of the films showed that there is a place for such films and that teachers were anxious for more of such material.

Dr. Finegan assured us that the printed details of the experiment and the resultant findings would soon be available to all who are interested.

All regretted that the lateness of the hour prevented a discussion with Dr. Finegan.

At the close of his address he invited all who cared to remain for 15 minutes to do so and see for the first time one of the latest Eastman Teaching films on the screen.

All remained and felt repaid for so doing.
Meeting adjourned at 5:30 P. M.

Second session—Meeting opened Thursday, July 5th, at 2 P. M., with community singing of songs projected on the screen by George Hamilton of the Keystone View Co. The song leader was again James F. Lichtenberger, of Minneapolis, who did splendid work as a song leader and his happy style was catching among his audience.

President Dorris then called attention to the need of committee work and named a nominating committee consisting of C. F. Hoban of Pennsylvania, Dudley Grant Hays, Illinois, and Marie Goodenough of Chicago.

Following a brief discussion of some needed action on the part of the Department concerning related departments, Mr. Hoban moved that the president be instructed to appoint a research committee to carry on such work during the coming year in connection with the National Education Association research committee. The motion was seconded and carried.

A second motion was made to accept with thanks the appreciated offer made to us by the American Museum Association to join with its duly appointed committee to bring about a merging of our visual efforts in keeping with plans approved by the National Education Association officials. Motion seconded and in the discussion following C. G. Rathmann, assistant superintendent of schools of St. Louis and chairman of the American Association of Museums pointed out how helpful our two organizations could be in sending aid to the schools of America by joining our forces.

The motion was called for and carried unanimously.

Dr. Hoban also moved that a committee be appointed to get in touch with Dr. Boynton, president of the Department of Superintendence, and if possible to have one session of the superintendent's meeting in Cleveland next February give consideration to visual instruction.

The motion was carried.

The regular topics of the second session were then presented.

Dr. C. G. Rathmann then gave an interesting address on effective cooperation between the museum and the public schools.

The next topic was presented by Dudley Grant Hays, Director, Visual Instruction, Chicago Public Schools, who was introduced by the President as one of the pioneers in visual instruction who had developed in the public schools of Chicago the largest and best organized department in the United States. He spoke on "Visual Instruction Equipment and How to Use It."

The next speaker, A. K. Aster, of the Technical Laboratories of the Bell Telephone Company, gave an illustrated address of the most recent developments in telephotography, television, and talking motion pictures.

The nominating committee recommended that the following be elected:

President, MRS. ANNA V. DORRIS, San Francisco, Calif.

Vice-president, W. M. GREGORY, Director of Education Museum, Cleveland School of Education, Cleveland, Ohio.

Secretary-Treasurer, ELDA L. MERTON, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Waukesha, Wis.

Executive Committee, C. J. RATHMANN, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Louis, Mo. and Chairman of Museum Relations Committee. JOHN A. HOLLENGER, Director of Department of Nature Study and Visualization, Pittsburgh, Pa. W. W. WHITTINGHILL, Supervisor of Visual Instruction, Detroit, Mich.

The dues were fixed at \$1 per year.

The meeting adjourned at 5:30 P. M.—Attendance, one hundred.

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 1928-29 are: *President*, Homer J. Smith, Associate Professor of Industrial Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.; *Vicepresident*, Paul Chapman, State Director of Industrial Education, State House, Atlanta, Ga.; *Secretary*, Enid Lunn, State Supervisor of Home Economics, State House, Columbus, Ohio. 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	1926:963-996
1915:815-847	1918:249-271	1921:851-858	1924:987-1015	1927:971-1006
1916:461-517	1919:271-281	1922:1465-1483	1925:872-913	

THE HOME AND TRAINING FOR CITIZENSHIP

ADELAIDE S. BAYLOR, CHIEF, HOME ECONOMICS SERVICE, FEDERAL BOARD
FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

THE fact that more than 2000 voluntary organizations in the United States are working to develop better citizenship is evidence that somewhere a cog has been slipped in the training of our youth in the ideals and purposes we hold as essential to successful citizenship.

Perhaps no subject of the school curriculum has changed more in content and methods of instruction than that of civics, and still the goal has not been attained, although we are far from the traditional notion that persons who can pass examinations on the mere wording of the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution of the United States are good citizens, and are translating good citizenship into terms of practical activities and observances.

The federal council of citizenship training, created by the President of the United States under executive order of January 12, 1923, in setting up a score card to serve as a measuring stick by which communities could rate themselves, outlined the score card under five heads:

1. Mental development
2. Health and physical development
3. Vocational development
4. Patriotic development
5. Social and moral development

I believe it is safe to say that with slight, if any, modifications, these five points cover the essentials to be considered in scoring a good citizen. Any community may be scored high as its citizens are in health and properly developed physically, as they are intelligent and socially adjusted, as they are moral and selfsupporting, and as they make proper exercise of their franchise privileges.

What are the great influences, therefore, that dominate the lives of people and determine in largest measure how development will proceed in these lines? Outstanding among these are the home, school, church, state, and occupations, each making its special contribution for good or evil, weal or woe, to those whom it touches. Of these five institutions, the home, in my opinion, is more potent than any other single factor, and possibly than all other factors combined, in its influence on individuals. There are very evident reasons for this conclusion: The group is small; there are close ties of sympathy and understanding; there is confidence; no other fundamental influence has yet affected the preschool members; and the associations are informal. It is true, whether we follow those who believe in the dominant influence of heredity or those who believe environment controls all, or whether we take the middle path.

On health and physical well-being, we, as a people, place a very high estimate, and so closely do we relate these to national prosperity and so much do we hold them to be dependent upon the successful establishment

of health habits in youth, that we support liberally a great organization known as the American Child Health Association, the presidency of which has been accepted by a man whose splendid achievements in the solution of national and international problems closely allied to the welfare of the people are so wellknown that he bids fair to occupy at no remote date the highest office of honor and trust it is in the power of the people of the United States to bestow on any individual. In the development of health and in normal physique, we recognize as essential factors, food, rest, and recreation, and it is in the home food habits are acquired, as well as habits of rest and recreation. Indeed, it is in early child life that habits in all lines are developed. It is then that the individual becomes habituated to the proper use of leisure time, a protection against crime waves that seem to sweep the country at times.

Vocational trends and ambitions are fairly well fixed by home influence. They may be chaotic, undesirable, or well chosen, but the influence of the family in determining them cannot be gain-said. Too many lives have been wrecked on the reef of family pride in making a choice of vocations.

The attitude of the home toward country and national life—the outspoken or evident mental slant there, on questions of national importance, and the confidence or lack of confidence in those who have been chosen to guide the destinies of the nation, are quickly transferred to the plastic youth in the household, and similar attitudes so firmly established there which it is difficult for outside influence and education to change later. Quickly do children take on the ways and opinions of elders of the family—at first giving credit, but later accepting and believing them as their own. Respect for authority, regard for the opinion of others, tolerance, and cooperation—all good citizenship traits—are first practised or neglected within the family group.

An authority on the training of children states that the “study of normal as well as of abnormal psychology shows that the earlier a child makes its social contacts and feels itself an integral part of a community, the easier does its adjustment come to the requirements of the adult life.” We have thought too much of the home as a center where people are fed, clothed, and sheltered, and too little of its function as a center for solving problems of relationships, a function that is fundamental in citizenship. The family is the first social group of which the child is a member. Here he experiences the relation of himself to adults, of adults to him, and of himself to others near his own age, and while he does not experience the relationship of adults to adults, he constantly observes this. One psychologist says that “even at the age of two years children have acquired distinct personalities with certain basic social attitudes to some extent already formed and consistent. These attitudes of young children toward their play groups can be explained largely in terms of common experience, particularly those of the relationships within the family group. The wide variety in parental attitudes toward children and the influence of the earlier experiences show

that "a good home must be defined in psycho-sociological terms rather than by standards of material care and comfort alone."

The moral and religious standards of the home influence all members, and especially the younger ones. Youth does much thinking and considers more deeply the conduct of the adults in the home than is commonly supposed. According to Arnold Gesell, "The preschool period is biologically the most important period in the development of an individual for the simple but sufficient reason that it comes first. Coming first in the dynamic sequence it inevitably influences all subsequent development. These years determine character much as the foundation and frame determine a structure," and it is at this time that the home exercises its largest influence—for it is a time when extra-home influences are at a minimum.

But the home by no means ceases to function in training for citizenship after the school, church, state, and vocations have begun to play their part. The home is responsible for at least three fourths of a child's time after he enters school, and its influence continues throughout life. It does not ordinarily offer organized education in citizenship, but it is constantly affording education of the unorganized type, which is even more potent than the organized type.

These large possibilities within the home for developing all these traits that result in citizenship of one type or another, make it important that every facility for establishing and maintaining good homes be made available. This country is appreciating this necessity more and more.

The Better Homes Organization, led again by Herbert Hoover, is now well established and working on the basis that good homes—sanitary, convenient, attractive, and otherwise standard materially, are promoters of successful family life. The movement for parental education is rapidly spreading all over the United States. Organized education for parent-aid is now operating in from one-half to two-thirds of the states. To what end? To the end that children may in their early formative years, and later, have such wholesome home influences as will bring about a proper physical, mental, social, moral, vocational, and patriotic development that will make citizenship of the highest type.

THE MENTAL ABILITY OF THE STUDENT AS A FACTOR IN INSTRUCTION IN AGRICULTURE—ABSTRACT

A. M. FIELD, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF AGRICULTURE EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

The greatest art in teaching is reaching the individual. Teaching is closely related to learning and learning is an individual activity. If there is no such thing as group learning then, psychologically, there is no such thing as group teaching. If it is the individual who learns, then it is the individual who must be taught.

Individual instruction to be of most value must be based on the needs and ability of the individual. This form of instruction adapts the school

to the individual. It fits the school course to the student instead of trying to fit the student to the school. Bright students differ from dull or retarded students, but they are usually found together in the same class pursuing a course of study built by minds gifted in intelligence but frequently lacking in appreciation of the limitations of dull minds.

Among the scientific procedures in modern education mental ability tests have come to play an increasingly important part. By the use of simple mental ability tests the teacher can determine the ability of the students and select subjectmatter and activities appropriate to the students' interests and needs.

Mental ability tests are not intended to select individuals for a certain course but rather to help the teacher make the course more worthwhile for the individual who may wish to take it. The mental ability of a student may be judged by the number and quality of responses made to situations which arise in the environment in which the student is placed. In school it means the students' ability to learn or to do school work. Any plan for teaching must be conditioned by the amount and character of the learning traits of students. Extensive study in Minnesota high schools indicates that farm boys who enrol for instruction in agriculture are not inferior in mental ability to other students in the same high school although they are frequently deficient in ability to interpret their reading with the same readiness as high-school students from the city. The results from the mental ability tests will aid the teacher to set up better objectives, predict probable success, aid in guidance, diagnose class groups and set appropriate standards of achievement.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION ON A SMITH-HUGHES AND A NON-SMITH-HUGHES BASIS

K. G. SMITH, STATE SUPERVISOR OF TRADE AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION,
LANSING, MICH.

The problem of industrial education in a small town is always a puzzling one. In the first place I shall assume that you are familiar with the unit trade or general industrial course in which two and one-half or three hours per day are devoted to shop work and an equal amount of time to general and related subjects. Such a course is not practicable in many localities. The teaching force and equipment are too limited and the number desiring to take such a course is too small. It is certainly not the solution for the problem of industrial education in the majority of small towns although it may meet Smith-Hughes requirements and looks attractive from an educational standpoint.

You are doubtless also familiar with the cooperative or half-time plan. We have worked this plan successfully in one small town in Michigan by having a single group of thirty-six boys attend school in the forenoon and work in the afternoon. Their school work is all directed by one coordi-

nator. In a course of this kind it is always difficult to coordinate school work and employment because of the diversity of occupations.

Both of the above plans as stated meet the requirements of the Smith-Hughes law, but there are a large number of places in which neither of these two plans will work either because of cost or limited opportunities for employment. In such cases, and there are many of them, a good, strong manual arts course in grades 7, 8, 9, and 10, followed by a technical course in architectural and mechanical drawing in grades 11 and 12 seems most reasonable. Such a course will not meet Smith-Hughes requirements.

The general plan is as follows:

- 7th grade—elementary woodwork and sketching
- 8th grade—household mechanics and sketching
- 9th grade—advanced woodwork, machine shop, and drawing
- 10th grade—auto mechanics and drawing.

In the 11th and 12th grades, as stated above, there should be technical courses in machine and architectural drawing. If there is sufficient teaching force and equipment for advanced shop work in grades 11 and 12 it can be carried on successfully. Drawing at least should be continued.

Courses in machine shop and auto mechanics may be too extensive for a small city. In that case a rather simple general shop based on wood-working may be installed. In the case of a rural community we recommend at least one year of farm shop work, an excellent outline for which will be found in the January, 1925, number of the *Industrial Arts Magazine*.

In some of the larger cities of Michigan we have found a different problem. There are a large number of boys and girls 14-16 years of age who do not fit into the regular curriculum and who cannot or do not wish to learn a skilled trade. Chances for employment under 16 years of age are very limited. The school must fill the gap.

A Smith-Hughes program of three hours shop and three hours classroom work was first tried. Later it was changed to 1½ hours shop and 1½ hours classroom work. This proved to be more satisfactory and was finally adopted as a standard program. The shop work is of a general industrial nature and the classroom work consists of English, arithmetic, drawing, social science, and gymnasium work. All periods, whether in classroom or shop, are called "work periods." There are no recitations in any subject.

The school is called the junior vocational school, and its purpose is to prepare the boys and girls for employment or to send them on to the senior vocational school where they may learn a skilled trade. In one city, truants and problem cases from the entire system were sent to this one school. In spite of this fact, the attendance compared favorably with that in any other school. You may say that such a school ought to become a real vocational school, meeting Smith-Hughes requirements. It may do so in time. At present it seems best to give it a free field without any preconceived plans or standards.

In another case it was found that even the problem of education in the skilled trades was not to be solved by Smith-Hughes courses.

The city of Fordson is one of the large industrial centers of the world. Within it are located the Henry Ford River Rouge Plant, Graham-Paige Motor Company, Seamless Steel Tube Company, five large brick manufacturing concerns, and numerous other smaller manufacturing plants. It is also only six miles from the center of the city of Detroit. It is apparently an ideal situation for Smith-Hughes industrial courses. Before coming to that decision, let us look at the labor conditions. Detroit is one city in the world, perhaps *the* one city, in which there is always a surplus of labor. There are at least three reasons for this.

1. Detroit is near Canada. Men easily come across the line.
2. It is not far from the Atlantic Seaboard and immigrants are attracted in large numbers by high wages in the automobile industry.
3. The dying out of the lumber industry in the north has caused many families to move into the southern part of the southern peninsula and especially into Detroit.

With this surplus of both skilled and unskilled labor, it is a difficult matter to convince an employer that the public school should be training more mechanics. Labor laws also enter in. It is a difficult matter for a boy under eighteen years of age to enter industry in Michigan because of severely restrictive labor laws. The penalty for illegal employment of minors is double compensation. Insurance companies are not desirous of paying double compensation and advise employers to employ no one under eighteen years of age. With the surplus of adult workers mentioned above this is not a difficult policy to follow.

A census of employment for boys sixteen years of age and over showed the following lines of work:

Errand boy.....	18	Delivery service.....	25
Office help.....	21	Newsboy	2
Messenger service.....	51	Machine hand.....	10
Drafting	2	Janitor work.....	5
Clerical work.....	11	Garage work.....	3
Stock room.....	15	Common labor.....	5
Bakery	2	Cigar factory helper.....	2
Drug store.....	3		
Service station.....	2	Total	177

A survey of boys shown by the last school census to be sixteen years of age on or before September 1, 1927, showed the following:

	Percent
In school	37.5
Moved away	11.5
Employed	15
Unemployed	22
In special schools and working out of town.....	14

The situation may be summed up briefly as follows: The jobs available for boys offer little chance of advancement, and there are more than enough boys to fill these jobs. The gap between the age of sixteen years when the boy leaves school and eighteen years when he is free from restrictive

labor laws is very evident. The only agency which can fill the gap is a vocational fulltime school. Effective training on the job in the form of apprenticeship for boys under eighteen years of age is difficult.

Fortunately for Fordson, Henry Ford has established a trade school in the River Rouge plant similar to the original one in Highland Park.

With such a school located in Fordson, it seemed very unwise to attempt to duplicate its work under public auspices. Efforts were, therefore, centered on developing a program which would fit into the trade school plan.

Two plans were offered:

1. To organize a pretrade school course on a Smith-Hughes all-day trade basis for a limited number.

2. To organize prevocational or tryout courses on a non-Smith-Hughes basis providing for increasing specialization in the senior high school.

The latter plan and the following program was adopted:

1. Elementary manual arts and drawing in grades 7 and 8.
2. Elective shop work one hour per day and drawing one hour per day in the 9th grade.
3. Two hours shop work and one hour drawing per day in the 10th grade.
4. Three hours shop and one hour drawing per day in the 11th grade.
5. In the 12th grade the entire time may be devoted to shop and related work except one hour. U. S. History is required for this one hour.

Boys may and do drop out of this course at any time and enter the Henry Ford trade school. Up to the present time ninety-three have done so.

Looking at the matter in the light of our experience as cited above our conclusions are as follows:

1. That general industrials or cooperative courses in small cities are possible only in a limited number of cases. Strong manual arts courses on a non-Smith-Hughes basis are more commonly applicable.

2. A junior vocational school is desirable for 14-16-year-olds who are not ready to learn a skilled trade. This may or may not be on a Smith-Hughes basis, preferably on a non-Smith-Hughes basis.

3. In at least one large industrial center cooperation with a private trade school is better and less costly than establishing an independent plan of industrial education under public supervision and control.

CHANGING CONDITIONS OF WORK FOR WOMEN AS IT AFFECTS VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

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What "complete economic independence of women" will contribute to our philosophy of living, what changes it will bring about in our human relations or how we will meet these changes is as yet a closed book and yet economic independence is far on its way. Do not the census figures show, year by year, a slow but inexorable increase in the number of women gainfully employed; an increasing number of married women listed among the workers and a greater and greater number of the older group in contrast to the hordes of young women and girls who are offering their work to the world for wages?

But even more important is the change which is coming over the thinking of this every day world of ours. No longer, even in the great middle class, is "a woman's going to work" a matter for commiseration, but the interested gossip concerns itself with the merits of the job which she has undertaken. Even the reasons for this exercise of what would seem to be a very natural right are now seldom questioned unless by an occasional employer who may possibly still feel that the puny opposition of individuals can change or affect materially great movements.

Women are going to work for one reason and one only—to raise or defend the standard of living of the families to which they belong. This is true of the young untrained girl who, as soon as she legally can, gets her job and turns in to her family the pittance that she earns in order that the meager and skimpy living conditions under which the family is existing may be somewhat expanded. Equally is it true of the young married couple who both continue lucrative employment in order to secure a better start in social or business life. The daughter of the well-to-do father has the same end in view when she undertakes her own support in order that the family may afford a better home or a better car or more frequent pleasure excursions or possibly a maid.

The danger most feared among laborers and by many employers from this incursion is that work will be taken away from the men, thus increasing the evils of unemployment and the already great difficulties of the ordinary man in earning a wage upon which his family can live. Possibly, this fear is more threatening than real. The size of the market limits production and, as a corollary, employment. We are now producing more goods than the wages paid to the laborers and the great middle salaried class—the world's best market—will purchase. Our wants are already stimulated far beyond our power to satisfy them. The increased purchasing power of the family wage supplemented by the work of the women of the family may help solve the problem of an enlarged market. The greater manufacturing opportunities which will result from this bigger market will probably not diminish the man's chance for labor as much as anticipated.

But the real danger is that the women, due to their inexperience in bargaining, to their lack of skill in work, to their natural timidity, and to their lack of knowledge of labor conditions will become an increasingly cheap source of labor. Work is not slavery, far from it, for it is the salvation of any individual, but work for an insufficient wage, a wage which fills the soul with a constant terror of the wolves of the world, is slavery and the person who must so labor is a slave in the worst sense, and the presence of any large group of underpaid workers brings in to the body politic all the evils of slavery. And in this case the thought is most unthinkable, for we are not dealing with a group of helpless foreigners, not with a race hampered with traditions of slavery, not with an unintelligent minority, but with a half of ourselves and as their condition is, so will ours be also.

The state, then, is wise which is recognizing this tremendous new power creeping into its industrial and business life and utilizing it for its welfare and advancement; which is protecting by wise legislation its women workers from the worst evils of inexperience on one hand and greed and exploitation on the other; which is developing side by side its vocational education for boys and girls so that there may be no difference in the training of its men and its women workers to lead to a feeling of superiority and inferiority; which is regarding all of its workers as citizens regardless of sex, leaving to individuals the adjusting of their relations one with another to the best interests of home and family life.

Tangible evidence of this wisdom on the part of some communities is easily obtained by a survey of the buildings and equipment devoted to the vocational education of its girls and women. When the Manhattan Trade School, the first really adequate building for vocational work for girls was being built, there was still a controversy raging in New York as to whether such work was worth what it was costing. So warm became this discussion and so improbable the chance that the building would be used for its original purpose that the school moved in long before the building was completed and the girls sat on boxes, dodged machinery, and stood many inconveniences for many months in order to file their claim, so to speak, to their own building. Since that time, nearly every city of prominence, except Minneapolis, which has tried out the work has provided suitable quarters for such training and in all such communities vocational education is regarded and cared for as an integral part of the educational system. In the east, the rule is separate schools for girls and boys and often for different trades; in the west, with its broader, more democratic ideals, no distinction in industry between the sexes is recognized and no distinction in training. The new Frank Wiggins Trade School for both men and women in the center of Los Angeles is a monument to the work which is being carried on in that city.

In each city the development of vocational education depends entirely upon the labor ideals of the majority of its citizens. In communities where work conditions are satisfactory, where wages are high and where the conditions for the laborer are good, there vocational education flourishes; but in places where the employment situation is chaotic, where wages are unstandardized, where adequate laws and public conscience fail to protect the worker, there vocational education fails, for it must have the support of both employer and employee and cannot survive where either is lacking.

CHANGE

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The average industrial education teacher has had sharply brought to his attention illustrations of the changing technology in certain parts of industrial occupations which he represents in the school curriculum.

Translating these outstanding factors of change in our present generation and focusing on certain conclusions, we are confronted with the following as some of the present pertinent considerations for industrial teachers.

Heretofore organizations or combinations of teachers have been in many respects horizontal. By this I mean junior high-school teachers have had a tendency to flock together and assume that they did not have much in common with the vocational school teacher. The teacher of college work has had an idea that he should flock with college teachers rather than bother with mixing with the junior and senior high-school teachers. To meet the conditions which adults will confront when leaving the American public school, instruction in industrial courses should be given in sequence progression. The pupil at any time of his industrial work in school should be given instruction by a teacher who consciously and clearly has that pupil located somewhere along the line of his individual vocational progress.

In the studies being made by industrial teachers to maintain their professional skill, the industrial teacher should interpret his responsibility with considerable breadth and depth. He should interpret the breadth of his position to include not only the actual teaching of his classes but sharp responsibility shared sometimes with other members of a curriculum committee in the selection of appropriate instructional content. He must also interpret the breadth of his position to include work by himself or with a group in the analysis of content for instruction. In defining the depth of his position and his responsibility, he must include in his teaching work not only the solving of the problems of the teaching of the lesson of each day, but also the problems of the unit plan and the problems of the curriculum plan. In interpreting the depth of the selection phase of his responsibility he must be able to identify the pupils of the different groups in a given subject, to identify a given subject in the several curriculum, and to understand the significance of and be able to identify the administrative classifications of pupils. In curriculum building he must be thoroughly acquainted with the lines of possible educational progress through the curriculums of the American public school. He must have a working knowledge of the demands of society to a degree that enables him to place appropriate selections from the occupations which he represents in the correct places in the several lines of available educational progress in the public school. In interpreting the depth of the analysis phase of his responsibility he must not be satisfied with analysis of the daily job to be taught to the pupil, but must have at hand for his immediate use a well-planned analysis of overview scope of the occupation which he represents and of the occupational group in which it is a member. If he is teaching a subject he must have a similar overview analysis of the subject and also of the subject group of which the subject is a member.

In looking over the current new developments in industrial education one can see the results of change in the requirements in teacher qualifica-

tions. In assuming that the teacher's professional skill has three phases, namely analysis, selection, and teaching and that each phase carries distinct requirements in performance, in requirements of technic or procedure and requirements of teacher knowledge and that these requirements are on the lesson subject and curriculum levels, current developments are easy to find to illustrate the trend of change.

To sum up the conclusions. Industrial teachers should regard education as beginning with a very young child and continuing throughout the individual's life. Industrial teachers should recognize problems in common with all industrial teachers, regardless of kind of work or grade level of instruction. Industrial teachers should work on the philosophy that some of what is good today is slightly out of date tomorrow and is replaced the day after with something new. The industrial teacher should regard change as being in the field of personnel relationships in the field of fact and skill content and in the field of teaching method. He should keep himself posted in these phases. The industrial teacher should work under the belief that the individual pupil has a right to a continuous, progressive industrial experience and that such instruction as the individual teacher gives the individual pupil should interlock with what has gone before and what is to come. Lastly, if the industrial teacher will regard his responsibility in his teaching position as including responsibility not only in teaching but in the selection and analysis phases and will regard these three phases in the depth as indicated, he will be a live, uptodate individual, capitalizing on change.

THE DEMANDS OF CHANGING INDUSTRY UPON THE SCHOOLS

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In our own school system, many of our poorest teachers get the best pay because they have the highest scholastic standing. Those who have persistently devoted themselves to conscientious performance of school tasks and through experience have obtained the real knowledge of how to manage children, remain on the lower rung of the salary schedule because they have not received paper credits for the knowledge they have gained outside of school.

It is with some fear and trembling, therefore, that I come before this assembly without either a questionnaire or a test as the basis for the logic and reasoning of this discussion.

Teacher qualification—Vocational and manual arts education has been compelled to recognize, however, the value of experience in the teaching field, although there are still many schools who prefer to employ men with no experience in industry except a few hours of practice in a training school to those who have proven their ability to master the subject by having been able to hold their own in a competitive field of business and industry.

Duluth has taken the stand in regard to its vocational and manual arts teachers that the first requisite of a good manual arts teacher is a knowledge of the subject through actual experience in the field of industry. The second is a mind desirous of learning and studying. The third is the ability and desire to convey to others the knowledge which has been gained through study and experience. Add to this a training in the field of teaching and we prefer the man with experience to the man with a longer training in teaching and academic information and no experience in the field of actual practice. The teaching experience is a specific training which, provided there is a proper desire and mental capacity to succeed, can be attained in a relatively short time. We have gone upon the theory that four years of successful practise in an industry is equivalent to two years of study in an institution, and have so rated our teachers. Dr. Thorndike is authority for the statement that a four-year course of training in industry is equivalent to a four-year course in high school, assuming that the person who is in the industry applies his mind in the study of his job as conscientiously as he would apply his mind in the study of class work in a high school. I maintain that this recognition of the work done in industry should be universally recognized and given credit in the selection of vocational and manual arts teachers.

Curriculums—Every school system is necessarily confronted with the questions—What curriculum shall we offer? How much time to each subject? What shall be their relation to the other elements of the school system? In answering these questions, naturally the demands of the taxpayers would compel the educators who expected to remain in the job to give some attention to local industry.

Duluth has four major occupations: 1, shipping; 2, wholesale distribution; 3, woodworking industries, principally sash and door; and 4, steel plant. There were, the past year, 615 graduates, 256 boys and 359 girls, from the high schools of Duluth. Approximately fifty percent will continue their education in college, vocational schools, business schools, teacher training schools, etc. to prepare for some line of the various professions for which their high-school education has met the preparatory entrance requirements. The other fifty percent must enter industry here or elsewhere. Duluth cannot and does not absorb a large number of machinists, printers, sheet metal workers, or stenographers. Perhaps it is fortunate in some respects that public school administrators are not faced with the merciless competition which every business must meet. If they were, doubtless many valuable courses now offered, bread and butter competition would eliminate from the school system. Nevertheless, it behooves the school administrator to be able to justify to some extent the reason why the courses are offered in his school system. In spite of the facts above mentioned, Duluth has excellent machine shops in all its senior high schools, mechanical drafting, foundry practise, automobile repair, and pattern making. In the junior high schools are to be found courses in sheet metal, forge, printing, wood turning, cabinet making, and electricity.

On what ground may we offer such courses, if we already know that there is not sufficient demand in local industries to employ all of these students in these various fields should they wish employment? Our answer, which I take from the general knowledge of the courses offered in high schools throughout the country, must be the answer which a large number of high schools and junior high schools would give.

First, for purposes of general education—This is a machine age. Twenty years ago fifty percent of our population were engaged in agriculture. Now less than thirty percent are engaged in agriculture. Through farm machinery, there has been a constantly increasing production.

You are all familiar with the recent changes in the Ford and Dodge factories, in which they have scrapped millions of dollars worth of excellent machinery and spent millions of dollars more in new machinery to meet changing demands and to decrease the cost of production and consequently the number of men employed in this production. Twenty years ago a friend of mine bought an automobile and invited me to ride with him. In his excitement, he said: "The darn thing will go twenty miles an hour!"

Ten years ago, we were worried about having enough manual labor to do the work of the day. Today we are worried about the unemployment situation. Tomorrow we shall be worried because we have not enough men of skill to fill jobs which require knowledge of new and more complex machinery. There isn't a very bright prospect for the man who has only a pair of hands to work with. Brute force is out of date, and a man is a good deal like a nail. He can't get much farther than his head will let him. It may be that there has been no change in the general intelligence level, but there has been a tremendous change in the knowledge which a person is required to have in order to make a living, and that knowledge has come to mean a general knowledge of machinery, understanding cogs and gears and wheels, inclined planes. This perhaps is no higher form of intelligence than that required of the pioneer who went out and by brute force earned his living from the soil, but the modern industrial world is different from the world of the pioneer and requires a different form of educational training.

Second, for the purpose of guidance and occupational selection—Modern business requires a knowledge and understanding of the human element. In the last twenty years, business has changed from the small factory of the entrepreneur to the corporation. In that shift from small factory to large corporation, we have gone through the period which might be called the soulless corporation. Modern business has learned through sad and expensive experience, that a soulless corporation does not pay. It is not profitable.

The chain stores and the factory to consumer selling, are gradually wiping out the corner grocery. The school people must do what the corner grocery must do. If the chain store is wiping the corner grocery

out of business, the corner grocery must find out under what principles the chain stores are successful and apply them to their own stores.

It seems to us, that the school's answer to the problem of changing business is an attempt by educational guidance to direct the student into that form of occupation which is suited to his capacity and ability; to give him an understanding of himself so he may adapt his capacity to modern conditions and make the best out of that which nature and nurture have given him.

There is, therefore, to my mind, an increasing demand for general education courses which give that general information in regard to machinery which is required of everybody, even those who live in a modern home; that the information which is given be specific and that work required in doing it be well done; that each individual, through educational guidance and direction, find, while attending school, that form of occupation which is most suited to his capacity and ability, so that he may continue further his studies in this field in the university or college, or may drop into the field of business and continue his education along practical lines with a measure of success.

UNIT COURSES FROM THE ADMINISTRATIVE VIEWPOINT

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Our purpose is not to attempt to justify unit courses or any field of home economics. Constructive thinking requires, first, a statement of objectives, and, second, the selection of that subjectmatter only which will contribute to those objectives.

It is impossible, of course, in a short paper of this kind to indicate more than a brief general statement of objectives. First of all, we must clearly distinguish between education for vocation and that general education which is received from the other six objectives of health, fundamentals, home life, leisure, citizenship, and character. Unfortunately, educational science has not yet given us satisfactory scientifically selected objectives, and we must, therefore, still depend upon empirical statements. What are the items upon which there is pretty general agreement?

Every girl should have the facts, interests, ideals, habits, and skills that make for healthy physical living. Just as personal health is important, so are domestic and community hygiene important. Even more important are emotional health and mental hygiene. Mental hygiene is the most badly neglected field in present education. What are the public schools doing to teach people the art and science of being happy and helping others to be happy?

Every girl and woman must have the knowledge and skills that are fundamental. While other departments must accept responsibility for abilities to use figures, to read intelligently, to speak and write the English

language correctly and effectively, to write a hand that is rapidly legible, home economics teachers must correlate and cooperate. There are many opportunities in the household budgets, in supplementary reading material, in oral reports, and in written work. Some of the best silent reading I have seen has been in a class in home economics.

Home economics people are the champions of the home. They have the greatest opportunities in developing household artists and engineers. It is more than cooking and sewing. It is buying and selling, budgeting, interior decorating, landscaping and gardening, architecture, household mechanics, care of children, etc. It is training the girl to properly use her leisure time and, more important still, to develop in her those qualities that will enable her to help others to use their leisure time.

Citizenship consists of getting along with people and doing one's duty at home, at school, at church, in the community, and to state and nation. Character consists of many specific habits of right living and the ideal of right choice. Home economics teachers in modern schools do more than polish pans and thread needles. They accept the common responsibilities of all teachers in making citizens of character.

All of these things deal with general education. Every girl should be so equipped. In fact, boys should be taught most of these things. A future servantless society and the emancipation of women plus constructive thinking about the whole problem will make it imperative to equip our prospective husbands with useful facts, interests, and skills. General education will require that every girl be given the common essentials in home art and domestic engineering.

In general, we have two classes of girls, those who enter the ninth grade with little or no home economics and those who have had at least two good years of work. Immediately the problem is apparent. Is it not perfectly clear that the traditional and conservative schools must give rich courses in the ninth and tenth grades and numerous short units in the upper grades?

Even in the modern, well organized systems we must supplement our required work with short changing units. The needs of girls and the needs of boys differ. Disregarding the boys, we have many differences among girls. They differ widely in intelligence, social and cultural background, physical and nervous conditions, educational and vocational plans, and responsibility and ability of maternal instruction. Some girls need much more work; some need widely differing activities.

To meet these needs it is proposed that our work be so correlated and cooperated with the whole modern program of the well organized school that it will be possible to take care of all domestic minimum essentials by the end of the junior high-school period. This probably means more work required of every girl. It will not be our function in grades ten, eleven, and twelve to develop cooks, chefs, or seamstresses. We shall need to provide a rich program consistent with the objectives suggested in the first part of the paper. This paper contends for many and varied short

courses. It is not practical to organize a class for less than a semester or term, but even a semester's work can be subdivided.

Some of the suggested courses and fields of instruction are household plumbing, household electricity, use of common tools, how to keep the family happy, child study, care of infants, psychology, children's interests in reading, indoor games, decorative needlework, design, rugs and drapes, flowers and vases, organization of a business meeting, landscaping and gardening, woodwork, and the art of beautiful wood, meal serving, boys' cooking, boys' sewing, camp cooking, etc.

These things are general education, and the democratization of art and the evolution of standards of appreciation plus the new leisure seem to make such a program imperative. Different interests, needs, and abilities will cause different elections, different hobbies, different fields for further study and specialization. Only the rare school in our largest cities and vocational schools can give strictly vocational training in these lines.

It is the purpose of a school administration to serve the schools; it will be the duty of the principal to furnish the necessary machinery. It really is not difficult. Given a properly trained teacher with the necessary pedagogical, technical, and cultural background, and the job can be done. Consider that the typical high school has only a hundred students, sixty of them girls. Forty of these girls will be in grades ten to twelve. A single teacher in that small school can give four offerings each semester, eight a year if necessary. It would, if desired, be possible for every one of the forty senior high-school girls to come in contact with twenty-four units in the three years. This many probably would not be necessary or desirable, but it is possible in the smallest of schools to give a rich program of numerous short units. As the school grows larger, the work becomes easier. A metropolitan high school of four teachers can take care of every demand. There will be no difficulty with principals; it is their job to promote education. The important things in perfecting a modern program are objectified thinking by us all, a growing away from the old cooking and sewing conception, and properly trained teachers.

PROGRESS IN CHILD TRAINING AND PARENT EDUCATION

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A discussion of the progress of the program of child development and parental education as a part of home economics has special significance for public school teachers, as it is to this group we must look if the development of this phase of home economics instruction is to permanently affect homemaking in this country.

The survey of child development and parental education in home economics, which has just been published by the American Home Economics

Association, is most encouraging, for it reveals widespread interest in this work and a genuine appreciation of its importance as a part of the public school program. Returns were received from the state supervisor of home economics in the forty-eight states, the territorial supervisors of home economics in Hawaii and Porto Rico, and from 91 city supervisors widely scattered throughout the country. Courses were reported in more than 2000 day schools. Ten state and 14 city supervisors reported part-time classes and 26 state and 14 city supervisors reported adult classes. Two states, Oklahoma and Nebraska, reported outstanding programs for parent training. Oklahoma has reported 255 "mothercraft" units which have been organized during the past year in 5 cities by a staff of 5 full-time teachers. Nebraska reported 64 "mother training" classes organized in 10 cities by a parent training staff of 18 parttime teachers.

The reports from the supervisors showed that child training is being offered to girls, occasionally to boys, in junior and senior high schools and in parttime classes, as well as to parents in adult classes. This seems wise, for although there are certain aspects of child care that can best be taught to parents who are facing the immediate problems of child management, yet girls of this age are interested in the young child and experience shows that much fundamental instruction, particularly in the physical care of the child, can be successfully offered to them. Furthermore, many teachers are discovering that child care and management which is based on a study of the problems of the all-round development of the child is of great value in helping the adolescent girl and boy to understand some of their own problems. The study of the behavior of the young child reveals the cause of many adult problems and in trying to understand the reason for children's difficulties, help is gained in meeting their own. Wisely taught, the course has helped young people to understand the development of desirable personality traits and the importance of certain fundamentals as a basis for successful family life. The course seems, therefore, to have important immediate, as well as deferred educational value.

The survey showed that the majority of the courses deal with the infant and the pre-school child and emphasize the physical development and care and the education of the child, with brief discussion of the mental, social and emotional development.

Most of the supervisors reporting provide for the girls' experience in observation and care of small children and many interesting cooperative projects providing for such experiences were carried out with day nurseries, kindergartens, elementary grades, child caring institutions, playground associations, public health and welfare workers, and in the girls' homes or in the homes of neighbors. Eight schools reported contact with nursery schools. As nursery schools will probably be quite limited for a number of years, kindergartens probably offer the best opportunities for observation under the supervision of child training specialists.

The Highland Park high school is the outstanding example of a public school equipped to adequately offer child care to its students. Their nursery school, which was organized in cooperation with the Merrill-Palmer school, is now financed by the school. As superintendents appreciate the value of child care as a part of the home economics instruction, many more schools will follow the lead of Highland Park. With the aid of the Merrill-Palmer school, one of the elementary schools in Detroit has opened a nursery school. The results of this experiment will be watched with interest.

Progress in child development and parental education, as in all other fields of education, is dependent upon teachers who are trained in the fundamental of the work and who are able to offer courses fitted to the needs of the students. It was, therefore, gratifying to find that the survey reported 148 colleges as offering residence courses in child care and that in 27 of these the home economics students have the opportunity for observation and experience in a nursery school. The scope of the courses vary quite widely in the several colleges offering the courses. In some it consists largely of a theoretical course in the physical development of the infant, while in the colleges where the work is better developed, a group of courses are offered covering the physical, emotional and intellectual development of the child and the students are given an opportunity to assist with the care of children under the supervision of well-trained child specialists.

In both the colleges and the public schools home economics has affected good cooperation with other subjectmatter departments. This is of the greatest significance in the progress of the movement, for home economics alone cannot hope to cover the entire field of child care, it demands the application of most of the basic work offered. Home economics has taken the lead in organizing the work in the schools and this is well, for no other department offers courses designed primarily to train for better homemaking. But having taken the lead in the development of the course, the next most important move is to strengthen these courses by gaining the help and cooperation of all departments that have any contribution to make to the course, and of all local specialists and organizations interested in the care and development of the young child. A selfcentered program means a limited one—a cooperative program means growth for the course and for all who participate in it.

As the public schools are dependent upon the colleges for well-trained teachers, so the colleges must look to the research institutions for assistance in keeping the programs scientifically sound and in extending the scope of their work. Ten colleges reported research in child development conducted by members of home economics staffs and eight of these research workers have their doctor's degrees in this field. In the past three years 48 women trained in home economics have received fellowships for advance study in child development and parental education and many more

have given up good teaching positions to go in for additional training. These facts all indicate sound progress of the program.

Before closing this discussion I want very briefly to refer to a few of the special projects in which the American Home Economics Association is cooperating.

The most important of these is the Washington Child Research Center. You will probably recall that the American Home Economics Association was given a three year grant to establish in Washington a center for child study and parent education. This center was opened in February of this year as a cooperative enterprise, in which eight agencies are working together in promoting the program. The center is under the direction of Dr. Mandel Sherman, formerly of Northwestern University, assisted by a well-trained staff of nursery school teachers. The work of the center includes (1) a nursery school of 24 children, (2) a clinic in which 20 children have been enroled, (3) parent training, (4) student classes, and (5) research. The results of study and research will be available to the eight agencies cooperating in the project and it is expected that from it will come valuable assistance for teachers of home economics who are interested in this phase of the work.

The Association is taking an active part in the National Council of Parental Education, which was organized to bring together agencies conducting programs in this field. Edna N. White is chairman of the council and the Association has representation on the governing board.

The Association is also interested in the international developments in this field and it was represented at the Fifth Pan American Child Congress held in Havana, December, 1927. This Congress was planned to promote higher standards for child welfare throughout the Americas and many forward-looking steps were taken to this end.

Two special studies are of interest. One "Home Management in Relation to Child Development," is being conducted with the help of the alumnae of the two home economics honor fraternities, Phi Upsilon Omicron and Omicron Nu. Up to date 1500 women have sent in material and plans have been made by which it will be compiled by a home economics fellowship student working under Dr. Earnest Groves. She will analyze and interpret the returns for the dissertation for her doctor's degree.

The other is a preliminary study of the best courses that are being offered in the junior and senior high schools. One hundred fifty-four teachers in forty-one states have sent in brief outlines of the best lessons taught with a list of the books and references found most useful, and other data which is of value for teachers in the public schools.

These studies, together with the survey of child development and parental education, which is now available from either my office or that of the business manager, offer important assistance to all who are anxious to improve their preparation for offering child care courses.

In closing I wish to stress once more the importance of the teacher and her training. The public is interested and administrators are earnestly

backing the program. The progress of this most important phase of home economics is, therefore, in your hands—the hands of the public school teachers. Develop programs built of the best materials available from specialists in this field and which are adapted to the needs and experiences of your students and the future of the work is assured.

MANAGEMENT RELATIONSHIPS TO CHILD DEVELOPMENT

MILDRED WEIGLEY WOOD, STATE SUPERVISOR OF HOME ECONOMICS,
PHOENIX, ARIZONA

We have been developing with great rapidity two separate lines of interest in homemaking. One is that of a study of the nature and development of children and the other the study of what home management is. Right now we are at the point where we are seeing the importance of showing the relation which exists between these two.

There are certain assumptions which we must make before we can discuss this question. The first is that a happy home life is important for children. The second, that there is a relationship between good management and successful family life and successful family life we interpret to be happy family life.

The first statement needs no comment to those who are interested in the field of child development. The second statement that there is a relationship between good management and successful family life is apparent to everyone but just what the relationships between effective management and child development are is perhaps less clearly thought out.

In considering this problem, we must recognize that we are not discussing efficient but effective management. Many of the more difficult child behavior problems which I have seen, have arisen out of the home that has been run from the more usual interpretation of "efficient" with reference to time, money and effort but they cannot be said to have been run effectively.

In trying to see the relationship which exists between home management and child development, we are interested first in seeing what are the steps in effective management and how they apply to child development. We may list the steps as six.

1. *Study the needs of the family*—These vary because of the development of children, yet many times material plans to meet these needs are not varied. This is often seen in the physical care of a child which may be the prime concern in early years in order that a child may get the right start whereas later the problems of educational and social direction for adolescents require the larger part of thought and time of those who manage. This means that plans must be made elastic enough to vary with the changing needs of the family.

2. *Consider resources*—No management is effective unless the manager takes account of stock securing the greatest satisfactions from the wise expenditures of limited resources. A question we need to ask is, to what extent are we directing a consideration of these resources with reference to the development of children first.

3. *Make a plan*—The extent of satisfaction is increased or decreased by the amount of foresight in the home. This is particularly true with reference to children.

4. *Live by the plan*—This requires selfcontrol, perseverance, and confidence for a plan of any type. Particularly is it true of plans made for problems related to child behavior. Many a failure in handling a child behavior problem is not because of lack of appreciation of the problem or a good plan for solving it but an inability to live by the plan.

5. *Check on results*—Executives in well managed factories are not content with dictating sets of instructions or handing out work sheets. Nor are they satisfied in knowing that plans have not been followed. Neither are homemakers satisfied in planning new combinations for meals or new methods of serving without seeing whether they will be satisfactory to family members and to other factors of time and effort. Yet, do we check on our plans for developing certain behavior in a child? We must check on results of plans for child development both for the sake of progress of the child and for the sake of parents' satisfaction which in turn helps much to provide the right type of environment for a child.

6. *Perfect the plan*—Progress is evolutionary rather than revolutionary and the plan that is ultimately successful is usually an outgrowth of some previous plan. This is done repeatedly by homemakers in planning for food, for clothing, for time, etc., but again is it done so much with plans for children? If a plan adopted for teaching a child to be independent works fairly well, do we go on to perfect it as we do in other phases of management until it works extremely well?

There is another aspect of the problems of relationship which must be recognized in securing the best management relationship to child behavior. This is the point of view that we are after in the all-around developed child. We are interested in the child that is developed physically, mentally, emotionally, and socially. In home management there are factors related to child behavior in all these phases of development which must be recognized. We can set up a plan for management which recognizes physical development or one which does not. We can show that plans may be made to secure adequate amount of sleep, the right type of clothing, proper food and proper food habits, or we can set up a plan which ignores these very things. In mental development we can again work out a scheme of management by which there are the right conditions and equipment for developing independence, for forming good habits, for leading to obedience rather than disobedience, for avoiding contrariness, for providing time and opportunities, for the discipline which educates. Emotional development too is not unrelated to the best sort of management. We cannot expect to provide the conditions for a child which will help to control anger, to develop love, to avoid jealousy, to teach how to meet disappointment, if there is not time for thought on these problems.

In the same manner the social and moral development in children is very closely related to the type of planning which provides a reasonable amount of leisure both of time and thought for homemakers. The extent to which questioning and curiosity will be developed, the way in which a child's concept of truth and falsehood is built up, the development of imagination and the attitude of a child toward play, are all bound up closely in home management problems.

Finally, we may say that the relation between child development and management problems in the home are infinite. Until we make a more careful study of them and put them into our teaching, we cannot expect to get the greatest returns from our information on what child development should be.

Good social behavior rarely comes out of an illy managed home. Where, however, the management is carried out with the thought primarily centered on the effect on family relations and providing a stable, unemotional happy environment, we can anticipate good social behavior.

UNIT COURSES IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

EMELINE S. WHITCOMB, SPECIALIST IN HOME ECONOMICS, BUREAU OF EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Upon the invitation of Miss Kelly to report the extent home economics subjectmatter in junior and senior high schools is organized into unit courses, a letter was formulated stating specifically what was wanted and sent by the Bureau of Education to 63 city and most of the state supervisors of home economics. Of this number 32 city and 27 state supervisors replied.

Eighteen of the city supervisors reporting have organized home economics into unit courses in the junior high schools.

Of the 27 state supervisors replying, 22 report that their home economics courses are organized on the unit plan.

The organization of home economics subjectmatter into lessons is fast being replaced by the unit or topical or project or problem plan. Around a few outstanding subjects in each grade are grouped the problems concerned with the subject. For example, a foods course for the seventh grade of a progressive junior high school considered three topics. They were: (1) Housewifery; (2) Health; (3) Meal planning and cooking for special occasions.

The girl's problems arising around topic 1 were:

1. What must the girl be taught that she may do more, help more, know more, etc.
2. What are some of the responsibilities of the home maker?
3. What ones may the seventh-grade girl share?
4. What does she need to know before she can cook in the home or school kitchen?
5. What does she need to know about cleaning materials to keep the kitchen in a sanitary condition; and about other related problems.

Problems arising under topic 2:

What is the relation of health to food preparation? How certain foods are prepared; why? The functions of foods. These questions stimulate thought, arouse the girls' interests and create desires to assist in the affairs of the home.

How different is this organization from what we used to have when every activity was outlined for the child. Now she has a large part in planning the course.

The outcomes of the foregoing procedures are knowledge, habits and skills. For example: Topic 1 aims to develop a knowledge of the responsibilities of the home maker and a junior high school girl's share in them.

Topic 3 aims to develop an appreciation of the importance of home and family life.

The 18 cities reporting list for the seventh grade the following topics:

<i>Number of cities</i>	<i>Topics</i>
3.....	Cleanliness and order.
9.....	Laundrying of linen.
2.....	Behavior.
1.....	Use of pocket money.
6.....	Meal planning and cooking for special occasions.
10.....	Food in relation to health.
3.....	Child care.
2.....	First aid, invalid cookery, care of the sick.
3.....	Home problems.
1.....	Household budgets.
2.....	Food for children; school lunches.
2.....	Housewifery.

In clothing for this same grade, the number of cities listed the following topics:

<i>Number of cities</i>	<i>Topics</i>
3.....	Hygiene of clothing.
4.....	Care of clothing.
2.....	Care and repair of hosiery.
2.....	Personal appearance.
2.....	Patching.
7.....	Selection and construction of clothing.
5.....	Machine.
3.....	Textile study.
2.....	Laundrying of garments.
2.....	Family relationships.
2.....	The girl's room.
2.....	Uses of leisure time.
2.....	Clothing choice—undergarments.
2.....	Selection and construction of cotton dresses.
1.....	Accessories of dress.
1.....	Children's clothing.
1.....	Christmas problems.
1.....	Beautifying the home.

The units of the eighth grade of the 18 cities reporting are similar. Food preservation, child feeding and meal planning, especially dinners are added.

Again in the ninth grade the units are similar except a little more advanced.

We are in agreement that the organization of home economics subject-matter into specific units, projects, or problems is more in keeping with the ideas of progressive education than the former organization, of lessons—more or less unrelated. But are we in agreement that the same units should appear in the sixth, seventh and eighth grades whether in the

elementary or junior high schools? That is, shall the recurrence of the same name for topics or units appear in all of these years?

What may be the psychological effect of this procedure on the other junior high-school teachers, on the principals, and on the girls themselves?

From the standpoint of holding the girls' interest throughout the junior high school, or through the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the elementary school contrast the foregoing organization of home economics courses with the following:

Grades Seven and Eight, Two 60-minute Lessons a Week

<i>Grade Seven</i>		
	<i>Weeks</i>	<i>Topics</i>
Unit one	4- 5	Care of my room and use of the clothes closet.
Unit two	14-16	Clothing for the growing girl.
Unit three	14-16	Health habits and food for the school girl.

<i>Grade Eight</i>		
	<i>Weeks</i>	<i>Topics</i>
Unit one	14-16	Preparation of food for the home luncheon.
Unit two	14-16	Girl's cotton garments.
Unit three	3- 4	Care of young children.

Grades nine and ten, five 90-minute periods a week

<i>Grade Nine</i>		
	<i>Weeks</i>	<i>Topics</i>
Unit one	2- 4	Food preservation.
Unit two	1- 2	Social customs and courtesies.
Unit three	13-14	Meal planning and food preparation.
Unit four	15-18	Dress appreciation and clothing construction.

<i>Grade Ten</i>		
	<i>Weeks</i>	<i>Topics</i>
Unit one	2- 4	Family and social relationship.
Unit two	10-13	Construction and remodeling of wool and silk garments.
Unit three	4- 5	Child development and guidance.
Unit four	6- 9	Feeding the family.
Unit five	3- 5	Health and home nursing.
Unit six	8- 9	Home furnishing and care.

A UNIT COURSE IN HOME ECONOMICS AT MECHANIC ARTS HIGH SCHOOL

HELEN E. BUMGARDNER, MECHANIC ARTS HIGH SCHOOL, ST. PAUL, MINN.

Our purpose has been to help the girl to find herself through the study of personal problems and to help her to find her place in the world through contact and cooperation with people doing the world's work.

We have striven to set before each girl the ideal that to be socially efficient a person "must have good health; be able to support herself and those depending upon her; know how to use her leisure profitably; be able and willing to work with others; have high ideals and right habits."

The work was presented through five units: vocations, thrift, health, clothing, and etiquette. Enough time was spent on each subject to satisfy the needs and interests of the girls.

The study of vocations opened a new field to many. To face the real problem of how to get a job, find a room, live on \$60.00 a month, with much competition and little training was a startling revelation. A survey was made of positions open to girls with elementary, secondary, and university training. Each girl investigated the line of work for which she thought herself qualified. They were expected and encouraged to interview people in that work and to refer to books and magazines in their study. The results were interesting. One girl found that in order to qualify for a private secretary, she must have a university training. This was impossible. Another lost her ambition to be a nurse when she learned that she did not have the requisite patience, tact, and willingness to do the menial tasks required. Another decided to go to the "U" and study instead of being a stenographer. At the close of our study of this unit, reports had been made on twenty-five different occupations open to women.

From the problem of earning we passed to the problem of spending—spending money, spending time, spending energy. Budgets and accounts, although not popular, were a means of showing the extravagance of the American girl who often spends for things attractive in themselves but not necessary, and drove home the fact that wise planning of expenditure enables each to have necessities with more to spend for higher life. Each girl interviewed a friend who was earning less than \$100 a month and reported to the class how this income was spent. These reports formed a basis for the study of actual cases showing how income is spent and how it might have been spent to give greater satisfaction. How much time for school, study, reading, recreation, service for others, church, study of music or other arts, formed a part of the questionnaire which carried the students through one week. No definite rules could be laid down, for each had an individual problem. But all saw the necessity of exercising thrift in the use of time, energy, and effort if they were to enjoy life in its fullest sense.

The eight weeks spent on health centered around such questions as:

Can I compete with the normal girl if I am twenty pounds under weight?

Does an employer want a girl who is continually on the off time list?

Am I storing up health for the future by eating correctly?

What are the dangers of eating too much or too little?

How are high-heeled shoes detrimental?

How can I look my best?

Do my skin, nails, hair, and general appearance show the attention of a well groomed person?

Am I as attractive as I could be?

Weight graphs were kept over the entire period, adequate diets planned for various age groups; calories counted and personal problems in hygiene discussed. It was very gratifying to see the class respond in an effort to

be more healthy by the use of sensible shoes; by eating proper food; by taking better care of their bodies; by using less cosmetics; and by making a conscious effort to be normal in weight.

Our report would not be complete without reference to the time spent on clothing. The question of how much a high school girl should spend on her clothing and how much she does spend brought about heated discussions. A seasonal budget, a three-year clothing budget, and a budget for commencement clothes was submitted by each girl. Colors becoming the various types, color in costume, color in accessories formed a nucleus for the study of color harmony. A deep interest developed when the blondes, brunettes, intermediates, and red-haired types were given opportunity to show before the class the colors which were most becoming to them. We tried to leave with the girls the idea that to be well dressed one must be appropriately dressed; choose clothes carefully to enhance one's coloring, and that a person of refinement is always recognized by her choice of clothing.

The last unit was a brief study of etiquette. The problems were suggested by the girls and the discussions centered around table manners, introductions, etiquette for school, public places and travel. The girls felt a full semester could be spent on this subject with profit, for they never were sure about "what they should do or how they should act" and that "the boys always depended on them to know."

I am confident that the course has been a great help to students in enlarging their view point, helping them to see their responsibility, to think seriously, and to know that the biggest problem of life is social adjustment. The course stimulated the enrolment and in all probability it will in a short time be one of the required courses in our school.

HOME ECONOMICS FOR BOYS

ETHEL REEVE, MARSHALL HIGH SCHOOL, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

Surely no one of the seven objectives of education is more important or significant than that one we find listed as "More Worthy Home Life." As our major objectives of home economics teaching are to give training in the processes of homemaking and to develop a greater appreciation of the home and understanding of its function, and further since homemaking is a family job, not a one person job, surely it is reasonable and strongly desirable that boys as well as girls receive training along this line. Having had three such classes up to the present time, I feel that, while it is not all perfectly smooth sailing to direct such a group of active boys overflowing with surplus energies, there is a challenge in it that gives one a sense of satisfaction in trying to help in a cause that seems very worth while and far reaching.

The Tulsa course is the most completely developed course for boys as far as I have found and it was a great help toward planning the boy's course in its various units.

When the boys first came a questionnaire was given them to find out

what experiences they had had in homework, why they had come into this class, and what they hoped to learn. Their experiences were varied but most of them had had occasion to help out at home in various ways. Preparing meals when mother was away, helping aunt with canning, taking care of the sick, taking care of the house while mother was in the hospital, straightening up the house, helping clean house, pressing trousers, darning socks, cooking for five men on a camping trip, buying food for a hunting trip, were some of the experiences reported.

As to what they hoped to learn, they wanted to learn to cook, to do camp cookery, to cook meats, and to learn more in general about home problems.

With the necessary introductory discussion and some laboratory directions we started some laboratory work as early as possible as this seemed the best psychological approach. Many of the boys would have most of the work in the laboratory if they had their choice, but through their interest in this phase they can be interested in the other phases of home problems.

We outlined together the various problems connected with the home. This gives the boys a birdseye view of the course which they are helping to outline.

The first few weeks of each term has been spent on the foods and nutrition work, on the average about three days each are spent in the laboratory in the actual preparation of foods and the other days in study and discussion.

The boys study such dietary problems as selecting their food at home or in the cafeteria, their individual requirements and how to be sure they are met. Each boy keeps a record of meals actually eaten for one day, figuring out its calorific value and comparing the calories obtained with the number he should get. He is interested to find a close correlation here and this practical application makes the question of fuel value more real and gives point to the dietary work.

The household management part of the work is then taken up before the food work is finished as it has seemed best to have some laboratory work occasionally throughout the term.

Household budgets and accounts, decorations and furnishings of the home, training of children, are a few of the outstanding units in the household management division. Then we have a unit of work in clothing at which time the boys are given four or five lessons by the clothing instructor. They learn to sew on buttons, darn their socks, mend three-cornered tears, and to care for their clothing. Each term we have had an outside speaker who talks to the boys about selection of clothing. This has been an interesting hour for the boys each time.

At the close of each term, a questionnaire was given to the boys to ascertain what their attitude was toward the course and whether they had truly become "more worthy members" of their homes.

The questions were as follows:

1. Do you feel that the course in home economics for boys has been really worth while?

2. What part of the course did you like best? Why?
3. Give any suggestions that you can for changes that might make the course more worth while.
4. Do you think such a course deserves full credit?
5. Do you not think more outside preparation should be required for full credit?
6. Do you think the course would be more complete and satisfactory if more of other home management problems were included even though the work on foods would be reduced?
7. Do you feel that this course has helped from the standpoint of better appreciation of the home problems?

In answer to the first question concerning the worthwhileness of the course, they answered in affirmative, most emphatically, and several said every boy should be made to take the course because it was a valuable one for them.

They differed as to the particular part of the course they liked best, most of them said the laboratory part was the best.

Thus while we are accomplishing something worth while in the boys' classes, we need to find better methods of presenting the work, proper divisions of time in the various units, and improving methods of testing and grading.

Our possibilities as well as our responsibilities are great.

A COURSE IN HOME MANAGEMENT AS A REQUIRED UNIT IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

MAUDE E. HAYES, DIRECTOR OF HOME ECONOMICS, LONG BEACH, CALIF.

This is the only home economics course required of girls for graduation, all others being elective. It is offered five periods per week, one semester, and it is equal in credit and amount of daily preparation to such academic subjects as mathematics, social science, or English. The outline of the course as to subjectmatter is:

- I. Study of the job of homemaking as a vocation for women. One week.
- II. Study and discussion of budgets and family expenses. Two weeks.
- III. Study and discussion of some of the factors which enter into the buying of food for the family. Two weeks.
- IV. Study of the principles of nutrition which the homemaker should apply to the selection and serving of well planned meals. Two weeks.
- V. Study and discussion of the care of the house. Two weeks.
- VI. Study of the house, its selection and furnishing from the standpoint of good design and cost. Six weeks.
- VII. Study of family relationships. Three weeks.

The practical application and methods of teaching the course will be considered under the following heads: (1) Reference material; (2) methods of conducting the class; (3) qualifications of the teacher; (4) special problems and assignments under the various topics; (5) pupil reactions.

1. *Reference material*—Much use is made of reference material both by teacher and pupils and the topics for class discussion and reports are

based upon the text Matthews, *The House and Its Care*; a selected list of reference books, magazines, and periodicals devoted to the interests of women and the home; well-written and illustrated commercial pamphlets; and up-to-date government bulletins on home making subjects which often prove a rich source of information as well as a revelation to girls of the valuable material which is produced and distributed to help the home manager.

2. *Methods of conducting the class*—These consist of a combination of discussion, reports, study of materials and equipment, assignments of home problems and their solutions, class and individual work in house planning and arrangement, and the working out of the culminating problem of the course.

3. *Qualifications of the teacher*—The course demands much from the teacher, a vivid personality, enthusiasm, tact in keeping discussions relevant to the key questions, sympathetic and unprejudiced attitude towards present day family manners and morals and home relationships, the ability to interpret the spiritual side of the home to girls, a thorough knowledge of art principles, practical experience in the many phases of home management, ownership of a home—if possible—and the possession or acquisition, as needed, of a wealth of illustrative material, and cooperation with a well organized school library which functions.

4. *Special problems and assignments under the various topics*:

(a) *Study of the job of homemaking as a vocation for women*—The point of departure for the problem is Mrs. Abel's inclusive statement of the housewife's contributions to successful family life in "Successful Family Life on a Moderate Income." Problem: To what degree is homemaking a "blind alley job"? A job requiring special training?

(b) *Family expenses and budgets*—Problems: (1) Home discussion of the family budget for the satisfaction of needs and desires. (2) The choices to be made within a limited income. (3) A plan for spending. (4) Study and comparison of seven family histories. (5) Methods of disbursing the family income. (6) Divisions of the budget. (7) Forms of savings as, investments, insurance, home furnishings, education to increase earning power, savings for rent and recreation to make continued earning possible. (8) Divisions of the advancement fund. (9) Cultural wants of the family. (10) Magazine reports of articles on household budgets. (11) Planning budgets for different types of families.

(c) *Factors in buying food for the family*—Problems: (1) Knowledge which the housewife must have to use the food budget to the best advantage. (2) Nutritive value of food. (3) Marketing, including Saturday marketing, comparison of local markets, study of chain stores, roadside markets, etc. (4) Class collection exhibit, and comparison of food containers and labels from package and canned goods.

(d) *Principles of nutrition to be applied by the homemaker when planning meals*—Problems: (1) Guide-posts to proper nutrition. (2) Slogan "Eat what you want after you have eaten what you should." (3) Judging menus. (4) Nutritive problems in planning meals. (5) Economic problems in planning meals. (6) Reducing costs without changing food values. (7) Aesthetic considerations in planning meals and their service. (8) Family duties and cooperation in meal service. (9) Demonstrations of correct table setting, flower arrangement, and table service, and etiquette, when necessary.

(e) *The care of the house*—Problems: (1) Household activities and their influence in increasing or decreasing work, saving time, labor, or money. (2) Questionnaire based on house information, amount of service demanded by the family, labor saving equipment owned, number in the family, etc. (3) Time element in housework. (4) Time budgets. (5) Present day schedule compared with that in colonial household. (6) Electrically equipped labor savers. (7) Problems in estimating operating costs to determine value of investment. (8) With \$300 to invest in labor saving equipment, what types would you buy? (9) Prove the statement, "It is not the cost but the number of times in use which must be the basis of economical, efficient buying." (10) Study of small household tools and appliances. (11) Care of various rooms of the house in relation to the housewife's time budget. (12) Demonstrations of simple household repairs.

(f) *The house, its selection and furnishings*—Problems: (1) Principles and application of design to the home and its furnishings. (2) Renting or owning the house. (3) House plans. (4) Choice of furniture and equipment. (5) Arranging of furniture and furnishings.

Six weeks is devoted to this subject and the test of the course is the making of an illustrated notebook which shows the pupil's ability to organize and apply the information gained throughout the course. The problem is stated as "Choice of the home and its furnishings in relation to the budget." Directions in mimeographed form are supplied to each girl and parallel to the intensive study of each topic of this section she is working on her individual solution of the problem.

(g) *Family relationships*—The time, three weeks devoted to this phase of the course is placed at the end of the semester after the teacher knows her girls more or less intimately so that the class periods which are largely spent in discussion may be occupied with real problems. In the opinion of one teacher of home management this is the most worthwhile part of the course because the questions are of immediate and vital concern to young girls just looking out towards the future yet conditioned by present day standards or lack of standards in family relationships. The point of departure for the work is an analysis of traits of character which must be possessed by the successful homemaker and those which are needed to develop a happy home life. A valuable reference is Charters' "Traits of Homemakers" in the *Journal of Home Economics*, December, 1926.

Problems: (1) Character traits of the homemaker. (2) Children in the home. (3) What parents owe their children. (4) Parenthood as a profession. (5) The mother's responsibilities toward the children. (6) The father's obligations in child training. (7) Social and ethical problems affecting the home. (8) Home life as depicted in biography, fiction, poetry, art.

5. *Pupil reactions*—It is satisfactory to find in so many of the unsigned papers written on their reactions to the course a statement that "home management should be required," "all girls ought to take it," etc. Our girls marry young and there are usually several engaged girls in the classes and their interest is especially keen and their earnestness rather naive.

We feel that the work in home management as described above fills a decided need in the crowded high school curriculum and are very much interested in its development and functioning.

*SECRETARY'S MINUTES***Minneapolis Meeting**

Officers for the ensuing year were elected as follows:

President, Homer J. Smith, Associate Professor of Industrial Education,
University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

Vicepresident, Paul Chapman, State Director of Agriculture, Atlanta, Georgia.

Secretary, Enid Luma, State Supervisor of Home Economics, State Board of
Vocational Education, Columbus, Ohio.

On information from Miss Baylor that this department is entitled to representation in the National Council, the matter was presented by the chair and the following persons were chosen to represent the department in the council:

For two years—Anna G. Green, Assistant Director, Vocational Education in
charge of Home Economics Education, State Department of
Education, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

For four years—J. E. Painter, Supervisor of Industrial Arts, Public Schools,
Minneapolis, Minnesota.

For six years—Leonard W. Walstrom, Francis Parker School, Chicago, Illinois.

The 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, State House, Augusta, Me.; 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

1927:1007-1016

THE WORLD FEDERATION OF EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

Incorporated under the Board of Regents of the State of New York

AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, COMMISSIONER OF EDUCATION FOR MAINE,
PRESIDENT

THIS FEDERATION is an organization of the world's educational forces on the most practical ground common to their greatest interest, education. It is patriotic but nonpolitical; spiritual but nonsectarian. It reaches the administration of school systems from kindergarten to graduate school and also reaches the schoolroom teacher, where much of the moulding of the character, attitudes, and qualities of the coming generation takes place.

Purposes

- a. To promote the cause of education and to elevate the character of teaching throughout the world.
- b. To secure international cooperation in educational enterprises.
- c. To foster the dissemination of information concerning the progress of education in all its forms among nations and peoples.
- d. To advise and to promote suitable and effective means to bring into closer coordination the various agencies in every civilized country which have to do with education.
- e. To cultivate international goodwill, and to promote the interests of worldwide peace.

History of the Organization

At the close of the Great War, there was a universal desire to find some common ground upon which the nations could get together. The opinion was universal that some method must be found to drive out hate from the hearts of men and substitute the spirit of friendliness, goodwill, and justice. The nations could not come together on political grounds, on economic grounds, or on religious grounds. Where, therefore, could there be found a common ground upon which the nations, regardless of the form of their religion or their economic or political conditions, could get together?

The National Education Association of the United States believed that since education deals with truth and that truth is universal, knowing no national boundaries, since teaching is conscious guidance and that the schools must consciously guide not only the individuals but groups of individuals which make up the communities and nations, education, therefore, is the one great constructive force which should be utilized to advance the status of civilization. This organization instructed its Committee on Foreign Relations to prepare a program to fit into the general program of the National Education Association Convention and which would emphasize the necessity of cooperation and of goodwill among the

nations. After the committee began its work, it found an eagerness on the part of the peoples of the world to get together, and many countries suggested their willingness to send delegates to a world conference on education. The Association, therefore, directed its Foreign Relations Committee to call such a Conference and to extend the hand of fellowship to all nations.

Permanent Organization

The outstanding achievement of the World Conference on Education held at San Francisco in 1923 was the formation of a permanent organization to be known as the World Federation of Education Associations. This was not to be an evanescent affair. It was to be placed upon a permanent basis with suitable financial foundation, with a definite program or group of objectives and the work prosecuted vigorously to the end that education might render its share of service to the struggling world.

Special Objectives

1. To promote friendship, justice, and goodwill among the nations of the world.
2. To bring about a worldwide tolerance of the rights and privileges of all nations regardless of race or creed.
3. To develop an appreciation of the value of inherited gifts of nations and races.
4. To secure more satisfying information and more adequate statement of facts for textbooks used in the schools of the different countries.
5. To foster a national comradeship and confidence which will produce a more sympathetic appreciation among all nations.
6. To develop the consciousness of an international morality in the minds and hearts of the rising generation.
7. Finally, throughout the world, in all schools, to emphasize the essential unity of mankind and the evils of war and to develop a psychology of peace, together with a true patriotism based upon love of country rather than upon hatred of other peoples and countries.

The Trustees

SIR ROBERT BORDEN, Canada	HON. WILLIAM G. McADOO of Los Angeles
LORD CECIL, England	COL. MILTON McRAE, San Diego, Calif.
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	DR. DAVID Z. T. YUI, Shanghai, China

Tentative acceptance from four others to be announced later.

The Officers

<i>President</i> , AUGUSTUS O. THOMAS, Augusta, Maine, U. S. A.
<i>Vicepresidents</i> , HARRY CHARLESWORTH, Vancouver, Canada. P. W. KUO, New York City, U. S. A. FRED MANDER, Bedford, England.
<i>Secretary</i> , CHARLES H. WILLIAMS, Columbia, Missouri, U. S. A.
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<i>Treasurer</i> , E. A. HARDY, TORONTO, Canada.
<i>Field Representative</i> , WALTER R. SIDERS, Augusta, Maine, U. S. A.

The Directors

SELMA M. BORCHARDT, Ontario, Canada	COUNT HIROTARO HAYASHI, Tokio, Japan
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P. LING, Peking, China	DAVID Z. T. YUI, Shanghai, China
D. D. MACDONALD, Toronto, Canada	Elected by the Delegate Assembly at biennial meeting for four-year terms.
FRED MANDER, Bedford, England	UEL W. LAMKIN, Maryville, Missouri, U. S. A.
THOMAS J. O'CONNELL, Dublin, Ireland	
G. R. PARKER, London, England	

Constituent Members

Full Membership

1. National Education Association of the United States
2. The Canadian Teachers' Federation
3. The Educational Institute of Scotland
4. The National Union of Teachers of England and Wales
5. The Japanese Education Association
6. The Irish National Teachers' Organization
7. The Chinese National Association for the Advancement of Education
8. Bund Entschiedener Schulreformer of Germany
9. Hungarian Pedagogical Society
10. National Literary Society of Parnassus, Greece
11. American Federation of Teachers
12. Association of Assistant Mistresses in Secondary Schools
13. Parents' National Education Union
14. Association of Head Mistresses (Inc.)
15. National Federation of Modern Language Teachers
16. Institute of Handicraft Teachers (Inc.)
17. Incorporated Association of Assistant Masters in Secondary Schools
18. Incorporated Association of Head Masters
19. All India Federation of Teachers' Associations
20. National Council of Geography Teachers of the United States
21. Association of Assistant Masters of Secondary Schools, Inc., England
22. Malayan Teachers' Association, British Malaya

Associate Membership

1. Department of Education of the State of Aundh (Satara), India
2. New Education Fellowship
3. University of Mexico
4. Hawaii Education Association
5. University of Debracen
6. Nursery School Association
7. International Kindergarten Union
8. League of Nations Non-Partisan Association, Inc. (Educational Dept. of the)
9. Women's Educational Union
10. Child Study Association of America, Inc.
11. Scottish Federation of Esperanto Societies
12. American Library Association

13. Council of Superintendents. Cities and Villages of the State of New York
14. National Congress of Parents and Teachers
15. International Bureau of Education
16. University of Denver.
17. Pennsylvania State Education Association
18. Massachusetts Teachers' Federation, Boston, Mass.
19. Illinois State Teachers' Association, Carlinville, Ill.
20. California Teachers' Association, San Francisco, California
21. British Social Hygiene Council, London, England
22. Hollywood School for Girls, Hollywood, California
23. South Dakota Education Association, Sioux Falls, S. D.
24. Kansas State Teachers' Association, Topeka, Kansas
25. Asociacion Pedagogica Universitaria, Havana, Cuba
26. Escuela Normal de Costa Rica, Heredia
27. California Teachers' Association (Southern Section), Los Angeles, California
28. Connecticut State Teachers' Association, Hartford, Conn.

The World Federation of Education Associations is undoubtedly the most important of all international educational organizations. As early as 1893 an International Congress of Education was held in Chicago under the auspices of the National Education Association. The real beginnings of the World Federation, however, go no further back than the San Francisco meeting of 1923. A great advantage of this organization lies in its definite, immediate program of action. As outlined by the President in 1925 the following twenty objectives constitute the immediate objectives of the Federation.

1. Securing expert educational attachés at all embassies and legations.
2. Establishment of traveling fellowships in comparative education.
3. Perfecting the constitution of the Federation.
4. Unification of educational terminology.
5. Publication of an international digest of education.
6. Establishment of a universal library and bibliographic bureau.
7. Study of ways and means to establish a world university.
8. Appointment of a commission to study textbooks.
9. Collection and discussion of courses of study in citizenship.
10. Planning character education which includes international goodwill.
11. Urging revision of the aims of history teaching.
12. Organization of a world celebration of International Goodwill Day.
13. Arrangement of exchange scholarships for teachers on leave.
14. Study of illiteracy as an international problem.
15. Study of vocational training as an international problem.
16. Encouragement of the higher education of women in certain countries.
17. Securing international interest in the special problems of rural education.
18. Endorsement of programs for post-war financial readjustment in education.
19. Organization of visual aids for the teaching of world fellowship.
20. Provision for international correspondence among school children.

One of the most important and best known activities of the World Federation has been the management of the Raphael Herman Prize. Mr. Herman, a retired business man of Detroit and Washington, D. C., offered through the Federation a prize of \$25,000 for the best feasible plan of promoting world peace through education. The contest attracted wide attention. Many plans were submitted. The judges chose the plan of

David Starr Jordan, Chancellor-emeritus of Stanford University, as the winning plan. This plan, now generally called the Herman-Jordan plan, forms a basis of organization for the committees of the World Federation of Education Associations. A series of five fact-finding committees are at work on the following general topics: (1) International cooperation; (2) teaching of history; (3) use of international athletic contests; (4) current arguments for war as a cosmic necessity; and (5) methods of teaching facts about the present court of international justice.

The World Federation is now seeking a substantial endowment to enable it to carry on its great work. It now has fifty member associations, of which twenty-two are active and twenty-eight associate. A yearbook and proceedings of the 1927 meeting have been published.

Tentative Program for Geneva Meeting

In 1929, the Federation will meet in Geneva, Switzerland, July 25 to August 3. The following is a tentative program of the Geneva Conference. Unusual interest attaches to this meeting as many important committee reports will be made and it is expected that practically all civilized countries will be well represented.

Thursday, July 25

2. P. M. Meeting of Board of Directors.

Friday, July 26

Evening Registration and Billeting.
Opening Session, Welcome Meeting.

Saturday, July 27

9-12 A. M. Meeting of Departments, Groups and Committees (a) Parent-Teacher, Home and School, (b) Health Education, (c) Teachers' Associations and the International Aspect of School Administration, (d) Illiteracy, (e) Educational Handicrafts, (f) Preparation of Teachers for International Goodwill, (g) Behavior-Problem Child, (h) Rural Life and Rural Education.

5-6 P. M. General Session—*Labor and Education*.

Evening General Session—*Visual Education*.

Sunday, July 28

A. M. (a) Services at St. Peter's Cathedral.
(b) Services at Cathedral of Notre Dame.

Monday, July 29

9-12 A. M. Meeting of Departments, Groups and Committees: (a) Preschool and Kindergarten, (b) Elementary Schools, (c) Secondary Schools, (d) Colleges and Universities, (e) Adult Education.

5-6 P. M. General Session—*The International Aspect of Education.*

Evening Open for social events.

Tuesday, July 30

9-12 A. M. Meeting of Departments and Discussion Groups: (a) Teachers' Associations and the International Aspect of School Administration, (b) International Cooperation and Goodwill, (c) Geography, (d) Rural Life and Rural Education, (e) Social Adjustment, (f) Handicapped Children, (g) Educational Handicrafts, (h) Health Education.

5-6 P. M. General Session—*The Needs of the Rural Districts.*

Evening Open for social events.

Wednesday, July 31

9-12 A. M. Meeting of Departments and Discussion Groups; (a) Illiteracy, (b) Behavior-Problem Child, (c) Secondary Schools, (d) Preschool and Kindergarten, (e) Elementary Schools, (f) Colleges and Universities, (g) Preparation of Teachers for International Goodwill, (h) Parent-Teacher, Home and School.

5-6 P. M. General Session—*Some Behavior Problems.*

Evening General Session devoted to messages from various countries.

Thursday, August 1

No meetings of the Federation to be held on this day on account of the National Feast, the occasion of high festival.

Friday, August 2

9-12 A. M. Meeting of Departments and Discussion Groups: (a) Health Education, (b) Teachers' Associations and the International Aspect of School Administration, (c) Adult Education, (d) Geography, (e) Home and School in joint session with Preschool and Kindergarten, (f) Social Adjustment, (g) Handicapped Children, (h) International Cooperation and Goodwill.

2-5 P. M. Delegate Assembly.

5-6 P. M. General Session—*Home and School.*

Evening Farewell Meeting.

Saturday, August 3

9-12 A. M. Delegate Assembly.

P. M. Devoted to meetings of Boards of Directors and Trustees.

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. Or-
															List of Incorporators

mond Wilson, *William T. Harris, *Alexander T. Stuart, of the District of Columbia; Clem Hampton, of Florida; *William M. Slaton, of Georgia; *Frances Mann, of Idaho; J. Stanley Brown, *Albert G. Lane, *Charles I. Parker, *John W. Cook, *Joshua Pike, Albert R. Taylor, *Joseph A. Mercer, of Illinois; *Nebraska Cropsey, Thomas A. Mott, of Indiana; John D. Benedict, of Indian Territory; John F. Riggs, Ashley V. Storm, of Iowa; John W. Spindler, Jasper N. Wilkinson, *A. V. Jewett, *Luther D. Whittemore, of Kansas; William Henry Bartholomew, of Kentucky; *Warren Easton, of Louisiana; *John S. Locke, of Maine; *M. Bates Stephens, of Maryland; *Charles W. Eliot, *Mary H. Hunt, Henry T. Bailey, of Massachusetts; Hugh A. Graham, Charles G. White, William H. Elson, of Michigan; *William F. Phelps, *Irwin Shepard, John A. Cranston, of Minnesota; Robert B. Fulton, of Mississippi; *F. Louis Soldan, *James M. Greenwood, William J. Hawkins, of Missouri; *Oscar J. Craig, of Montana; George L. Towne, of Nebraska; *Joseph E. Stubbs, of Nevada; James E. Klock, of New Hampshire; *James M. Green, John Enright, of New Jersey; *Charles M. Light, of New Mexico; *James H. Canfield, Nicholas Murray Butler, *William H. Maxwell, *Charles R. Skinner, *Albert P. Marble, James C. Byrnes, of New York; James Y. Joyner, Julius Isaac Foust, of North Carolina; *Pitt Gordon Knowlton, of North Dakota; *Oscar T. Corson, Jacob A. Shawan, Wells L. Griswold, of Ohio; Edgar S. Vaught, Andrew R. Hickham, of Oklahoma; *Charles Carroll Stratton, Edwin D. Ressler, of Oregon; *Thomas W. Bicknell, Walter Ballou Jacobs, of Rhode Island; David B. Johnson, Robert P. Pell, of South Carolina; Moritz Adelbert Langer, 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 bylaws.

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

*Deceased.

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.

Powers of Corporation

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 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

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 of Trustees to issue orders on the Treasurer for the payment

Duties of Trustees 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.

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

Acceptance of This Charter 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 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 payment of any sum due or to become due, or any claim or demand, in any manner, 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.

Rights of Creditors

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 AS AMENDED AT THE ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING OF THE REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY, MINNEAPOLIS, MINNESOTA, JULY 6, 1928¹

ARTICLE I—MEMBERSHIP

Wherever the word "State" appears in the proposed amendments to these by-laws it will be understood that State, Territory, or District of the United States is meant.

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.*

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 *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.

Obligations and Privileges

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 or other educational work, but 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, except the right to vote, to serve as a delegate in the *Representative Assembly*, and to 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.

¹ Changes in the Bylaws made at the Minneapolis meeting are indicated by italics. The report of the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions was printed in full in the Official Manual for Delegates at Minneapolis. The report included: First, the Bylaws in force; second, the amendments proposed at the Seattle meeting, July, 1927, which appear in the 1927 Proceedings, pages 1024-1045; and third, proposed changes in the Seattle report. No changes were made in Article II.

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.

Payment of
Dues

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.

Membership
Card

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 and to hold office in the Council shall be limited to members of the Council whose dues are paid.*

Right to Vote

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

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

Election of
Officers

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 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.

SEC. 3. The State Teachers Association or Educational Association of a state, territory, or district, may become affiliated with the National Education Associa-

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

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

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.

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

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

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

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

**Ex Officio
Delegates**

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.

**Delegates;
Credentials;
Voting;
Freedom of
Floor**

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

ARTICLE III—DUTIES OF OFFICERS

SECTION 1. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and shall perform the duties *prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws, and in addition such duties* as usually devolve upon the Chief Executive of such an Association. In the absence of the President, the ranking Vicepresident, who is present, shall preside and in the absence of the President and all Vicepresidents a Chairman *pro tempore* shall be elected *under the direction of the Secretary of the Association*. The President shall prepare the program for the general sessions of the annual meeting of the Association and *shall have power to confer with the President of the Council 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.

**Duties of the
President**

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 Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws and, in all matters not definitely prescribed 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

**Duties of the
Secretary**

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 by 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 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 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 perform the duties prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and these Bylaws. He 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 pay the same only upon the order of*

Duties of the Treasurer

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 \$500; 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 each year, he shall render to the Executive Committee not later than ten days before the annual meeting of the Association, and when approved by said Committee, these accounts shall be transmitted by this 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.

SEC. 4. *The Board of Directors shall have such powers and perform such duties as are prescribed by the Act of Incorporation and by these Bylaws, shall elect corresponding members as prescribed in Section 6 of Article I of these By-*

laws; shall elect members of the National Council of Education as provided in Section 3 of Article IV of these Bylaws; shall fill all vacancies in its own body and in the Board of Trustees. The Board of Directors shall approve all bills in-

Duties of the Board of Directors

currred by itself or by the Executive Committee, or 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 appoint at its annual meeting a budget committee for the ensuing year, whose duty it shall be to prepare and present a budget to the Board of Directors at its next meeting. The budget committee shall have authority to secure the support of the auditing committee in preparing this budget.

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 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 Directors, which shall transmit the same with recommendations to the Representative Assembly at its annual business meeting. All such special committees shall be appointed by the President of the Association.*

Duties of Executive Committee

The Executive Committee shall fill all vacancies occurring in the body of officers of the Association, except as otherwise provided for in the Act of Incorporation or in these Bylaws.

SEC. 6. *The Board of Trustees shall have such powers and perform such duties as are prescribed by the Act of Incorporation, 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 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 annually choose its own chairman and secretary.*

Further Duties of Trustees

ARTICLE IV—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EDUCATION

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

Function of National 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.

Membership in Council

Election of Committee Members

Time of Meeting

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

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

Loss of Membership

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.

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

ARTICLE V—DEPARTMENTS

SECTION 1. The following departments are now (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 Education; 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.

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.

Members of Departments

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, or by the Executive Committee acting under the general instructions of the Board of Directors.*

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.

Object of Department Meetings

SEC. 5. The officers of each Department shall consist of a President, a Vice-president, 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 to serve one year and until their successors are duly elected; and who shall, at the time of their election, be active members of the Association. *Each department shall provide for the creation of an Executive Committee, and assign to it any duties consistent with the purposes of the Department and the Act of Incorporation and Bylaws of the Association.* 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.

Officers of Departments

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.

Department Headquarters

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.

Rights of Departments

SEC. 8. *Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors a new department may be established by vote of two thirds of the delegates to the Representative Assembly present at any annual 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 Assembly next preceding the one at which action is taken by at least 250 members engaged or interested in the field in the interest of which the department is proposed to be established; *provided*, that no group shall be

How Established

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. Upon the recommendation of the Board of Directors a department which has failed to hold a regular meeting for two successive years may be discontinued by a vote of two thirds of the delegates to the Representative Assembly present at any annual meeting.

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.

Fees for Department Members

ARTICLE VI—COMMITTEES

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 provided in Section 5 of this Article; and the Committee shall report its findings to the Board of Directors.*

Auditing Committee

SEC. 2. On the first day of the annual meeting of the Association, at such time and place as shall be designated on the annual program by the President of the Association, *the accredited delegates to the Representative Assembly from each state shall elect one member and one alternate who are active members of the Association for each of the following committees, to serve for the ensuing year: Credentials, Resolutions, and Necrology. The Committee on Credentials shall receive the official list of delegates from the Secretary and report thereon to the Representative Assembly.*

Delegates Meet by States

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.

Resolutions

SEC. 4. The Committee on Necrology may prepare for the published Proceedings *brief memorial tributes to members who have died during the year.*

Necrology

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 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 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.*

Examination Of Accounts

ARTICLE VII—MEETING

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.

Meetings to be Held Annually

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 time and place of such meeting shall be designated in the program. The Secretary shall notify the members of the Board of Directors of the time and place of meeting, not less than thirty (30) days before the meeting.

Meetings of Assembly Directors, and Trustees

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 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—PROCEEDINGS

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.

Publication of Proceedings

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.

Absence of Author

ARTICLE IX

Quorum

SECTION 1. *Elected directors from twenty-five states shall constitute a quorum of the Board of Directors. A majority of all the accredited delegates, representatives of not less than twenty-five states, shall constitute a quorum of the Representative Assembly.*

ARTICLE X—AMENDMENTS

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.

**Amendments
to Bylaws**

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. J. RICKOFF, Treasurer. | S. H. WHITE, Secretary. |
| 1859—WASHINGTON, D. C. | S. P. BATES, Treasurer. |
| A. J. 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.
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- Frances E. Harden, 1543 Sherwin Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.
- Mildred M. Hartwell, 50 Union Street, Greenfield, Massachusetts.
- George L. Hawkins, Principal, 459 Fairview Avenue, Webster Grove, Missouri.
- J. H. Hickman, Secretary, West Virginia State Education Association, 403-405 Capitol City Bank Building, Charleston, West Virginia.
- E. L. Hendricks, President, Central Missouri State Teachers' College, Warrensburg, Missouri.
- Dora Herron, Montlake School, Seattle, Washington.
- Ellen Hill, Public School, Petersburg, Alaska.
- Mrs. Ethel Hill, 2556 First Avenue, Huntington, West Virginia.
- Harriett L. Hinman, Board of Education, Toledo, Ohio.
- Miss Hemena Hoffman, 524 West Gould Street, Pocatello, Idaho.
- Myrtle U. Hooper, Nicollet Hotel, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
- Alma Hosc, Professor, Teachers' College, Kearney, Nebraska.
- George W. Hug, Superintendent of Schools, Salem, Oregon.
- Bernice E. L. Hundley, Kapoa School, Kealia, Kauai, Hawaii.

- H. T. Hunter, President, State Normal School, Cullowhee, North Carolina.
 George C. Hutchinson, Bellview Avenue, New Haven, Connecticut.
 Bertha E. Jacobs, 425 Glen Echo Circle, Columbus, Ohio.
 Clara Jacobs, 129 W. 9th Street, Pueblo, Colorado.
 W. L. Jayne, Head Rural Department, Morehead Normal School, Morehead, Kentucky.
 Mrs. Elizabeth Jernegan, McKinley High School, Honolulu, Hawaii.
 A. S. Jessup, Superintendent of Schools, Cheyenne, Wyoming.
 Walter P. Jones, Superintendent of Schools, Macon, Georgia.
 Beulah Kelley, Library Building, Kansas City, Kansas.
 D. J. Kelly, Superintendent of Schools, Binghamton, New York.
 Bertha C. Kenemeyer, Principal, Elko County High School, Elko, Nevada.
 Charlotte Kohn, 1426 State Street, La Crosse, Wisconsin.
 Rhoderic L. Lacy, Principal, High School, South Boston, Virginia.
 Nell E. Lain, 4518 Montgall Street, Kansas City, Missouri.
 S. D. Largent, Superintendent of Schools, Great Falls, Montana.
 Jessie E. LaSalle, Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Thomson School, Washington, D. C.
 D. C. Lindsay, Commissioner of Public Instruction, Wailuku, Hawaii.
 Dorothy F. Logan, Kane, Pennsylvania.
 F. M. Longanecker, Superintendent of Schools, Racine, Wisconsin.
 Mary A. Lord, Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, Sioux City, Iowa.
 A. J. Lovett, Superintendent of Schools, Blackwell, Oklahoma.
 Herbert W. Lull, Superintendent of Schools, Newport, Rhode Island.
 M. E. McCurdy, Secretary, North Dakota Teachers' Association, Washburn, North Dakota.
 Malcolm MacGregor, Mount Vernon High School, Mount Vernon, New York.
 E. W. McKeen, Kennett High School, Conway, New Hampshire.
 Duncan McRuer, Superintendent of Schools, Glendale, Arizona.
 Anna B. McKimmon, 94 3rd Street, Bangor, Maine.
 C. W. Madocks, Superintendent of Schools, Milford, Connecticut.
 C. G. Manning, Superintendent of Schools, Lewistown, Montana.
 H. G. Masters, Principal, Allen School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.
 Caroline E. Miller, 106 Ogleshorpe Avenue, West, Savannah, Georgia.
 M. E. Moffitt, Public Schools, Jackson, Mississippi.
 J. R. H. Moore, Emmerich Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Indiana.
 Gladys Moorehead, 202 Trinity Building, Los Angeles, California.
 Margaret Murphy, Principal, High School, Carlinville, Illinois.
 E. Moore Neave, Park Street School, Hoodriver, Oregon.
 Minnie J. Nielson, 901 5th Avenue, Valley City, North Dakota.
 Mrs. Alice R. Norton, Hampton Court, Apartment 378, Golden Gate Avenue, San Francisco, California.
 Marilla Ohl, 323 South East 4th Street, Fort Lauderdale, Florida.
 Martha Ordway, 2015 Park Avenue, Birmingham, Alabama.
 Mrs. Bridget Peixotto, 247 Beach 141 Street, Belle Harbor, New York.
 A. J. Peters, Superintendent of Schools, Dover, Delaware.
 Anna L. Peterson, 49 Haddon Hall, Cincinnati, Ohio.
 Henry Peterson, Professor, Utah Agriculture College, Logan, Utah.
 Shelton Phelps, Professor, School Administration, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee.
 Eva Pinkston, Principal, 5603 Richmond Avenue, Dallas, Texas.
 Gertrude Pitts, 915 Cumberland Street, Little Rock, Arkansas.
 J. V. Pogue, Principal, Gibson School, Birmingham, Alabama.
 Mary Postell, 41 Walker Street, Atlanta, Georgia.
 Miss Reed Potter, 1234 State Street, Bowling Green, Kentucky.
 Sue M. Powers, Superintendent, Shelby County Schools, Court House, Memphis, Tennessee.
 Fannie K. Putnam, Principal, 32 Orris Street, Melrose, Massachusetts.
 Francisco Quinones, Supervisor of Agriculture, St. Thomas, Virgin Islands.
 Nettie Mae Rankin, 1157 East Broadway, Portland, Oregon.
 P. L. Read, Union Superintendent of Schools, Farmerville, Louisiana.
 Warren A. Roe, Principal, Belmont Avenue School, Newark, New Jersey.
 Joseph Rossier, President, State Teachers' College, Fairmont, West Virginia.
 Albert Lindsay Rowland, Superintendent of Schools, Elkins Park, Pennsylvania.
 Cecelia B. Schimek, Principal, Mason School, Chicago, Illinois.
 Miriam Selah, McKinley High School, Washington, D. C.
 Edward B. Sellow, Superintendent of Schools, Middletown, Connecticut.
 Sallie Reid Shaw, 812 W. 9th Street, Wilmington, Delaware.
 Helen Shove, 3116 Clinton Avenue, Minneapolis, Minnesota.
 C. O. Smith, Superintendent of Schools, Beloit, Kansas.
 Jean Soules, Women's Athletic Club, Spokane, Washington.
 John Speedie, Deputy State Supervisor, 1812 H Street, Lincoln, Nebraska.
 W. C. Stebbins, Superintendent of Schools, Grand Forks, North Dakota.
 R. L. Stickel, 619 S. Cameron Street, Winchester, Virginia.
 George St. Thomas, Director, Junior Vocational Guidance Continuation School, Hackensack, New Jersey.
 E. S. Stucki, Superintendent of Schools, Rexburg, Idaho.
 Joseph Swenson, County Superintendent of Schools, Viborg, South Dakota.
 George D. Taylor, Principal, School Number 27, Rochester, New York.
 Joseph Thalman, 227 Keystone Avenue, River Forest, Illinois.
 Bradford C. Town, Superintendent of Schools, Jamestown, Rhode Island.
 Marjorie Vincent, 22 E. 2nd Street, Tucson, Arizona.
 Kathryn O. Ward, 112 Kislingsbury Street, Rochester, New York.
 Elizabeth L. White, State Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri.
 Mrs. Julia M. White, Principal, Steele School, Denver, Colorado.
 William E. Wing, Principal, Deering High School, Portland, Maine.
 Florence Wolaver, 1734 Orrington Avenue, Evanston, Illinois.
 R. B. Woodworth, Principal, Roosevelt High School, Fond du Lac, Wisconsin.
 Arthur Wright, Dartmouth College, Hanover, New Hampshire.
 O. R. Zoll, Superintendent of District Schools, Matoaka, West Virginia.

MINUTES OF THE EIGHTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY¹

Minneapolis, Minnesota, July 3, 5 and 6, 1928

First Business Session, Tuesday, July 3, 1928

The first business session of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association was held at the Municipal Auditorium, Minneapolis, Minnesota, at 9:00 o'clock, Thursday forenoon, July 3, 1928, *Cornelia S. Adair*, president of the Association, presiding.

After singing of state songs, *President Adair* stated that the first business session of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association would be opened with invocation by the *Reverend Harry Dewey*, Pastor of Plymouth Congregational Church, Minneapolis. *Dr. Dewey* responded with an inspiring prayer suitable to the occasion and the great work of the Association.

President Adair: The first order of business is the report of the Credentials Committee which will be made by the chairman of the Committee, *C. E. Rose*, superintendent of schools, Tucson, Arizona.

C. E. Rose: Madam President, it is impossible for the Credentials Committee to make an accurate report as to the number of delegates registered at this time, because the registration is not yet complete. It might not be out of place for me as Chairman of this Committee to state that the delegates of this convention ought to make it a point to urge upon delegates next year to register the first day and to register before the time of the meeting of the Credentials Committee. That would expedite the business of this convention and it would be only fair to that efficient and delightfully charming lady who is taking care of this registration. I refer, of course, to *Miss Chase*, who is working so hard for the registration of delegates to this assembly.

The following is the formal report:

"To the Members of the Representative Assembly: The Credentials Committee of the National Education Association met in regular session at *Secretary Crabtree's* office in Minneapolis Auditorium at 8:00 o'clock in the evening, July 2, 1928. Roll call showed thirty-three members of the Committee present.

"The following officers were elected: *C. E. Rose*, Arizona, Chairman, and *Miss I. L. Creighton*, Hawaii, Secretary. It was noted that 937 delegates had already registered with *Miss Chase*, and it was voted to recommend that these, together with those who may register at a later date, be seated in the Representative Assembly.

"It was further moved, seconded, and carried that a subcommittee of five, consisting of the chairman and four others appointed by him, be constituted for the purpose of considering any contests that may arise. This subcommittee is as follows: *C. E. Rose*, Arizona, Chairman; *E. M. Carter*, Missouri; *Sarah T. Muir*, Nebraska; *Fred Cram*, Iowa; and *J. Herbert Kelley*, Pennsylvania.

Respectfully submitted,

THE COMMITTEE ON CREDENTIALS:

C. E. ROSE, Chairman,

ISABELLA L. CREIGHTON, Secretary.

Madam President, I move the adoption of this report.

(The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: The next is the adoption of the order of business for the convention. I present to you the program as printed and I recommend it as the order of business for all sessions. May I not ask for a motion to that effect?

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.

(A motion was made, seconded, and carried that the program be accepted as the order of business.) The next order of business is the adoption of the minutes of the Seattle meeting. I will ask the Secretary to present the minutes.

Secretary Crabtree: You will find the minutes in the Manual. I therefore move the adoption of the minutes of the Seattle meeting as printed in the Manual. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: There is going to be one change from this program as here shown, an item that was on yesterday morning's program. I refer to the presentation of the gavel by the Near East Relief. Dr. Davidson will make this presentation.

William M. Davidson: Out of that memorable city of Nazareth, comes a voice this morning speaking to this great Association. It comes from the Near East Relief Orphanage where little hands have shaped and molded this emblem of authority for the presiding officer of this greatest of educational institutions in the world, the National Education Association of the United States of America, and they have asked me as their representative this morning to say that this emblem made out of the olive branch from that sacred city which has represented them throughout the world, is to represent them in terms of thankfulness for what the American public school children through the American school teacher leadership has done to relieve the suffering of the children in the Near East.

Madam Chairman, on behalf of the Near East Relief Association of America, on behalf of the children of Nazareth, this morning I have the honor to place in your hand this symbol of authority with their blessing, their love and affection upon you and upon the 1,000,000 teacherhood of America and the 28,000,000 associates represented in the child life in attendance upon the public schools of our beloved land.

President Adair: I have been watching for a number of years the work that is being done in the Near East, the work of training the boys and girls in that country to rebuild their country and to become useful citizens. It seems to me that it is most appropriate for the chairman of the National Education Association to use the gavel made in the carpenter shop at Nazareth. I assure you this will ever be one of my most prized possessions. Thank you.

Yesterday I told you of our Committee on Cooperation between the National Education Association and the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. We are honored this morning by having with us a representative of that Association, its president, *Dr. W. J. Hale*, Principal of the State Agricultural and Industrial College, Nashville, Tennessee, who will bring you the greetings of that Association. *Dr. Hale.*

W. J. Hale: Madam President, Ladies and Gentlemen: I want to thank you for that applause. I do not ordinarily receive applause, but if I do receive it, it is more often at the beginning rather than at the end of the address. (He then delivered the address which is printed in the volume of proceedings.)

President Adair: We appreciate very much *Dr. Hale's* greetings. He has been kind enough to invite us to go to their meeting in Charleston, W. Va., and we have arranged to send a representative to their meeting in July.

The first report for today will be presented by *Sarah T. Muir* of Nebraska, on "The Ethics of the Profession." *Miss Muir.*

Miss Muir (After presenting the main points in the report): Madam Chairman, I move the acceptance of this report and the continuance of the committee to complete its report. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: The next order of business is the presentation of the report of the Legislative Commission, a report on the Education Bill. This will be presented by *Dr. Davidson.*

Dr. Davidson: Madam Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: The report of the Legislative Commission has been printed and placed in your hands. By way of

giving special emphasis to the organization, I desire to read a paragraph or two as set forth on page 3 of the report. (He then discussed the report and answered questions. The report is printed in the proceedings.) May I, therefore, Madam Chairman, move the adoption of the report of the Legislative Commission as printed. (The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Edwards (Rhode Island): Is the matter to be decided without any debate at all?

President Adair: I am asking for debate, Dr. Edwards. If you want to speak, will you please come to the platform so that all may be sure to hear you.

Mr. Edwards: I realize that the National Education Association is overwhelmingly committed to this Bill. I am not speaking with the hope of converting anyone, but I do desire that it may be known that there are some of us who do not believe in this Bill.

Ladies and gentlemen, we do not regard the profession of the teacher as either degraded or elevated by being put on a parity with agriculture and commerce. There is a vast amount that might be said. My position as a teacher is not dependent for dignity or for power on whether the teachers have a representative in the cabinet at Washington. (After referring to an appropriation recommended by Dr. Mann he continued as follows:) Why a seat in the cabinet? What is it that one desires? When you make a seat in the cabinet for education, you are not dealing with trade, a material organization like agriculture, and I have as much respect for agriculture as anyone, but agriculture deals with material things. We are dealing with something higher. When you introduce into the cabinet at Washington the representative of the teacher's profession, you come pretty close to the matter of religion itself. Let's try it without a department for a while longer.

President Adair: I took the liberty of increasing the length of time allowed the speaker in favor of *Dr. Edwards*. The question has been called for, but our Chairman asks the courtesy of the floor to make a statement. I am sure you will grant it.

Dr. Davidson: (After answering the arguments of the previous speaker and after explaining the help previously given to the Bureau of Education and the organized plan of giving further help he spoke as follows:) We stand committed to increase the appropriation for the Bureau of Education in the interim that shall rest between now and the time when we shall dignify education and have it come into its own in America in terms of a Department of Education with a Secretary of Education at its head in the Cabinet of the President of the United States.

President Adair: The question has been called for. The question now is on the motion of adopting the report of the Legislative Commission. (The question was put to a vote and carried without dissenting votes.) The next order of business is an address by the representative of the Classroom Department. I am sorry to say that their president, *Miss Soules*, is unable to be here, but *Olive Bennettson* will take her place and speak on "The Value of the Regional Conferences of the Department of Classroom Teachers." *Miss Bennettson*.

Miss Bennettson: Madam Chairman, Members of the National Education Association: For your consolation I will say that although you are not listening to *Miss Soules*, you are listening to *Miss Soules'* report. (*Miss Bennettson* read the report entitled "The Value of the Regional Conferences of the Department of Classroom Teachers." It is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: We have a new department this year, and so I have asked its president, *Mr. Kadesch*, Headmaster, Medford High School, Medford, Massachu-

setts, to tell us of the "Outlook for our New Department." *Mr. Kadesch.* (*Mr. Kadesch* read his report entitled "Outlook for Our New Department." It is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: The next order of business is the report of the Convention Committee on Elections, of which *Mr. Sanders* of Massachusetts is Chairman.

Mr. Sanders: The annual election will be held on the fourth day of these sessions, which will be July 5. The polls will be opened from eight in the morning until six in the evening. Since registration will have been completed by that time, and having in mind your comfort and ease when it comes to voting, the Committee has selected the registration headquarters in Exhibition Hall for the place of holding the annual election. You will only have to remember that you will vote in the same place where you registered.

The ballots will be printed, voting will be simple. All that you will need to do will be to place a cross to the right of the name of the candidate for whom you wish to vote. In presenting yourself to ask for the ballot, kindly announce your state first, and then your name. The rest of it will be comparatively easy.

You are requested to vote as early as possible, and since the citizens of this great country will be called upon soon to exercise their wishes in a similar way, it is the wish of this Committee that you again attempt to set an example to the other voters of the country by casting a 100 percent vote.

Madam Chairman, I move the report of the Committee be accepted. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: We are ready for the roll call of states for the nomination of President. The Secretary will call the roll.

Secretary Crabtree: Alabama.

Mr. Abercrombie (Alabama): Alabama has no candidate for the presidency. By unanimous vote of our delegation I am authorized to yield to the state of Missouri.

President Adair: Has Missouri a nomination?

Genevieve Turk (Missouri): Madam President, Members of the Assembly of Delegates: I am here this morning to represent Missouri. First, I wish to voice the appreciation of Missouri for the gracious courtesy accorded us by our southern neighbor, Alabama. Two years ago Missouri presented a name to this Association for the presidency.

The two years that have intervened have served to strengthen and deepen the feeling that in Missouri, we have a man who will make a great leader and president for this Association, a man who will be a fitting successor for a long line of distinguished presidents, both men and women, of this Association, a man who will carry over the policies of this Association and who has the vision and the foresight to shape and adopt new policies as the occasion demands.

He has served in practically every field of educational endeavor beginning as a teacher in a rural community in Missouri, then principal of a high school, then county superintendent, then chief assistant in the state superintendent's office, then State superintendent of education, then during the war he was called to Washington as chief of the division for rehabilitation, then became director of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, returning to Missouri to become the president of one of its colleges. He has been active in every phase of the work in all professional organizations, always alert and active in the promotion of the education and always active in promoting the welfare of the teachers of the state and the nation.

By birth, tradition, and achievement, he represents Missouri's best. He is worthy to follow in the footsteps of the two great men from Missouri treasured in our memory, who served this Association many years: William T. Harris of St. Louis and James M. Greenwood of Kansas City.

Therefore, I nominate for the presidency of the National Education Association and present his name to this assembly of delegates for your consideration and decision, *Uel W. Lamkin*, President, Northwest Missouri Teachers College, Maryville, Missouri.

C. E. Rose: Arizona is but sixteen years old. We have no candidate for the presidency on that account, perhaps. Arizona is not going to claim the honor at this time which it might claim and which it would like to exercise, but instead by unanimous consent of the delegation, Arizona yields to Illinois.

Mrs. Armbruster (Illinois): Dr. Blair was to have made the nomination, but he was unavoidably detained. Two years ago Illinois came to Philadelphia with a candidate for the greatest honor that this organization has to bestow. We found when we got there a foe man worthy of our esteem. We learned to admire him for his courtesy, his courage, his loyalty to his friends, his generosity to his foes and his splendid sportsmanship. We have known of him as a great leader, as a great educator, and today Illinois deems itself highly honored to second the wise choice of its neighboring state, Missouri, in the nomination of that great gentleman, scholar, and leader, *Uel W. Lamkin*.

(As the call of states proceeded there was second after second to the nomination, no other candidate being named by any state.)

President Adair: Is there any state that may not have been called? The Committee will be instructed to place the name of *Dr. Lamkin* upon the ballot. You will have the privilege of voting for him on Thursday. No one else has been nominated. The next order of business is the roll call for the nomination of vice-presidents and for state directors. The following were nominated for vice-presidents:

George A. Allen, Kans.

Ira T. Chapman, N. J.

James P. Coates, S. C.

J. J. Early, Wyo.

Charles R. Foster, Pa.

Anna Graeme Fraser, Calif.

Edith L. Grosvenor, D. C.

Florence M. Hale, Maine.

A. B. Hill, Ark.

Elizabeth B. McCormick, Wis.

M. H. Madden, Ariz.

A. B. Mereworth, Conn.

C. K. Reiff, Okla.

C. B. Turner, La.

Caroline S. Woodruff, Vt.

The following were nominated for state directors:

W. K. Keller, Alaska.

J. D. Williams, Ala.

Herman E. Hendrix, Ariz.

J. P. Womack, Ark.

A. R. Clifton, Calif.

W. B. Mooney, Colo.

Gordon C. Swift, Conn.

David A. Ward, Del.

Harry English, D. C.

W. S. Cawthon, Fla.

M. L. Duggan, Ga.

F. E. Howard, Hawaii.

C. F. Dienst, Idaho.

A. L. Whittenberg, Ill.

Charles F. Miller, Ind.

Mary Lord, Iowa.

M. E. Pearson, Kans.

R. E. Williams, Ky.

C. B. Turner, La.

William B. Jack, Maine.

William Burdick, Md.

Annie C. Woodward, Mass.

Webster H. Pearce, Mich.

Effie MacGregor, Minn.

H. V. Cooper, Miss.

Thomas J. Walker, Mo.

R. J. Cunningham, Mont.

M. C. Lefler, Nebr.

Jennie A. Curieux, Nev.

Perley L. Horne, N. H.

Alexander J. Glennie, N. J.

Mrs. H. J. Brock, N. M.

William H. Holmes, N. Y.

T. Wingate Andrews, N. C.

Minnie J. Neilson, N. D.

R. J. Condon, Ohio.

J. G. Mitchell, Okla.

Nettie Mae Rankin, Ore.

J. Herbert Kelley, Pa.
Francisco Vizcarrondo, P. R.
Agnes M. Bacon, R. I.
George W. Wannamaker, S. C.
N. E. Steele, S. D.
P. L. Harned, Tenn.
L. W. Rogers, Texas.

B. A. Fowler, Utah.
Clarence H. Dempsey, Vt.
Joseph H. Saunders, Va.
Arthur L. Marsh, Wash.
Joseph Rosier, W. Va.
E. G. Doudna, Wis.
A. A. Slade, Wyo.

President Adair: There is one further office for which a name must be placed in nomination, that of treasurer. Is it your desire that we call the roll of states or that we ask for nominations from the floor? (Voices from the floor.) Nominations for treasurer are in order.

Mr. Miller: On behalf of the State of Indiana we desire to place in nomination for treasurer our present active treasurer, *Henry L. Smith* of the University of Indiana.

Mr. Ward (New Jersey): New Jersey wishes to second the nomination for the candidate of Indiana. (There were other seconds.)

Mr. Thomas (Minnesota): I move the nominations be closed.

(The motion was seconded by several states, was put to a vote, and carried.)

Mr. Parratt (Utah): My understanding is that unless action is taken to the contrary, the names of all these nominees for directors will be placed on the ballot. Am I correct? (Yes.) In view of that I move that we suspend the usual order of business and declare all of those who have been nominated to serve as state directors duly elected.

(The motion was seconded, put to a vote, and carried.)

President Adair: There are more than eleven names for vicepresident and those names will be put on the ballot for you to vote on next Thursday.

(The meeting adjourned at twelve ten o'clock.)

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.
Cornelia S. Adair, President.

Second Business Session, Thursday, July 5, 1928.

The second business session of the Representative Assembly convened in the Auditorium at 9 o'clock, *President Adair* presiding.

President Adair: The meeting will please come to order. Our meeting this morning will be opened by an invocation by the *Reverend F. D. Tyner*, Pastor, St. Luke's Church, Minneapolis. (After prayer the program was carried out.)

President Adair: I wish to announce the Committee on Reference, to which matters requiring investigation arising in the convention might be referred. This committee is: *Dr. Blair* of Illinois, chairman; *Mr. Webber* of Georgia, *Mr. Carter* of Missouri, *Miss Samuelson* of Iowa, *Dr. Mitchell* of Oklahoma, *Miss Hammond* of Oregon, and *Mr. Fowler* of Utah.

The Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association on Health Problems was to have reported on Monday. *Dr. Wood* was unable to be present. *Mrs. Preston*, who has been on the committee for a number of years will take his place.

Mrs. Preston read the report of the Joint Committee of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association on Health Problems. (Printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mrs. Preston: Madam Chairman, I move that this report be accepted and referred to the Health Department.

President Adair: You have heard the report of the Health Committee. The chairman moves that the report be accepted and referred to the Health Department. Do I hear a second? (The motion was seconded and carried.)

Augustus O. Thomas, State Commissioner of Education, and President of the World Federation of Education Associations, will now speak to us on "The Opportunity for the Teaching Profession to Lead in Promoting Better Understanding Among the Nations of the World." *Dr. Thomas*. (This address is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: The next order of business is a report of the Tenure Committee. This will be given by *Albert Lindsay Rowland*. Our chairman, *Dr. Hunter*, was unable to be present. *Mr. Rowland*. (*Mr. Rowland* then presented the report which is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: You have heard the report of the Committee on Tenure and the motion of the chairman that the committee be continued and that the report be accepted. This is also a recommendation of the Board of Directors. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: Just at this point there will be two other reports. The first is a committee elected by the delegate assembly on the economic status of the teacher. We were very fortunate in securing *Dr. Buckingham* of the Research Department of the Ohio University as the chairman of this committee. He will tell you of the program for next year. (This report is printed in the *Proceedings*.) (A motion was regularly made, seconded, and carried that the report be accepted.)

President Adair: We want to thank *Dr. Buckingham* and his committee. On Monday I told you of the change that had been made in the name of our Committee on Problems in Colored Schools. It is now the Committee on Cooperation between the National Education Association and the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. *Dr. Newbold*, of North Carolina, chairman of that committee, will present its report. *Dr. Newbold* read the report of the Committee to Cooperate with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. (Printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Dr. Newbold: Madam Chairman, I am glad to move the adoption of this report. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: The next order of business is a report from the Adult Education Department which is to be presented by *L. R. Alderman*, Specialist in Adult Education, United States Bureau of Education, Washington, entitled "Adult Education and Citizenship." *Dr. Alderman*. (*Dr. Alderman* read his report entitled "Adult Education and Citizenship." (Printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: I know you wish me to thank *Mr. Alderman* for his interesting report. We have had a committee for a number of years in which we are all interested, a Committee on Retirement Allowances. *E. Ruth Pyrtle* will now present the report. *Miss Pyrtle*. (*Miss Pyrtle* read the report of the Committee on Retirement Allowances.)

Miss Pyrtle: I move the adoption of the report.

President Adair: You have heard the motion. This is also the recommendation of the Board of Directors, that the report be adopted and the committee continued. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: The next discussion we will hear will be from the Rural Education Department on "Rural Education and Citizenship." It will be given by *William McKinley Robinson*, Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, President, Department of Rural Education. *Mr. Robinson*. (*Mr. Robinson* read his report entitled "Rural Education and Citizenship." Printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: We thank *Mr. Robinson* very much for the presentation of his rural education problems. The next item on our program is a report of the educational aspects of the Pan-American Child Congress at Havana, Cuba, by

Francisco Vizcarrondo, Assistant Commissioner of Education, San Juan, Porto Rico. *Mr. Vizcarrondo*. (The address is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: I know you wish me to thank *Mr. Vizcarrondo* for his presentation of this report.

There are to be seven very important reports tomorrow which affect the organization in its setup and in its policy for the next year. Let every delegate be here tomorrow and take part in the discussion.

(The meeting adjourned at 11:55 o'clock.)

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.

Cornelia S. Adair, President.

Third Business Session, Friday, July 6, 1928.

The third and final business session of the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association convened at 9 o'clock, *Miss Adair* presiding.

President Adair: The meeting will please come to order. This morning we will open our meeting by repeating the Lord's Prayer. Will you please rise? (The audience joined in the Lord's Prayer.)

Delegate (Missouri): *Miss Adair*, in behalf of the Missouri delegation we present these flowers in token of our appreciation of your wonderful services as President of the National Education Association.

President Adair: I didn't expect to get any flowers this morning because I am so near an "ex," but it is fine to have this gift from Missouri, and I accept for the National Education Association this lovely basket of flowers. (The audience expressed its appreciation in applause.)

No program of the National Education Association would be complete without a word from *Dr. Winship*. I am not going to say anything in introducing him, but I am just going to present him to you and you to him. *Dr. Winship*. (The audience arose and applauded.) (This address is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

President Adair: *Dr. Winship* as usual gave us a fine message.

We have an affiliated association far across the Pacific Ocean, a group that is more than 100 percent strong in the National Education Association. They always bring to us, no matter where we meet, their full quota of delegates, and so it seemed to me fitting that Hawaii should be represented on our program. I have asked the president of the Hawaiian Education Association to extend the greetings of Hawaii this morning. *F. E. Howard* of Hawaii. (*Mr. Howard's* address is printed in the *Proceedings*.)

Mr. Howard: (At the close of his address when the delegates of Hawaii marched on the stage, he said:) Madam President, I am directed by those people to make a presentation to you at this time. The lei is revered by all the people of Hawaii. It is a token of friendship. When an Hawaiian gives, he gives that which he himself holds dear, and today we are presenting to you a lei, and it is fitting that the actual presentation be made by one of Hawaiian blood; *Muriel Heen* will now wait on you. (Presentation of lei to *Miss Adair*. Singing of National Anthem of Hawaii.)

Mr. Howard: And in conclusion for our own teachers back in Hawaii I wish you Aloha nui nui.

President Adair: I am going to ask *Mr. Howard* to convey to the Hawaiian teachers my appreciation of their gift. This is one of their own feather leis, the most precious gift that people of Hawaii can make, and it is with great gratitude that I receive it and their Aloha. (The Delegation then presented both *Miss Chase* and *Mr. Crabtree* with the lei in appreciation of their work at the central office.) *Dr. Siders*, field agent of the World Federation, will present the report of the Committee on International Relations. He is secretary of our International Relations Committee. *Dr. Siders*,

Mr. Siders: It is recommended there be appointed by the president of this Association for the Geneva Conference of the World Federation of Education Associations a total of approximately 250 delegates. The constitution of the Federation limits the vote of the delegation to fifty. They will determine among themselves how these fifty votes shall be cast, what persons will have voting power of these 250 delegates. It is also requested that you authorize that the chairman of this delegation to the Geneva Conference shall have the authority to delegate duties to the various members of the delegate body from America, so that the delegation may be completely organized. I move the adoption of these recommendations. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: The next order of business is the report of the Treasurer.
Dr. H. L. Smith.

Mr. Smith: Madam President, Representative Assembly: You will find the Treasurer's report in the pamphlets that have been distributed. It is entitled the Auditor's report. This report covers the financial records of the Secretary, the Board of Trustees, and the Treasurer. Will you turn to pages 15 and 18? Those pages contain the report of the Treasurer. (He then explained details and stated that the formal report would be printed in the Proceedings.) Madam Chairman, I move the adoption of this report. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

Mr. Reynolds (Ohio): Ohio in her graciousness wants to present to you this basket of flowers in appreciation of your great services.

President Adair: I want to express to Ohio my appreciation of their making our table symmetrical as well as for the lovely flowers. I wish I could make each one of you understand how much I have appreciated your cooperation and your generosity this year. Now we will have the report of the Board of Trustees presented by the chairman, *Dr. Siders*. (After going carefully over the report *Mr. Siders* moved the adoption of the report.) (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: In order that you may not have a report from the same person twice in succession, I am going to take the liberty of making one change in the program. We have with us this morning a representative from the German teachers who will bring us the greetings of the German Teachers Association, *Dr. Max Zimpel*, Exchange Professor from Germany at the North Dakota Agricultural College in Fargo. *Dr. Zimpel*. (*Dr. Zimpel* read his paper entitled "A Message from the German Teachers Association." The address is printed in the Proceedings.)

President Adair: I know you want me to thank *Dr. Zimpel* for those words of greeting that he brought us from the German teachers, and to express our appreciation of his invitation to come to their national meeting next summer. Many of us will go to Geneva. I hope we may accept both invitations, the World Federation and the German teachers.

We will now hear the report of the Budget Committee. This report has been received by the Executive Board and by the Directors, and it is recommended to you for your adoption. *Mr. Siders*, Chairman of the Committee, will present the report.

Mr. Siders: (After going over the budget items explaining as necessary.) Madam Chairman, I move the adoption of the report.

President Adair: It has been moved that the report of the Budget Committee be adopted. This report is recommended to you by the Directors for adoption. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: The next order of business is the report of the Committee on the Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions.

Several persons have asked the privilege of the floor. Therefore, it seems to me wise for us to read the rules of procedure adopted by you on Monday. You

will find it on page 3 of your manual. *Mr. Joseph Saunders* of Newport News, Virginia, official parliamentarian, will read the rules adopted by you for your guidance. *Mr. Saunders.* (*Mr. Saunders* read the rules of order on page 3 of the Manual adopted on July 2, 1928.)

President Adair: I will now ask *Dr. Claxton*, Chairman of the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Question, to present the report.

P. P. Claxton: Apparently for some years members of the Association responsible for its workings have felt the need of some clearer statement and maybe readjustment of the relations of the state and local affiliated organizations to the Representative Assembly and probably to the Association as a whole.

Mr. Claxton then gave a history of the appointment of the committees on amending the Bylaws, the difficulties encountered, the open minded attitude of the committee, the various meetings and what was accomplished at each meeting. He explained that the Bylaws were printed in the manual, the first column being the old Bylaws, the second column being the Amendments proposed at Seattle and in the third column the substitute proposal worked out by his committee at its recent Chicago meeting. He then moved the adoption of the Seattle amendments and when the motion was seconded he moved to substitute the proposals made at the Chicago meeting of the committee for the amendments proposed at Seattle. (The motion was seconded.)

President Adair: It is moved and seconded that this report as amended be adopted. We are now ready for discussion. It seems to your chairman that it might be wise, although you will use your judgment in the matter, to adopt this report in two sections, one having to do with harmonizing the Bylaws with our charter and with themselves, and second, having to do with the appointment of delegates. *Dr. Claxton* will now speak.

Mr. Claxton: Madam Chairman and Members of the Representative Assembly: I believe it will be helpful if first we go over the substance of these amendments as submitted here. We may all have read them, but let's read them together. There is one correction that I must make. First, I have put together all of the amendments of all of the articles except Article II, which I have placed last. (He then took the report up article by article and section by section, showing the nature of every proposed change and the reasons therefor.)

President Adair: Do I hear a motion that we vote on this report in two sections?

Mr. Holmes (New York): I so move.

Mr. Sutton (Georgia): I second the motion.

(The motion was put to a vote and carried.)

President Adair: How shall you vote on this section viva voce or by ballot?

Mr. Holmes (New York): I move that the Secretary cast the ballot of the Association for all proposed changes in all except Article II. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: Mr. Secretary, will you cast the vote?

Secretary Crabtree: I hereby cast the vote of the delegates for the proposed changes in all Articles except Article II.

President Adair: You are now ready to hear the second part of this report. *Dr. Claxton* will present it to you.

Mr. Claxton: Madam Chairman and Delegates: Your Committee felt from the beginning that its great task was in Section 2 because that affects directly the organization of this Representative Assembly for the creation of which the charter was amended and which has come to be its most important agency for carrying on its work, taking the place of the whole body of the people who are members, the active members.

We wrote it and rewrote it. I suppose twenty-five different suggestions were made. We were confronted with two or three problems; first, the rapidly increasing size of the Representative Assembly on the basis of provision of the present Bylaws. We have here today somewhere between 1700 and 1800 delegates, I am informed. There are actually 1146 who have reported at this meeting. There were 1145 at the Seattle meeting. This is the Representative Assembly that has grown by one. Therefore the joke is on you. The Association is growing rapidly. I have been informed 10,000 new members have come in this year, no, 11,000, and it is true that we should have 500,000 members in due time. Our hope is finally for a membership of practically all of the teachers of the United States, and on the basis of the representation as provided by the present Bylaws, that would give something like five times as many delegates as we now have, a possibility of 6000 members in the Representative Assembly.

(He then went over the proposed changes in every section in Article II, showing the reasons for the change and urging a favorable vote. He presented arguments for the proposed changes.)

Miss Jones: Would *Dr. Claxton* answer a question? If the delegates assembled on the first meeting of the convention nominate one person and the state association has already nominated another, which one will be elected by acclamation?

Mr. Claxton: The delegates present at this meeting under these Bylaws may not nominate if the state has already done it. If the state teachers' association or education association has made the nomination, then it cannot be made by the delegates here.

Mr. Hendrie: Does the member of the state association in voting for the director have to be a member of the National Education Association?

Mr. Claxton: Not under the Bylaws. (He explained why the vote should be by all in the state and local association.)

President Adair: Are there any further questions?

Miss Jones (New York): Might it not happen under such a condition that the state association would be able to elect a director for this organization who is not a member of the National Education Association?

Mr. Claxton: Only active members of the National Education Association can vote in this organization or in the Board of Directors and only active members can sit in the Representative Assembly.

President Adair: There is one thing for us to decide before we vote. Are we going to vote on Article II as a whole or are we going to vote on Article II by sections? *Dr. Claxton* suggests that you might like him to explain all of Article II and then make that decision.

Mr. Claxton: The sections of Article II are interlocked and interrelated, and it is necessary to consider them all. (He again explained the changes, section by section, and followed with additional arguments for the report.)

President Adair: How do you wish to vote on this part of the report?

Mr. Taylor (Rochester): What will be the basis of adopting or refusing to adopt the amendments now under consideration?

Mr. Saunders: As I understand the gentleman's question refers to the two-thirds vote of the Representative Assembly. I say that it does not affect that in any other way than to still require a two-thirds vote to amend the Bylaws of the Association should you adopt the proposed amendments. Does that answer the gentleman's question?

Mr. Taylor: It does. I thank you.

Mr. Holmes: Point of order. These amendments have never been proposed in writing at an annual meeting.

President Adair: I will ask the parliamentarian to state the rule.

Mr. Saunders: If I understand the question raised by the gentleman, it is that the amendments proposed at Chicago cannot be considered at this time by virtue of the fact that they were not proposed at Seattle.

In answer to that I would say to the gentleman from New York that the proposition comes from a report of a committee, that we are governed by Roberts' Rules of Order, that if he will refer to page 271 of Roberts' Rules of Order he will find this language: "If a committee is appointed to revise the Bylaws and report at a certain meeting, this would be all that is required and the amendments could be immediately acted upon." If the Bylaws require only previous notice of amendments or if they require the amendments to be submitted at a previous regular meeting, the revision could not be taken up until the next regular meeting, and this is the next regular meeting since Seattle after the committee had submitted its report. It submitted its report in Seattle.

The committee may submit a substitute for the proposed Bylaws. A substitute is an amendment; so therefore I should rule that the proposition as submitted by the Chairman of the Committee is in order for the assembly to vote upon.

President Adair: The point under consideration at this time is the manner in which we will vote on Section II.

Mr. Wannamaker (West Virginia): I move that we adopt this section as a whole for the reason that if we should adopt one part of this section and not adopt the whole section, I think we will have confused the thing to a greater extent than it is confused at the present time. I therefore move we vote on this Article as a whole and as submitted by the committee.

Mr. St. Johns: I second the motion.

President Adair: As a matter of information I will state that the Board of Directors recommended such action. Any questions?

Mr. Holmes (New York): I should like to make a statement in regard to this whole matter.

President Adair: It has been moved and seconded that this section be adopted as a whole.

Mr. Holmes: When do I get a chance to discuss the amendments?

President Adair: As soon as somebody moves something else. Are you ready for the question that we vote on this as a whole? (The question was put to a vote and carried.)

President Adair: Now Dr. Holmes you will be heard for a statement or for a motion, whichever you choose, on the pending motion, which is the adoption of Article II.

Mr. Holmes: Madam Chairman and Delegates: This is the most critical time in the history of this Association, I believe. We are about to decide whether we will depart from the policy of democracy and pursue in the future a policy of bureaucracy. We are about to decide whether we shall exalt organization through state associations or whether we will exalt departing from a long tradition direct participation in this great Association by the teachers of America.

If this amendment of Article II goes through it deprives us, deprives you who are here, to the extent of a number of hundreds, of direct representation in the representative assembly. What does it mean? It means that 461 communities in this nation of ours having population between 9000 and 20,000 that are now represented in general in this assembly will be deprived of direct representation in this assembly, a most serious step, as I see it.

It also takes away from you people who come here each year the right that you had for many years, of electing the state director of your local group, and places it in the hands of the state association, unless that state association happens to fail to exercise its privilege, which it never will. (After referring to the effect on Minnesota, Indiana, and other states he continued.) To my way of

thinking this matter should be recommitted and either this same Committee go on with this work, or the enlarged Committee go on with this work considering these things that we are now presenting here. I believe we ought to have an entirely different setup as a basis for representation.

I should like to see something like this presented, and I have never heard it presented before, that the basis of representation in the Representative Assembly for both state and local affiliated associations shall be one delegate for the first fifty members or major fraction thereof, and one delegate for each 500 additional members or major fraction thereof in such state or local affiliated association. That would give us, my friends, a small enough deliberative assembly. That would give us an opportunity for hearing every one of these smaller communities come here and put their debate directly in this assembly every year, and you know what that means.

Furthermore, I believe that we should consider seriously the plan of continuing the method of choosing the members of Board of Directors, leaving the Bylaws as they are until we have some much better method of doing it.

Just a short time ago Edwin Markham wrote one of the greatest verses I have seen. It was called *Outwitted*.

He drew a circle that shut me out,
A heretic rebel: a thing to flout,
But love and I had the wit to win
We drew a circle that took him in.

I am changing that a little and calling it *Included*.

They drew a circle and left us out,
Little cities and villages out in the route,
Our mighty Committee have the wit to win,
We draw the circle and take you in.

President Adair: Are you ready for discussion? A member of the Committee wishes to present another view.

J. Herbert Kelley (Pennsylvania): Madam President and Members of the Representative Assembly: I desire to compliment *President Adair* for suggesting the division of the report by *Dr. Claxton* into two parts. By our having approved the report on the noncontroversial subject, we have reaped the benefits of two years' work of the Committee and have made substantial progress in harmonizing the Bylaws with themselves and with the Charter. We have improved our organization greatly.

The issue before us is the adoption of Article II and I desire to submit a brief analysis of Sections 2, 3, and 10. Section 3 of that article changes the basis of representation of a state education association to one delegate for each 200 members or major fraction. On the present basis the Pennsylvania State Education Association next year can send to this convention forty-one state delegates. That basis is one for 100 members and one for every 500 thereafter. As we have 18,500 National Education Association members in Pennsylvania, it is evident that the first 500 will give us five delegates and the remaining 18,000 will give us thirty-six. The divisor of the 18,000 is 500. If you reduce that divisor to 200, it is evident that you will increase the quotient for it is a principle in division that if you divide the divisor, you multiply the quotient. Now 18,500 divided by 200 gives ninety-two. Thus our state delegation will be twice that on the present basis; but there is a greater opportunity than that for swelling the size of this body.

If the delegates should be sent by the local associations, our National Education Association membership could be so gerrymandered in small groups of 101, the

major fraction of 200, that each unit of that size could send one delegate. If you divide 18,500 by 101, you get a quotient of 184, the potential size of the delegation from Pennsylvania on the basis of our present National Education Association membership.

The June number of the excellent *Journal of the National Education Association* carried an article in which the "guess" was expressed that next year's assembly would contain about 1000 or 1200 delegates. Let us examine that "guess." If you divide the present National Education Association membership of 190,000 by the irreducible minimum number of members for a delegate, 101, your quotient is approximately 1900. But we have made no provision for a growth of 10,000 or more members next year. On the basis of 200,000 members the assembly could contain 2000 delegates.

The absurdity of Section 3 is apparent when we consider our ideal of an all-inclusive membership of the 1,000,000 teachers of America.

All of this is bad enough, but Section 3 provides that a state association may elect its delegates provided they are not elected by the affiliated locals; thus the state association becomes the residuary legatee and it is conceivable that in some cases the state association will be the residuary legatee of nothing.

Let us examine the worst feature of Section 3, Article II. That section continues the present unjust plan of giving representation to major fractions. It is easy to demonstrate the injustice of such a system. At the present time a local association may elect a delegate for 100 members or major fraction, 51 members, while a state association may elect one for the first 100 members up to 500 and for every 500 thereafter. The bulk of state delegates are thus elected on the basis of one for 500 members. The bulk of local delegates are elected on the basis of one for 100 members. The ratio of 500 to 100 is 5. Thus members in small units have five times the voting strength of members in large units. This is manifestly an unfair system of apportioning delegates.

Madam Chairman, Article II should be defeated for this reason alone, even if it did not contain the other objectionable features. May I call your attention to complicated and cumbersome machinery set up in Sections 4 and 10 of Article II? These proposals are charged with opportunity for unpleasant relations between state and local association. Some local may object to furnishing the state association its list of members and their representation preferences. Such lists must entail a great amount of labor, and the proposals lend themselves to creating confusion, error, misunderstanding, and possibly conflict between professional groups within a state.

Is it not ridiculous for an organization approaching 200,000 members, and setting its goal at one million, to attempt to maintain direct contact with local affiliated units of 101 to 200 members? Certainly it is cumbersome and expensive. The local affiliated unit is a vestige of the National Education Association's development, but it should be allowed to function under the new conditions imposed by the great size of the National Education Association and the development of state associations.

The National Education Association organization will hold together for a few years as it is, while the proposed study is being made. Its ideals and the general tone of the profession have done, and will continue to do, wonders in spite of its unbalanced and rickety organization.

President Adair: We have now had two opposite views on the report.

Miss Jones: Madam Chairman, the Committee was originally appointed in 1924 for the purpose of harmonizing the provisions of the Bylaws and the charter of this organization. They have done a magnificent piece of work and this organization in adopting that portion of their report has done itself credit as a deliberative body.

However, I now desire to move, as a substitute for the motion to adopt Article II, that the matter of Article II be referred back, and that the President of this

Association be requested to appoint or reappoint a committee to bring in a report at this next annual meeting including recommendations which will harmonize the difficulties that have been presented here this morning.

Mr. Hendrie (New York): I second the motion.

Randall J. Condon (Cincinnati, Ohio): In four years a committee of fifty-four members tried to harmonize the conflicting points. How in the world shall they do it in one year if they could not do it in four?

Miss Jones: I rise to a point of personal privilege. The Committee was not composed of fifty-four members four years ago and it was not appointed four years ago to harmonize conflicting views.

President Adair: I think the group understand that, *Miss Jones*.

Mr. Condon: Since New York and Pennsylvania seem to be so far apart, although neighboring states, I would like to speak for Ohio as a means of harmonizing their differences. (Applause.) All I wish to say is, that Ohio, third in membership in the National Association, having increased its membership this last year in larger number than any other state, is loyal to the National Association. I learned my local democracy in the same state that *Dr. Holmes* learned his, although born in a much smaller community in the state of Maine than where he was born, and I would not take from any local community any privilege or right of representation that they ought to have in this great National Association. We have more small communities in Ohio than they have in New York, and yet having studied this question in our local group, having studied it intensively by our state association, we unanimously today recommend the adoption of the report of the Committee (applause), and we believe that if this report is adopted it will do much to harmonize the conflicting views of New York and Pennsylvania.

Mr. Blair: At the Philadelphia meeting I discovered that a committee on eliminating duplicate representation in this body had been at work I thought for two years. I have learned here it was for three years, and the committee there was authorized to study the matter of delegate representation and kindred subjects. I appointed a committee on the authority of the President and secured the services of Commissioner Claxton, than whom I can think of no one who could have brought to the considerations of this Committee that kind of intelligence and that kind of catholicity of mind that was necessary to a comprehensive view of this.

I believe that we have eliminated duplicate representation. We may not have gone down as low in the number as *Mr. Holmes* would have, but if we went down to fifty-one, which he recommends, I could get up here and make you shed tears over the little communities that haven't fifty-one members and tell you how many of them there are. Then someone would get up and challenge that and say, "Let's go back to the old active membership, where every active member of this Association can come here and vote, we are killing democracy, we are taking away from the active member the right to come here. This is a representative body and we are trying to get an organization here that shall be irresponsible."

I have no atom of feeling on this, however loud my words may sound on this. I wanted done just what you have done. I think, as *Mr. Kelley* has said, only one member of our Committee has differed from the conclusion. I think that was a great work, but I do believe, ladies and gentlemen, that we are in danger of a volcanic explosion here when we come down sometime to the election of a president or some great question, and California, absolutely under the Bylaws, everything is done regularly—When California came to Philadelphia with more delegates there than was sent down by Massachusetts, by New York, by Pennsylvania, and by Ohio, how was it done? By these local associations pyramiding their votes under the Bylaws through duplicate voting. Now the report of this Committee must not ever be overlooked in that it does avoid duplicate representation.

I therefore hope that this great Representative Assembly will approve the work of this Committee that has now been sitting for two years with some changed members. Therefore, I hope that this motion to defer action for a year will be voted down.

Mr. Winship: I have only one word to say and that is in response to the very clever attitude of *Dr. Holmes*. Anybody who knows the state associations knows there isn't a state in this union where one or two cities control. You know perfectly well that the outside people in any state association have a vote and they unite. He mentioned a few cities that would fare hard; they would get together mighty quick.

Personally, I do hope that we will magnify the word "go" today and not the word "whoa." (Calls for the question.)

President Adair: The parliamentarian has been asked to rule as to whether the mere calling for question closes the debate.

Miss Harden: Has it been decided how the vote is to be taken?

President Adair: Right now I want you to decide whether or not I shall put the question.

President Adair: The President understood the call for question was the same as previous question. Since it is not and does not preclude the Chairman making a statement, the Chair will rule that the Chairman will make a statement.

Mr. Claxton: I agree with you as to the importance of getting through, but you will remember, "Blessed are they that hunger."

I simply want to call attention to two false impressions that you might get from statements that were made here. It was stated that we do not eliminate duplicate representation. It may be that a member of a local association can vote there and also vote in the state association, but there cannot be duplicate delegates. They can be counted only in one association. I think that answers that and helps you to understand.

Mr. Hanna (California): Madam Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen: The people of California are like the people of the rest of the United States. They come to the National Education Association to learn and to help others learn, to exchange views. Fewer delegates than we have are inadequate to cover the magnificent program of the National Education Association with its many important departments. Local associations need adequate reports given back to them for the advantage of their members and most emphatically for the good of the National Education Association.

I am not worried in California about the method of selecting our delegates. Others may be. It may be an important point but I am worried about the matter of not covering the programs of the National Education Association adequately for the purpose of our people. I thank you.

Mr. Holmes: Just one sentence in reply to *Dr. Blair*. I am not sobbing for the many hundred cities that are left out by the Committee but I am sobbing for the 461 that are literally thrown out by the Committee, and you can sob and I can sob and he can sob, because it will do irreparable harm to this Association to literally throw the 461 delegates out of this Association.

Mr. Rose (Arizona): It seems to me we are getting no closer together. The best way we can get together right here and now is the previous question. Madam President, I move the previous question. (The motion was seconded.)

President Adair: I state that the previous question is on the motion to recommit Article II to the Committee.

Article Adair: We will now vote on whether or not we will call for the question. (The motion calling for the question was put to a vote and carried.)

President Adair: The previous question is that we recommit Article II to the Committee. The effect will be to postpone action for at least a year. (The question was put to a vote and lost.)

Miss Jones: I call for a roll call of states.

President Adair: The Chair has heard a demand for roll call. Is it your desire to have a roll call of the states?

Miss Jones: Madam Chairman, when a roll call for the states is called for, that is equivalent to calling for a division. It is not a matter of vote. It must be done.

President Adair: I will state from here in just a minute the parliamentary's rule.

Mr. Saunders: Working under Roberts' Rules of Order, which is the established order of the assembly, on a call for division, a motion of ayes and noes as to whether just a call shall be had must be taken immediately, and if that, by majority vote, is demanded, then the division can be called.

Since our own particular Bylaws do not give specific plans for a roll call in order to have a roll call, it would be necessary for the assembly to so vote.

President Adair: The Chair has already put that question to a vote but let us put the question to vote again. All in favor of having a roll call of the states on the matter of recommitting will please stand. There are 223 ayes. Will those opposed stand? There are 304 noes. The vote is lost.

Are you ready to vote on the question to recommit? All in favor of recommitting Article II to the Committee will please say aye; those opposed no. The Chair rules that the noes have it.

Miss Jones: Madam Chairman, I think the Bylaws distinctly say: These Bylaws may be altered or amended at the annual meeting of the Representative Assembly by unanimous vote or by two thirds vote of the Representative Assembly.

President Adair: You mean you are calling for a division?

Miss Jones: I am calling for the original roll call to see if we have two thirds vote of no. If we have a two thirds vote I will submit like a perfectly good sport.

President Adair: We are not voting on the amendment which requires a two thirds vote but we are voting on the motion to recommit, which requires a majority vote. The Chair ruled that the noes had it. Do I hear an appeal from the decision of the Chair?

Miss Jones: I then move that we vote on the original question.

President Adair: That is what we must vote on.

(*Mr. Wannamaker* was recognized and began to speak on the question when a member raised the point of order, that the previous question prevents debate on the main subjects as well as the amendments.)

President Adair: The previous question has now been called for and we will vote on the original motion. All in favor of adopting Article II will please say aye; those opposed no. The Chair is in doubt.

Mr. Wannamaker: I rise to a point of information. The parliamentary stated at the beginning that votes here could be counted only for the ones present and I have heard a lot of discussion as to how they are going to vote, and I wanted that announcement made, that only those present can vote.

President Adair: Only those present may vote and the state directors will take the ayes and noes in a few minutes as soon as you are ready. The Secretary will call the roll.

Following is the roll call vote on the motion to adopt Article II:

	<i>In Favor</i>	<i>Against</i>
Alabama	10	0
Arizona	0	14
Arkansas	1	0
California	8	80
Colorado	25	1

	<i>In Favor</i>	<i>Against</i>
Connecticut	5	6
Delaware		(absent)
District of Columbia	0	4
Florida	3	0
Georgia	3	0
Hawaii	0	18
Idaho	2	0
Illinois	78	8
Indiana	0	17
Iowa	2	8
Kansas	0	12
Kentucky	2	2
Louisiana	3	0
Maine	0	5
Maryland	1	0
Massachusetts	3	18
Michigan	3	0
Minnesota	43	2
Mississippi		(absent)
Missouri	15	2
Montana	3	0
Nebraska	13	0
Nevada		(absent)
New Hampshire	2	0
New Jersey	11	5
New Mexico	0	2
New York	1	23
North Carolina	1	0
North Dakota	3	0
Ohio	46	2
Oklahoma	3	0
Oregon	10	3
Pennsylvania	2	31
Porto Rico		(absent)
Rhode Island	1	0
South Carolina	2	0
South Dakota	6	1
Tennessee	0	2
Texas	14	4
Utah	3	0
Vermont	2	0
Virginia	7	0
Virgin Islands		(absent)
Washington	33	2
West Virginia	1	0
Wisconsin	4	15
Wyoming	6	0

Secretary Crabtree: "Has any state been omitted?"

(While the appointed tellers were counting the votes cast, the following business was transacted.)

President Adair: We received this morning a note from our Chairman of Necrology stating he was unable to finish his report. I would like to hear a

motion from the floor to ask the Chairman of Necrology to finish his report in order that it may be published in the *Proceedings*.

William R. Ward (Trenton, N. J.): I so move. (The motion was seconded and carried.)

Mr. Howe (Indiana): I move that since the President of the United States is in the neighborhood we send him the following telegram:

Honorable Calvin Coolidge,
President of 120 Million Citizens,
Superior Wisconsin

Extraordinary convention just closing emphasized training for citizenship. Our heartiest greetings extended as never before.

Assembled Delegates
National Education Association
at Minneapolis.

President Adair: Your President would like to report that the President of the United States was invited to appear here, since he was in the neighborhood. His Secretary, *Mr. Sanders*, reported that the President was not accepting any invitations to speak during his holiday, but requested that his best wishes be extended to this organization.

It has been moved and seconded that we send this telegram as read. Are you ready for the question?

(The question was put to a vote and carried.)

President Adair: Is there any other nice thing we can do easily? *Dr. Siders* would like to make an announcement.

Mr. Siders: This is a personal matter that I think is interesting. I think the most fitting thing that has happened in this convention is that *Mr. Crabtree* is dressed up like a June bride because this is his wedding anniversary. (The Secretary was wearing the lei presented to him earlier in the session.)

President Adair: We have just one other item of business and I don't think we should take that informally because it is the report of the Resolutions Committee.

Miss Harden: I move the report of the Resolutions Committee be adopted as printed. (The motion was seconded.)

Mr. Rosier: The Committee desires to say that there should be one change made in the printed report. The first sentence in Section 4 on retirement should be stricken out and this sentence put in its place: "Sound teachers' retirement systems increase school efficiency."

R. W. Everett (California): I have an amendment I wish to make to No. 10. I am offering this amendment as an individual and not as the wish of the California delegation. It is in regard to the Seattle situation and we wish to add it to the present amendment to read as follows:

"Whereas, the Board of Education of Seattle, Washington, has required as a condition of employment that all the high-school teachers of the city shall sign a contract which restricts their liberty to join professional organizations of their choice; and

"Whereas, the effort to control a fundamental civil right of teachers inevitably has the effect of hindering the movement for democracy in education in this country, and tends to encourage those who seek to dominate the thinking of teachers in behalf of certain large corporate interests; and

"Whereas, the unreasonable increase of restrictions in contracts of boards of education with teachers will inevitably weaken the movement for promoting sound tenure laws for teachers by giving educational authorities legal power to dismiss for trivial reasons, thus tending to keep intelligent, discerning young men and women from entering the profession; therefore be it

Resolved, That the National Education Association in convention assembled deplore the conduct of the Seattle Board of Education and request that the Seattle Board withdraw the restrictive regulations now applying to the high school teachers of that city."

Madam Chairman, I move its adoption.

President Adair: Mr. Everett asked to bring this up today. Of course I consented. I asked that someone from Seattle be requested to come to make a statement because I knew you would like to have both sides. I have not had anyone do that. I would like to ask the question whether or not the Seattle teachers asked for this resolution. It is quite possible for us to step into a situation that would embarrass the teachers rather than help them. Did the Seattle teachers, Mr. Everett, ask for this?

Mr. Everett: Mr. Satherwaite, of Seattle, can speak for part of the group.

President Adair: Mr. Satherwaite, will you state whether the teachers of Seattle made this request?

Mr. Satherwaite: Madam President, Delegates: I represent the high-school teachers of Seattle as a delegate of Seattle, as the President of the Seattle High School Teachers' League, and also am a delegate, one of the two regularly elected delegates to this convention, of that High School Teachers' League.

(After showing the unfairness of the action of the Seattle board he continued.)

The Seattle teachers, through the representatives, would like to ask favorable action on this resolution from this body, not so much as it would affect the Seattle teachers themselves, but as it affects the tenure and really the constitutional liberty of teachers in general, and also the way in which it might affect the National Education Association.

President Adair: We will be most happy to hear from the gentleman from Washington, and then I shall rule that the Chairman of the Resolutions Committee who rejected this resolution shall have an opportunity of saying why the Committee rejected it.

J. Guy Lowman (Washington): Madam President and Members of this Association: I am a principal from the Seattle schools and I come on the other side of that same proposition. Just now is not the time and this is not the place to discuss the matter. This is now a local proposition. It is now in the courts, and any action on this at this time would be something of an implication on the courts of Washington.

President Adair: The Chair has requested the Chairman of the Committee to state the reasons of the Committee for refusing to accept the resolution.

Mr. Rosier: The paragraphs here represent the best thoughts of the different committees, members, and workers in this Association. Section 10 on the privileges of the teacher has been prepared by representatives of the classroom teachers of this Association after a great deal of thought and study.

The Committee on Wednesday forenoon gave a hearing to the Seattle matter. We had only one side of it at that time. We knew it was a controversial matter, and I think you will find by investigation that the National Education Association in its resolutions has never taken any part in any controversy. We do not question that there may be merit in one side or the other, but if we were going to pass upon these controversies it would be necessary to make an investigation, to take evidence, and to weigh the evidence and to pass the case. It seems impractical for a committee of the National Education Association to conduct such a trial and investigation. Therefore we feel that the resolution or the declaration concerning the place of the teacher was as far as we could go, and we think it deals with the essential principles involved in teacher freedom.

President Adair: Is there any further discussion? The motion before you is the amendment to Resolution No. 10, the statement read by the gentleman from

Seattle. The question has been called for. All in favor of adding that statement to our resolution please say aye; those opposed no. The motion is lost.

The question is now on the original motion to accept the report of the Resolutions Committee as printed, unless you have further amendments.

Mr. Clifton (California): Just a suggestion in regard to acknowledging the splendid services of the Parent-Teachers' Association in the last resolution, No. 17.

President Adair: The Chairman is delighted to add that. Any further suggestion? (The motion was put to a vote and carried.) Now we are ready to announce the vote on Article II. For, '387, against, 287, necessary to carry 449. The Chairman therefore declares the motion to adopt the proposals in Article II lost.

I wish to make this statement, with which I am sure you will agree. While we regret that much of the work of the Committee is not lost but made of less avail, we do believe in a vote as close as this that it is better to postpone action.

Mr. Saunders has been recognized.

Mr. Saunders: I yield to *Miss Jones*.

Miss Jones: Madam Chairman, I want to express my personal appreciation of the work of this Committee from the very beginning. I move that the Committee be continued and the President of this Association be requested to appoint a committee to bring about a solution of these problems.

Mr. Saunders: I yielded to *Miss Jones* in order that she might make her explanation, and now I would like to ask her to let my motion precede hers, and then we will consider hers, if she will agree.

Miss Jones: All right.

Mr. Saunders: I should like to make a motion which may be regarded by some as superfluous but by others as very necessary, that we accept as the Bylaws of the National Education Association the report as amended in Resolution I and that Article II remain as it is.

In other words this motion would make a complete adoption of the Bylaws, whereas some question may now exist as to where our Bylaws extend.

Mr. Claxton: You mean all the articles except Article II. (The answer was yes.)

President Adair: *Mr. Saunders* moved to adopt all amendments except in Article II, and that Article II remain as at present written.

(The motion was seconded, put to a vote and carried.)

Miss Jones: I move that the Committee be continued and that the President of this Association be asked to appoint a committee to bring about a solution of the problems as discussed by the Committee and as revealed here this morning.

President Adair: Do you wish that to also include the question of the Charter?

Miss Jones: Yes, Madam President. I think it had better be settled all at once.

Mr. Claxton: I suggest, since talking it over with the Committee, that that committee do not be authorized to obtain a new Charter. I would like to suggest that this committee when continued do not undertake to obtain a new Charter but to study carefully, comprehensively, and fundamentally the whole problem of the organization of this Association and what may be necessary in a new Charter so that it may be reported to this Association and then a committee authorized to obtain it if desired. (The motion was seconded.)

President Adair: With that explanation of *Miss Jones*' motion and the interpretation, are you ready to vote?

(The question was put to a vote and carried.)

President Adair: Is there any further business?

The next report, which I want to make the last one, is the report of the Election Committee. *Mr. Sanders* of Massachusetts is Chairman.

Mr. Sanders: The vote as cast at yesterday's election is as follows:

For President, *Uel W. Lamkin*, of Missouri—890 votes

For Vicepresidents:

<i>George A. Allen, Jr.</i> , Kansas.....	752	votes
<i>Ira T. Chapman</i> , New Jersey	604	"
<i>James P. Coates</i> , South Carolina	560	"
<i>J. J. Early</i> , Wyoming	628	"
<i>Charles R. Foster</i> , Pennsylvania	570	"
<i>Anne Graeme Fraser</i> , California	756	"
<i>Edith L. Grosvenor</i> , District of Columbia	481	"
<i>Florence M. Hale</i> , Maine	706	"
<i>A. B. Hill</i> , Arkansas	522	"
<i>Elizabeth B. McCormick</i> , Wisconsin	678	"
<i>M. H. Madden</i> , Arizona	567	"
<i>A. B. Meredith</i> , Connecticut	470	"
<i>C. K. Reiff</i> , Oklahoma	523	"
<i>C. B. Turner</i> , Louisiana	524	"
<i>Caroline S. Woodruff</i> , Vermont	554	"

The vote for Treasurer is *Henry Lester Smith*, of Indiana, 903. The fifty-two state delegates that were nominated last Tuesday had no opposition and are elected. The highest vote cast was 693 and the lowest 644. I shall not read the vote of each director unless you so request.

According to these figures you have elected for your next President, *Uel W. Lamkin* of Missouri; for vicepresidents: *George A. Allen, Jr.* of Kansas; *Ira T. Chapman* of New Jersey; *James P. Coates* of South Carolina; *J. J. Early* of Wyoming; *Charles R. Foster* of Pennsylvania; *Anne Graeme Fraser* of California; *Florence M. Hale* of Maine; *Elizabeth B. McCormick* of Wisconsin; *M. H. Madden* of Arizona; *C. B. Turner* of Louisiana, and *Caroline S. Woodruff* of Vermont, and for Treasurer *Henry Lester Smith* of Indiana. The certificate signed by the Committee on Elections is attached.

I move the adoption of the report.

(The motion was seconded and carried.)

President Adair: I hereby pronounce those persons named the officers of this Association for next year.

I will ask *Mr. Blair*, as last year's President, and *Mr. Walker*, Chairman of the Missouri delegation, to escort your new President to the platform.

The audience arose and applauded as *President Lamkin* was escorted to the platform.

President Adair: In passing the gavel to your new President, I wish to thank you for your cooperation throughout the year. It is not necessary for me to ask that you do the same for *Mr. Lamkin*.

(*President Lamkin* took the chair.)

President Lamkin: At the Colorado breakfast the other morning someone said that a darky down South when he first saw an automobile said, "Well, them horses must have been going some when they 'bruck' away from that carriage."

I have no hope of carrying out the work of this Association as efficiently as has been done by that gracious daughter of Virginia who through her courtesy and ease of manner and good judgment and her kindly feeling has brought about this spirit of goodwill in this Association.

I have but one acknowledgment to make and one complaint to file against her. The last basket of flowers that came in are mine. I noticed she called for them before I got to the platform. They are from the great state of Ohio, and I express to them my appreciation of their courtesy, this great harmonizing state that harmonizes the differences of the Association.

Mr. Blair asked to say something when I am through. Well, I am through. I merely want to say that I come to the office with some appreciation of the difficulties that confront me, and with the hope and belief that I shall have the hearty cooperation of every member of this Association in seeing that it continues to lead in the bringing about of such conditions in America that will provide better teaching for the children of this country, that they may have life more abundantly, and better serve this great Republic in which we live and which we all love. I am glad to recognize the state superintendent of schools of Illinois, *Francis G. Blair*.

Mr. Blair: All I had to say was a little poetic inspiration that came to me as I brought President Lamkin up to the platform.

The N. E. A. had a little Lamkin of
Maryville, M. O.,
And she loved this little Lamkin
better than her bestest beau;
And this little Lamkin loved his N. E. A.

and I think at this point, after our strenuous activities that we all join in guaranteeing to this man from Missouri our united support and that same kind of conflict of opinion whenever it comes on any great question that concerns this National Education Association, and when the vote is taken and the majority is against us, we shall submit under his administration just as we have done here.

President Lamkin: May I call your attention to the meeting of the Board of Directors at two o'clock. I think we should begin by having our meetings start on time. The Chair will entertain a motion made by *Dr. Condon* of Cincinnati that the convention adjourn, and recognizes *Miss Adair* to second the motion. The motion is carried and the convention stands adjourned.

The meeting adjourned at one-fifty o'clock.

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary
Cornelia S. Adair, President
Uel W. Lamkin, President-Elect

MINUTES OF THE BOARD OF DIRECTORS MEETINGS Boston, Massachusetts, Tuesday Afternoon, February 28, 1928

The first informal meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Education Association was called to order by the President, *Miss Adair*, at 4:10 p. m. The following members were present:

<i>A. R. Clifton</i> , Calif.	<i>Perley L. Horne</i> , N. H.
<i>F. M. Hunter</i> , Life Director, Calif.	<i>Alexander J. Glennie</i> , N. J.
<i>W. B. Mooney</i> , Colo.	<i>Ira T. Chapman</i> , Vicepresident, N. J.
<i>David A. Ward</i> , Del.	<i>Marie G. Bolling</i> , N. Mex.
<i>Harry English</i> , D. C.	<i>A. C. Eldredge</i> , Ohio
<i>W. C. Crawford</i> , Hawaii	<i>Agnes M. Bacon</i> , R. I.
<i>Charles F. Dienst</i> , Idaho	<i>L. W. Rogers</i> , Texas
<i>A. L. Whittenberg</i> , Ill.	<i>L. E. Cowles</i> , Utah
<i>F. G. Blair</i> , Vicepresident, Ill.	<i>Clarence H. Dempsey</i> , Vt.
<i>Charles F. Miller</i> , Ind.	<i>Joseph H. Saunders</i> , Va.
<i>H. L. Smith</i> , Ind.	<i>Blanche A. Nagel</i> , Wash.
<i>Thomas R. Roberts</i> , Iowa	<i>Joseph Rosier</i> , W. Va.
<i>William B. Jack</i> , Maine	<i>E. G. Doudna</i> , Wis.
<i>William Burdick</i> , Md.	<i>A. G. Crane</i> , Wyo.
<i>Annie C. Woodward</i> , Mass.	<i>A. A. Slade</i> , Wyo.
<i>Webster H. Pearce</i> , Mich.	<i>Walter R. Siders</i>
<i>Effie MacGregor</i> , Minn.	<i>Secretary J. W. Crabtree</i>
<i>M. C. Lefler</i> , Nebr.	<i>President Cornelia S. Adair</i>

After the roll call, each director was furnished with an informational booklet and a copy of the Handbook for Officers. As the minutes of the former meeting had already been approved by the directors individually, *Mr. Smith* moved that the reading of the minutes be dispensed with. This was seconded and carried.

The President stated "I called this an informal meeting of the Committee because you have not authorized any expenditure for the expenses in the Budget. I did not feel that I could call a formal meeting with expenses paid unless there was an emergency. So far as I know there is no emergency." After some discussion, it was decided that action at this meeting would be in the nature of recommendations to the regular meeting in Minneapolis. The first order of business was a report by *Annie Woodward* on regulating the expenses of those whose expenses are chargeable to the National Education Association. She distributed copies of this Report and moved that it be approved. After some discussion, this was seconded by *Mr. Smith* and carried.

The following is the report as read:

A tentative report for the Minneapolis meeting of the Committee on Regulating Expenses for all persons travelling for the National Education Association on expense account.

Travel Expenses:

R. R. Fare: Lowest prevailing rate.

Pullman: Lower standard.

Meals and Incidentals: Four dollars per day flat allowance.

Local Expense:

Hotel: Room and meals, not to exceed eight dollars per day. Receipted bill from hotel required.

Cabs: To hotel and to R. R. Station. Other charges only when absolutely necessary.

Street Car Fares: As necessary.

Telegrams: Copies to be filed with bill.

Telephone Tolls: On association business.

Stenographers: Only authorized charges by Board of Directors or its Executive Committee.

Dinners: Not to be charged for several persons. It is requested that each one sign or pay his own check. Dinners given by Committees and others only when consent has been previously obtained from the President of the Association and the General Secretary.

Personal Expenses such as valet, hair dressing, laundry, etc. will not be paid by the National Education Association. Vouchers shall be presented with the claim whenever possible to secure the same.

Appropriations for Committee may not be used for local or travel expense except as ordered by the Board of Directors or its Executive Committee.

The Committee recommends the approval of this plan at this meeting to be submitted for adoption by the Board of Directors at Minneapolis.

Signed, *Joseph H. Saunders*

M. C. Lefler

Walter R. Siders

Annie C. Woodward, Chairman

The President asked for authorization for the statement that the expenses for the directors attending the Minneapolis meeting would be provided for in the Budget.

After considerable discussion as to the advisability of the payment of Directors expenses, it was moved by *Mr. Rogers* of Texas, seconded by *Mr. Clifton* of California, that the expenses of Directors be paid.

Mr. Blair moved as a substitute for *Mr. Rogers'* motion that the directors should recommend to the Budget Committee that such an amount be included in the Budget as is necessary to pay the expenses of the directors at Minneapolis. *Mr. Rogers* and his second accepted the substitute. After still further discussion, the motion was put and carried.

The President stated that at the request of *Mr. Claxton* there had been considerable discussion of his report on the payment of delegates expenses and kindred questions. Because of the importance of the Report, she had appointed a committee of the directors of which *Mr. Saunders* of Virginia, was made chairman. She asked for suggestions or criticisms of the report. *Mr. Holmes* of New York stated that he was opposed to making a change in the method of representation, that the teachers wanted direct representation and not representation from a state body.

Mr. Clifton, of California, requested that the *Claxton* committee prepare a statement definitely specifying why they made their recommendations. He stated further that he was asking his people to reserve their judgment until this explanation could be sent them. He requested that this be sent at an early date, that with the information that his people now had, he felt they would vote against the report.

Mr. Blair stated that the Committee had taken action on yesterday which looked to the point which the Directors from California and New York had raised. 1. Whether the Representative Assembly was to be limited. If so, its size. 2. Methods of selecting the delegates. He also stated that the Committee was divided as to whether or not they should go into propaganda or argument. The President requested *Mr. Blair* to convey the wishes of the Directors for further information on the subject of the Report to the *Claxton* Committee.

Mr. Hunter made a plea for the continuation of the feeling amongst the teachers that the Representative Assembly was theirs. He stated definitely that he was not for any portion of the Report that tended to remove this feeling of ownership. *Miss MacGregor* of Minneapolis spoke in confirmation of *Mr. Hunter's* statement. *Mr. Saunders* stated that he had not held a full meeting of the subcommittee of the directors. He reported that there was a strong feeling against the continuation of the policy of each retiring president becoming a life director. He reported that he had made an investigation which apparently showed that there was no danger in attempting to amend the Federal Charter. *Mr. Hunter* reported that a previous investigation had declared that there was a great likelihood of the repeal of the Charter, should it come up for amendment. He suggested that it would be perfectly possible for those members of the Board who are exofficio directors to resign from the Board. After a brief discussion, *Mr. Smith* made a motion for adjournment at 5:45 p. m. Seconded and carried.

Boston, Massachusetts, Thursday, March 1, 1928

Members present on March 1, 1928:

C. E. Rose, Ariz.
A. R. Clifton, Calif.
W. B. Mooney, Colo.
Harry English, D. C.
David A. Ward, Del.
W. C. Crawford, Hawaii
Charles F. Dienst, Idaho

A. L. Whittenberg, Ill.
F. G. Blair, Ill.
H. L. Smith, Ind.
Charles F. Miller, Ind.
Charles F. Pye, Iowa
M. E. Pearson, Kans.
William B. Jack, Maine

Walter R. Siders, Maine
William Burdick, Md.
Annie C. Woodward, Mass.
Mary McSkimmon, Mass.
Olive M. Jones, N. Y.
Effie MacGregor, Minn.
M. C. Lefler, Nebr.
P. L. Horne, N. H.
I. T. Chapman, Vicepresident, N. J.
A. J. Glennie, N. J.
Marie G. Bolling, N. Mex.
A. C. Eldredge, Ohio

O. T. Corson, Ohio
J. Herbert Kelley, Pa.
Mrs. Agnes M. Bacon, R. I.
Kate Wofford, S. C.
F. W. Rogers, Texas
C. H. Dempsey, Vt.
Joseph H. Saunders, Va.
Mrs. Blanche A. Nagel, Wash.
A. G. Crane, Wyo.
Cornelia S. Adair
Secretary J. W. Crabtree

Meeting was called to order by the Vicepresident, *F. G. Blair*. *Mr. Blair* told of the illness and death of *Mr. Owen* and of the high respect in which he was held by the teachers of Chicago. It was moved by *Mr. Clifton* of California that the Board of Directors of the National Education Association draw up resolutions of respect in regard to *Mr. Owen's* death. Carried. When *Miss Adair* took the chair at 2:20 p. m. she appointed the following committee to draw up these Resolutions: *Mr. Blair*, *Mr. Siders*; *Miss McSkimmon*, and *Secretary Crabtree*.

Mr. Crabtree then presented the subjectmatter of the informational book that had been previously presented to each member of the Board of Directors. He called attention to page 43 which told of the gift of a section of a California redwood tree by the Department of the Interior to the National Education Association. He told of the suggestion of the Park Director in Washington that this section be placed within the front circle of the National Education Association Building. *Mr. Blair* moved that the Secretary send a statement to the Department of our appreciation of this unique gift. (Seconded and carried.)

Mr. Glennie of New Jersey invited the Association to meet in Atlantic City for the summer session of 1929. *Mr. Crawford* of Honolulu moved that the usual committee of the National Education Association be empowered to investigate accommodations offered by the various places which have invited the 1929 Convention in order that the facts may be available for the Minneapolis meeting of the Board of Directors. Carried. *Mr. Eldredge* of Ohio stated that Columbus, Ohio was also inviting the Convention for 1929 and would be glad to have the Committee investigate their facilities.

Mr. Blair then presented the report of the subcommittee on the Claxton Report. The Committee recommended a meeting to be held in Chicago.

The President called the attention of the Board of Directors that this would take a large sum of money. After some discussion the motion was carried unanimously.

The President also reported that she had invited the Vicepresidents to sit in with the Board of Directors and to take part in discussions without a vote. This action was approved.

The President also reported the action of the Executive Committee in planning for the Coordination of the Educational Research through the medium of the National Education Association's Research Division. She stated that *Mr. Norton* had been authorized to present a plan for this coordination at the Minneapolis meeting.

The President expressed her appreciation of the cooperation which had been given by the members of the Board of Directors. She announced that cards of admission to the *Lindbergh* meeting were available to those officers who were not already provided for.

The meeting adjourned.

Cornelia S. Adair, President
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Saturday Morning, June 30, 1928

A meeting of the Board of Directors of the National Education Association was held at the Auditorium, Minneapolis, Minnesota, Saturday morning, June 30, 1928. It was called to order at 9:20 o'clock by the President, *Cornelia S. Adair*, with the following answering to roll call:

J. D. Williams, Ala.
C. E. Rose, Ariz.
J. P. Womack, Ark.
A. R. Clifton, Calif.
J. M. Gwinn, Calif.
W. B. Mooney, Colo.
John A. Young, Conn.
David A. Ward, Del.
Harry English, D. C.
Walter R. Siders, D. C.
Charl O. Williams, D. C.
W. S. Cawthon, Fla.
George H. Webber, Ga.
Charles F. Dienst, Idaho
Francis G. Blair, Ill.
A. L. Whittenberg, Ill.
Charles F. Miller, Ind.
Henry L. Smith, Ind.
Charles F. Pye, Iowa
M. E. Pearson, Kans.
R. E. Williams, Ky.
William B. Jack, Maine

William Burdick, Md.
Annie C. Woodward, Mass.
Effie MacGregor, Minn.
Thomas J. Walker, Mo.
M. C. Lefler, Nebr.
Bertha Knemeyer, Nev.
Perley L. Horne, N. H.
A. J. Glennie, N. J.
Minnie J. Nielson, N. Dak.
Frank E. Reynolds, Ohio
P. P. Claxton, Okla.
John G. Mitchell, Okla.
Vida Hammond, Ore.
George D. Robb, Pa.
Kate Wofford, S. C.
G. W. Wannamaker, S. C.
L. W. Rogers, Texas
Cornelia S. Adair, Va.
John D. Meyer, Wash.
Joseph Rosier, W. Va.
E. G. Doudna, Wis.

Mr. Reynolds of Ohio presented the resignation of *A. C. Eldredge*, as State Director and suggested the name of *R. J. Condon* to succeed him. By action of the Board, *Mr. Condon* was elected to act as State Director of Ohio.

Upon motion made by *Mr. Rosier* of West Virginia, and seconded by *Mr. Meyer* of Washington, it was voted to adopt the minutes of the Seattle meeting as printed in the *Proceedings*.

A motion was made by *Mr. Webber* of Georgia to approve the minutes of the informal meeting at Boston. It was seconded and carried.

Mr. Doudna of Wisconsin moved that there is hereby appropriated out of the current funds of the Association not otherwise appropriated the sum of \$4,000 or so much thereof as may be necessary for the expenses of the Committee on the Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions at the Chicago meeting and \$10,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, for the expenses of the Board of Directors at the Minneapolis meeting. Seconded. Carried.

Mr. Williams of Alabama moved that the expenses of the ex-officio Directors that are not otherwise provided for in the budget of the National Education Association be paid out of the appropriation for State Directors. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Burdick* of Maryland, and carried.

Mr. Meyer of Washington brought up the question of traveling expenses. There followed considerable general discussion on the subject. *Mr. Ward* of Delaware made a motion, to make \$5 the maximum allowance per day while enroute and \$9 a day while at a hotel. The motion was seconded and carried. These were offered as amendments to the report presented at Boston.

The report of the committee headed by *Mr. Saunders*, which is set out in the Boston minutes, was further discussed. *Mr. Doudna* of Wisconsin moved that the report as amended be accepted, with the interpretation that all accounts shall

be for actual expenses only, not to exceed the amounts named in the report as daily maximums. The motion was seconded and carried. The following is the report as amended:

Travel Expenses:

R. R. Fare: Lowest prevailing rate.

Pullman: Lower standard.

Meals and Incidentals: Five dollars a day flat allowance.

Local Expense:

Hotel: Room and meals, not to exceed nine dollars a day. Receipted bill from hotel required.

Cabs: To hotel and to R. R. station. Other charges only when absolutely necessary.

Street car fares: As necessary.

Telegrams: Copies to be filed with bill.

Telephone tolls: On association business.

Stenographers: Only authorized charges by Board of Directors or its Executive Committee.

Dinners: Not to be charged for several persons. It is requested that each one sign or pay his own check. Dinners given by committees and others only when consent has been obtained previously from the President of the Association and the General Secretary.

Personal Expenses such as valet, hair dressing, laundry, etc. will not be paid by the Association. Vouchers shall be presented with the claim whenever possible to secure the same.

Appropriations for committees may not be used for local or traveling expenses except as otherwise ordered by the Board of Directors or its Executive Committee.

The report of the Secretary was then considered. The Secretary called attention to a new plan of keeping in touch with colleges and stated that it was securing unexpected results. *Mr. Webber* of Georgia moved the continuation of the plan. *Mr. Blair* of Illinois seconded the motion, and it was carried.

The report recommended that the Board of Directors approve of the new thirteen month calendar. It was decided to postpone discussion until *Dr. Finegan* could explain the matter more fully.

The report gave considerable attention to the question of the utilities invading the schools. The Secretary advised that the discussion of the question be postponed until Saturday afternoon. He recommended that *Mr. Clapp*, the manager of the National Electric Light Association, be invited to speak on Saturday afternoon. He pointed out the necessity for taking action on the question but felt that the other side should be heard.

Mr. Wannamaker of South Carolina made a motion that an invitation be extended to *Mr. Clapp* to appear before the Board. The motion was seconded and carried.

Motion to accept the Secretary's report was seconded, and carried.

President Adair announced the Committee on Elections as follows: *Mr. Sanders* of Massachusetts, Chairman, *Kelly* of Virginia, and *Miss Galpin* of California. A motion confirming the appointment was made, seconded and carried.

Miss Adair stated that the printed report of the Legislative Commission was in the hands of the Board of Directors, but asked for a motion as to whether they wished to await the arrival of the chairman. *Mr. Walker* of Missouri moved to await the arrival of the committee chairman. *Miss Woodward* of Massachusetts seconded the motion, and it was carried.

Miss MacGregor advised the Board that the Minneapolis members in making preparation for the convention, had had numerous requests for the N. E. A. emblem, and suggested the Board consider adopting an emblem. *Mr. Mooney* of Colorado, moved that a committee be appointed on the matter of an emblem and colors for the N. E. A. and to report next year at the meeting of the Board of Directors. *Mr. Pye* of Iowa seconded the motion, and it was carried.

Upon motion regularly made, seconded and carried, it was voted to adjourn, and the meeting adjourned at eleven o'clock.

CORNELIA S. ADAIR, *President*.
J. W. CRABTREE, *Secretary*.

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Saturday Afternoon, June 30, 1928

The meeting convened at 2 o'clock, *Miss Adair* presiding and the following answering to roll call:

J. D. Williams, Ala.
C. E. Rose, Ariz.
J. P. Womack, Ark.
A. R. Clifton, Calif.
J. M. Gwinn, Calif.
W. B. Mooney, Colo.
John A. Young, Conn.
David A. Ward, Del.
Harry English, D. C.
Walter R. Siders, D. C.
W. S. Cawthon, Fla.
George H. Webber, Ga.
Charles F. Dienst, Idaho
Francis G. Blair, Ill.
A. L. Whittenberg, Ill.
Charles F. Miller, Ind.
Henry L. Smith, Ind.
Charles F. Pye, Iowa
M. E. Pearson, Kans.
R. E. Williams, Ky.
William B. Jack, Maine
William Burdick, Md.
Annie C. Woodward, Mass.
Mary McSkimmon, Mass.
Effie MacGregor, Minn.

Thomas J. Walker, Mo.
R. J. Cunningham, Mont.
M. C. Lefler, Nebr.
Bertha Knemeyer, Nev.
Perley L. Horne, N. H.
A. J. Glennie, N. J.
Minnie J. Nielson, N. D.
Olive M. Jones, N. Y.
R. J. Condon, Ohio
Frank E. Reynolds, Ohio
P. P. Claxton, Okla.
John G. Mitchell, Okla.
Vida Hammond, Ore.
George D. Robb, Pa.
Francisco Vizcarrondo, P. R.
G. W. Wannamaker, S. C.
Kate Wofford, S. C.
L. W. Rogers, Texas
B. A. Fowler, Utah
Cornelia S. Adair, Va.
Joseph H. Saunders, Va.
John D. Meyer, Wash.
Joseph Rosier, W. Va.
E. G. Doudna, Wis.

Paul S. Clapp, Managing Director of the National Electric Light Association on invitation addressed the Board of Directors in reply to charges that his association has put propaganda into the schools. After making a few preliminary remarks explaining that he presented a statement giving the policies and views of the leading executives of the electric light and power companies of the entire United States, he read the statement and expressed the desire to serve but not to misuse the schools. *Mr. Pack*, past president of the National Electric Light Association who was present was also invited to speak. He stated that as a member of the Public Policy Committee of the Association he could assure us that every member of that committee condemns every sort of propaganda being put into the schools. He also stated that many leading men in the public utilities business are just as anxious as other men that their children have an unbiased education, and that as citizens they are interested in upbuilding the standards of the communities in which they live.

Mr. Clapp announced that should the Board decide to appoint a committee to investigate the matter or to refer the subject to the Research Staff at Washington, they would gladly furnish them with all information available. The President, *Miss Adair*, thanked *Mr. Clapp* and *Mr. Pack* for addressing the meeting.

By mutual consent the discussion on the topic was continued and *Mr. Norton* was asked to address the Board. *Mr. Norton* read portions of the report entitled "Activities of Public Utility Concerns Affecting the Public Schools," and explained the manner in which the information was gathered and gave his impressions of the literature. Upon being questioned, *Mr. Norton* stated that the testimony as presented in the report was typical of the testimony of the hearing. He further stated that he had no way of knowing, without considerable further investigation, whether the whole testimony as scattered throughout the hearing is typical of what has been going on over the nation or not.

Mr. Saunders pointed out that the sample literature from Iowa and from New York contained very similar data, indicating a concerted effort on the part of the utilities. There followed considerable general discussion. *Mr. Robb* of Pennsylvania offered the following resolution:

"Resolved, That the Board of Directors condemn the policy and efforts of agencies to put propaganda into the schools, and hereby authorize the President of the Association to appoint a committee of ten to prepare a report for the meeting of the Association in 1929 on the following points: (1) What principles of school administration should guide school authorities, and what principles of school procedure should guide teachers in handling material which might be classed as propaganda; and (2) What machinery, if any, needs to be set up on a local, state, or national basis to serve as a protection to individual school officers and teachers."

Mr. Robb made a motion to adopt the resolution, which was seconded by *Mr. Lefler*. After some discussion the motion was put to a vote and carried.

Mr. Blair made a motion to appropriate \$10,000 or such part thereof as will be necessary to meet a part of the expenses of delegates whose Pullman and railroad fare exceeds \$50. The motion was seconded by *Miss Nielson* of North Dakota, and carried.

Sarah T. Muir of Nebraska presented the report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession stating that as the result of a questionnaire that was sent out, she was presenting some general principles which might later form part of a code. After showing the points to be contained in the report, *Miss Muir* asked the continuance of the committee, in order to finish their report. Upon motion made by *Mr. Webber* to accept the preliminary report and authorize the committee to finish the report, and seconded, it was so voted by the Board.

Albert L. Rowland of Pennsylvania presented the report of the Tenure Committee, pointing out the twelve principles which were laid down by the committee in its last report, as shown on page 3. He stated that the attitude expressed by widespread correspondence indicated approval sufficiently universal to warrant the belief that this statement of principles should constitute a general platform to be supported by the Association as its tenure policy.

Mr. Blair of Illinois asked the Board of Directors to recommend to the Representative Assembly that this committee be continued, and that the report be sent to the Representative Assembly. The motion was seconded and carried.

Mr. Smith, Treasurer, presented his report. *Mr. Saunders* moved that the Treasurer's report be approved. The motion was seconded and carried.

The Board then discussed the necessity of a night session in order to complete the work. Upon motion made by *Mr. Saunders*, seconded and carried, it was voted to adjourn until two o'clock Monday, and the meeting adjourned at four thirty-five o'clock.

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary
Cornelia S. Adair, President

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Monday Afternoon, July 2, 1928

The meeting was called to order at 2 o'clock at the Auditorium, Minneapolis, Minn., President Adair presiding.

The following were present:

J. D. Williams, Ala.
C. E. Rose, Ariz.
J. P. Womack, Ark.
A. R. Clifton, Calif.
W. B. Mooney, Colo.
John A. Young, Conn.
David A. Ward, Del.
Harry English, D. C.
Charl O. Williams, D. C.
Walter R. Siders, D. C.
W. S. Cawthon, Fla.
George H. Webber, Ga.
Charles F. Dienst, Idaho
Francis G. Blair, Ill.
A. L. Whittenberg, Ill.
Charles F. Miller, Ind.
Henry L. Smith, Ind.
Charles F. Pye, Iowa
M. E. Pearson, Kans.
R. E. Williams, Ky.
William B. Jack, Maine
William Burdick, Md.
C. B. Turner, La.
Mary McSkimmon, Mass.
Annie C. Woodward, Mass.
Webster H. Pearce, Mich.
Effie MacGregor, Minn.
H. V. Cooper, Miss.
Thomas J. Walker, Mo.
R. J. Cunningham, Mont.

M. C. Lefler, Nebr.
Bertha Knemeyer, Nev.
Perley L. Horne, N. H.
Alexander J. Glennie, N. J.
Thomas E. Finegan, N. Y.
William H. Holmes, N. Y.
Olive M. Jones, N. Y.
Jesse H. Newlon, N. Y.
George D. Strayer, N. Y.
T. W. Andrews, N. C.
Minnie J. Nielson, N. D.
R. J. Condon, Ohio
P. P. Claxton, Okla.
John G. Mitchell, Okla.
Vida Hammond, Ore.
George D. Robb, Pa.
Francisco Vizcarrondo, P. R.
Geore W. Wannamaker, S. C.
N. E. Steele, S. D.
P. L. Harned, Tenn.
L. W. Rogers, Texas
B. A. Fowler, Utah
Clarence H. Dempsey, Vt.
Cornelia S. Adair, Va.
Joseph H. Saunders, Va.
John D. Meyer, Wash.
Joseph Rosier, W. Va.
E. G. Doudna, Wis.
A. A. Slade, Wyo.

Mr. Rogers moved that the meeting adjourn at four o'clock in order for the Directors to attend the state delegation meetings, and to have an opportunity to see the exhibits. It was later moved and carried that the time of adjournment be three-thirty o'clock.

Mr. Siders in presenting the report of the Budget Committee, asked the Board if they desired to have the budget built on using up the entire income of \$461,000, making a three percent cut on all demands, or going beyond the income; and whether the Board wanted to provide a contingent fund out of the cash balance *Mr. Rosier* made a motion that the Budget Committee be instructed to fix the budget at an amount not to exceed the estimated income for the coming year, based on last year's income. The motion was seconded, was put to a vote, and carried.

Mr. Siders submitted the question as to whether the Board should take some of last year's cash balance and provide a contingent fund for emergencies, and the Committee suggested \$20,000 for such a fund. *Mr. Webber* moved that \$20,000 from the cash fund be set aside as the contingent fund. The motion was seconded and carried.

Mr. Blair brought up the question of legality of establishing a contingent fund. There then followed some discussion on the subject. *Mr. Rosier* then moved that

the contingent fund be expended only on the approval of the Executive Committee, that the Executive Committee be authorized to make expenditures out of this contingent fund, and that it be for unexpected expenditures not covered by the regular budget. The motion was seconded and carried.

Mr. Walker made a motion that the unappropriated balance be put into the permanent fund. *Mr. Burdick* seconded the motion. *Secretary Crabtree* pointed out the advisability of waiting until November or December to make the transfer of funds. The motion to place the unappropriated balance in the permanent fund next fall was put to a vote and carried.

Following a suggestion which was made by *Mr. Siders*, a motion was made, seconded, and carried that the matter of conferring honorary degrees upon persons rendering distinguished service be referred to the Executive Committee and that they be instructed to bring in a report at their early convenience.

President Adair explained that it has been customary to hold two meetings of the Board of Directors every year, an informal meeting at the winter and another at the summer meeting and that unless someone would make a motion to the contrary, she thought the incoming president would rule as she had, that the expenses would be paid for the summer meeting and not for the winter meeting. It was agreed that this view would be taken.

Mr. Buckingham, Chairman of the Committee on the Economic Status of the Teacher, in making his report, said that no appropriation for the services of the committee had been made and consequently no meetings of the committee could be held. He stated that the members had conducted a correspondence among themselves in order to raise the points that seemed to deserve attention, and that since the meeting on Monday morning, they were ready to go to work and had requested the Budget Committee for an appropriation for the ensuing year, contemplating two meetings of the Committee in Washington.

Mr. Buckingham also stated that *Mr. Norton*, the director of Research Service of the National Education Association intends to give to the work of this committee about half his time personally during the coming year and the full time service of two or three of his staff, thereby raising the work of the committee to the level of a major operation and stimulating the committee to its best endeavors.

Mr. Lamkin in presenting the report of the Committee on International Relations for *Dean William F. Russell*, stated that the report itself would be made by *Dr. Thomas* and *Mr. Siders* at the general sessions and Representative Assembly. He asked that the Board authorize the naming of 250 delegates for the Geneva meeting in the summer of 1929, stating that the National Education Association was entitled to fifty votes in the assembly. He further suggested, on behalf of the Committee, that the delegation be allowed to make a small assessment upon the members who go to take care of any sort of social functions which may be deemed essential or desirable by the delegation there, and that the usual appropriation for clerical work and printing be authorized.

Mr. Claxton, Chairman of the Committee on Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions, told of the work the Committee had undertaken to do, the difficulties that had presented themselves, and outlined the important features of the proposed revision of the Bylaws. Because of lack of time, it was moved by *Mr. Saunders*, seconded and carried, that *Mr. Claxton's* report be made the first order of business at the Board meeting on Wednesday, and *Mr. Kelley* present his minority report at that time.

Miss Pyrtle, Chairman of the Committee on Retirement Allowances, called attention to the printed report of the Committee, and asked that the questions brought out in that report receive the attention of the Board and that the Committee be given the benefit of the opinion of the Board on the five questions that were asked.

Jesse H. Newlon, Chairman of the Committee on Committees, stated that their recommendations had been very well carried out during the past year. *Mr.*

Newlon expressed the belief that large committees do not function efficiently. *Miss Adair* advised *Mr. Newlon* those questions would be taken up by the Executive Committee at their next meeting.

Mr. Davidson, Chairman of the Legislative Commission, stated that a written report would be presented to the delegates at the general assembly on Tuesday setting forth in brief form the status of the Education Bill, some of the work which the Committee has undertaken, and giving some suggestions emphasizing Chairman *Reed's* views in relation to the Bill.

The meeting adjourned at four o'clock.

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary
Cornelia S. Adair, President

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Wednesday Afternoon, July 4, 1928

The meeting convened at three-fifteen o'clock, at the Auditorium, Minneapolis, Minnesota, President *Adair* presiding.

The following were present:

J. D. Williams, Ala.
C. E. Rose, Ariz.
J. P. Womack, Ark.
A. R. Clifton, Calif.
W. B. Mooney, Colo.
David A. Ward, Del.
Harry English, D. C.
Walter R. Siders, D. C.
W. S. Carwithon, Fla.
George H. Webber, Ga.
Charles F. Dienst, Idaho
Francis G. Blair, Ill.
A. L. Whittenberg, Ill.
Charles F. Miller, Ind.
Henry L. Smith, Ind.
Charles F. Pye, Iowa
M. E. Pearson, Kans.
William B. Jack, Me.
William Burdick, Md.
Mary McSkimmon, Mass.
Annie C. Woodward, Mass.
Webster H. Pearce, Mich.
Effie MacGregor, Minn.
H. V. Cooper, Miss.
Thomas J. Walker, Mo.
R. J. Cunningham, Mont.

M. C. Leffer, Nebr.
Bertha Knemeyer, Nev.
Perley L. Horne, N. H.
A. J. Glennie, N. J.
William H. Holmes, N. Y.
Olive M. Jones, N. Y.
Jesse H. Newlon, N. Y.
T. W. Andrews, N. C.
Minnie J. Nielson, N. D.
Ranall J. Condon, Ohio
P. P. Claxton, Okla.
John G. Mitchell, Okla.
Vida Hammond, Ore.
George D. Robb, Pa.
G. W. Wannamaker, S. C.
N. E. Steele, S. D.
P. L. Harned, Tenn.
L. W. Rogers, Texas
Clarence H. Dempsey, Vt.
Cornelia S. Adair, Va.
Joseph H. Saunders, Va.
John D. Meyer, Wash.
Mrs. Josephine C. Preston, Wash.
Joseph Rosier, W. Va.
E. G. Doudna, Wis.
A. A. Slade, Wyo.

Mr. Claxton, Chairman of the Committee on the Appointment of Delegates and Kindred Questions, explained to the Board that the Committee was unanimous, with only one dissenting voice, and that that member asked for permission to make a minority report. He stated that the report was the result of two years of very careful discussion on the matter of limiting the Representative Assembly, eliminating duplicate representation, and harmonizing the Bylaws with the existing charter. There then followed a lengthy discussion, and *Mr. Claxton* answered queries concerning different phases of the report.

Upon suggestion of *Mr. Wannamaker*, *Mr. Kelley* was asked to present his minority report. *Mr. Kelley* stated that although he preferred not to present

his minority report, he would do so having been requested by the Committee to come before the Board. He then read a statement, copies of which were furnished to the Board members. There followed considerable discussion. *Mr. Blair* made a motion that the Board of Directors recommend the adoption of all the amendments to the Bylaws presented by the Committee with the exception of Article II. The motion was seconded and carried.

Article II was then considered. *Mr. Mooney* made a motion that the Board of Directors recommend to the Representative Assembly the adoption of Article II. The motion was seconded. After some discussion *Miss Jones* made a substitute motion that the Directors recommend to the Representative Assembly that Article II be referred to the Executive Committee for some recommendation and that there be a session of this group called at the winter meeting to take action. Upon motion made for the previous question, and seconded, the question was put to a vote and the motion was carried. The substitute motion offered by *Miss Jones* was then voted upon, the result being twenty-one in favor and twenty-four opposed. The original motion recommending to the delegate body that Article II be adopted, was voted upon, thirty-one voting in favor of the motion and sixteen against it.

Mr. Siders, in presenting the Trustees' report, stated that the Auditor's report is the Trustee's report with supplementary material. *Mr. Siders* then explained the rating of securities and stated that the real estate mortgage notes were closed out as fast as they could be replaced by good stocks and bonds. Upon motion made by *Mr. Siders*, seconded and carried, it was voted to adopt the Trustees' report.

Mr. Siders then presented the printed report of the Budget Committee. *Mr. Rosier* moved that the Board of Directors adopt the report and recommend it to the delegate assembly. The motion was seconded and carried.

The question of submitting bills and receipts of expense of delegates was considered, and *Mr. Saunders* made a motion that delegates who came to the convention by automobile be entitled to railroad and Pullman fare and such expenses as they would incur if they had come by train. The motion was seconded and carried.

N. C. Newbold presented the report of the Committee to Cooperate with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools, and moved that the Committee be included in the permanent committees of the National Education Association and that an adequate appropriation be made for its activities in the current year. *Mr. Newbold* then moved the adoption of the report, which was seconded and carried.

Mr. Doudna gave the report of the Committee on Cooperation between States on Matters of Credits and Certificates, stating that two of the states have laws on their statute books barring state universities and normal schools from buying material in other states and from having any contracts with other states. He also stated that there had been a debate in Massachusetts in which one man wanted to put up barriers to prevent any migration back and forth between states. He suggested that the Committee be continued and felt that it could do something.

Upon motion regularly made, seconded, and carried, it was voted to continue the Committee.

Mr. Moore made a motion, on the suggestion of the Executive Committee, that a committee of three or five be appointed to cooperate with other organizations. The motion was seconded and carried.

President Adair informed the Board of Directors that requests had been made for a department of supervisors and directors of instruction, that the necessity for such a department had been substantiated by much data, and that the department had complied with all the necessary rules for its creation. *Mr. Rogers*

moved that a department of supervisors and directors of instruction be created. The motion was seconded and carried. It was then declared that the new department had been duly created.

President Adair stated that recommendations had been made for a life membership key, and that the Executive Committee had recommended deciding upon a design for such a key and to allow persons who are life members and prefer keys to pins, to purchase them. *Mr. Webber* moved the adoption of the recommendation. The motion was seconded and carried.

President Adair thanked the members for their patience and cooperation. The meeting adjourned at six o'clock.

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary
Cornelia S. Adair, President

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Friday Afternoon, July 6, 1928

The meeting convened at 2 o'clock, at the Auditorium, Minneapolis, Minnesota, *President Lamkin* presiding.

The following were present:

J. D. Williams, Ala.
C. E. Rose, Ariz.
J. P. Womack, Ark.
A. R. Clifton, Calif.
W. B. Mooney, Colo.
David A. Ward, Del.
Harry English, D. C.
Charl O. Williams, D. C.
W. S. Cawthon, Fla.
M. L. Duggan, Ga.
F. E. Howard, Hawaii
C. F. Dienst, Idaho
R. C. Moore, Ill.
Francis G. Blair, Ill.
A. L. Whittenberg, Ill.
Charles F. Miller, Ind.
Mary Lord, Iowa
M. E. Pearson, Kans.
R. E. Williams, Ky.
W. B. Jack, Maine
William Burdick, Md.
Mary McSkimmon, Mass.
Annie C. Woodward, Mass.
Webster H. Pearce, Mich.
Effie MacGregor, Minn.
H. V. Cooper, Miss.
Uel W. Lamkin, Mo.
Thomas J. Walker, Mo.

A. J. Cunningham, Mont.
M. C. Lefler, Nebr.
Jennie A. Curieux, Nev.
Perley L. Horne, N. H.
A. J. Glennie, N. J.
Mrs. H. J. Brock, N. Mex.
William H. Holmes, N. Y.
Olive Jones, N. Y.
T. Wingate Andrews, N. C.
Minnie J. Nielson, N. D.
R. J. Condon, Ohio
P. P. Claxton, Okla.
Nettie Mae Rankin, Ore.
J. Herbert Kelley, Pa.
G. W. Wannamaker, S. C.
N. E. Steele, S. Dak.
L. W. Rogers, Texas
P. L. Harned, Tenn.
B. A. Fowler, Utah
Carolyn S. Woodruff, Vt.
Cornelia S. Adair, Va.
Joseph H. Saunders, Va.
J. D. Meyer, Wash.
Mrs. Josephine C. Preston, Wash.
Joseph Rosier, W. Va.
E. G. Doudna, Wis.
A. A. Slade, Wyo.

President Lamkin brought up the matter of paying the expenses of members of the profession who were asked to address the meetings of the National Education Association. *Mr. Claxton* made a motion to appropriate from the contingent fund in order to pay the expenses of those who are not entitled to active membership in the Association. The motion was amended not to limit the amount, leaving the matter in the hands of the Executive Committee. The motion as amended

was seconded and carried. It was understood that no such payment would be made to those eligible to membership.

Mr. Rogers presented the following resolution:

"Resolved, That there be elected at this meeting of the Board of Directors from the elected members thereof, a committee of five members to be known as the Finance Committee whose duties shall be to inquire into and study the financial needs and affairs of the Association, to cooperate with the Budget Committee in the preparation of the next budget, and to have prepared for the first session of the Board of Directors in 1929 a report of its findings and recommendations; and

"Resolved further, That the said committee be instructed to meet in Washington not later than March 1, 1929 for the purpose of performing the duties set forth above; that the Secretary prepare or have prepared for immediate transmission to the Board of Directors a complete and detailed statement of the current budget, and that the Executive Committee be instructed to set aside from the contingent fund of the current budget a sufficient amount to defray the expenses of the committee."

A motion was made by *Mr. Rogers*, and seconded, that the resolution be adopted.

Mr. Walker moved that the committee mentioned in the resolution be elected.

Mr. Walker moved that this committee be known as the budget committee provided for in the new Bylaws. *Miss Jones* seconded the motion. The question was put to a vote and carried. It was explained that this committee would take over all work of the Budget Committee and would be known as the Budget Committee instead of the Finance Committee.

Mr. Claxton made a motion that this Budget Committee make a preliminary report at the midwinter meeting of the Board of Trustees. The motion was seconded and carried.

The Secretary stated that no appropriation had been made to pay expenses. Some thought the appropriation could be made by the Executive Committee.

Mr. Claxton made a motion that the Board of Directors authorize the Executive Committee to do those things in the Bylaws which are indicated to be done by it and under the direction of the Board of Directors. The motion was seconded and carried.

Mr. Wannamaker made a motion that each city that wishes to entertain the convention next year be granted three minutes to present its claim. The motion was seconded and carried.

Mr. Duggin of Georgia, extended an invitation for the National Association to meet in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1929. *Mr. Glennie* of New Jersey extended an invitation from Atlantic City, New Jersey, pointing out that for the next four years following 1929 they will not be in a position to entertain the National Education Association because of its time of meeting.

Mr. Claxton made a motion that the Executive Committee, after referring the matter to the Board of Directors, make any necessary changes in the time or place of the meeting from that set by the Board of Directors. The motion was seconded and carried.

Mr. Ward moved to appropriate from the current funds of the Association not otherwise appropriated, the sums set out by the budget and adopted by the Assembly. The motion was seconded by *Mr. English*, and carried.

The Secretary was instructed to include in the minutes the total amounts thus appropriated for each item.

The following shows the appropriations for each item as made together with the expenditures under each head for a period of three years:

Item	Expenses 1925-26	Expenses 1926-27	Expenses 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Board of Trustees.....	\$768.79	\$412.53	\$419.83	\$420.00
Board of Directors.....		5,490.95	7,829.08	10,000.00
Executive Committee.....	3,906.91	4,635.81	4,356.78	4,300.00
Contingent Fund for President.....			1,517.97	1,500.00
General Secretary's Office.....	19,845.15	23,513.29	23,227.83	27,340.00
Division of Accounts.....	5,640.63	7,434.53	7,822.72	8,154.00
Division of Legislation (Field).....	16,162.55	15,393.50	17,823.82	18,759.00
Division of Business.....	20,058.64	14,231.97	14,803.73	16,450.00
Division of Publications.....	17,170.45	23,366.27	27,386.40	32,706.00
Division of Classroom Service.....	6,088.77	6,495.36	7,155.10	7,352.00
Division of Research.....	22,454.53	29,476.60	38,073.80	48,826.00
Division of Administrative Service.....	2,994.55	4,555.89	6,760.35	8,061.00
Division of Records and Membership.....	20,519.06	31,311.87	31,388.43	34,492.00
Physical Plant—Headquarters.....	20,786.02	20,837.69	21,204.94	21,203.00
General Office Expense.....	6,495.32	7,421.35	8,002.24	7,936.00
Annual Conventions.....	8,502.05	8,102.94	5,761.26	5,445.00
Promotional and Maintenance of Membership.....	25,921.42	37,832.95	38,691.16	38,000.00
N. E. A. Journal.....	92,687.66	96,769.44	101,374.69	101,374.00
Research Bulletin.....	6,867.12	7,493.03	7,432.20	8,000.00
Volume of Proceedings.....	8,458.22	9,191.81	9,850.57	9,850.00
Publications and Reports for General Sale.....		2,637.31	864.50	500.00
Financing Delegates.....	9,379.00	12,977.50	17,178.83	10,000.00
Special Appropriations.....	15,279.75	18,046.24	17,358.59	25,400.00
Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	3,614.07	9,465.82	5,568.26	5,000.00
Association Membership Fees.....	1,100.00	1,100.00	1,100.00	1,100.00
Retirement Annuities.....			3,627.24	8,502.44
Contingent Fund.....				20,000.00
	\$335,000.06	\$398,194.66	\$426,580.32	\$480,670.44

Olive M. Jones, reporting on the election of members of the National Council, said that there was quite a list of people eligible for reelection whose terms expire in 1928, and requested that these persons be reelected to membership.

For those memberships lapsed through absence from meetings, the committee recommended:

William M. Davidson, Pittsburgh, Pa.

E. E. McCarty, Miami, Fla.

Paul C. Stetson, Dayton, Ohio

for terms expiring in 1928

Frank D. Boynton, Ithaca, N. Y.

for term expiring 1929

Mrs. Mary D. Bradford, Kenosha, Wis.

Mrs. Jessie M. Fink, Grand Rapids, Mich.

for terms expiring in 1931

(*Mrs. Bradford* is recommended for reelection, her absence being due to long sojourn in Europe.)

Isabel L. Eckles, Santa Fe, N. Mex.

E. Ruth Pyrtle, Lincoln, Nebr.

Frank G. Pickell, Montclair, N. J.

for terms expiring in 1933

(*Miss Eckles* is recommended for reelection, her change in position having prevented attendance.)

For memberships lapsed through death, the Committee recommended the election of *Helen B. Shove* of Minneapolis, Minn., and *Emma Colbert* of Indianapolis, Ind.

Miss Jones stated that the Committee had considered the requests of the Department of Elementary School Principals and the Department of Superintendence for recognition for their officers. All but the three named, the two past presidents and *Dr. Boynton*, being already members of the Council, so that by electing these three, all are included.

Upon motion made by *Miss Jones* for the adoption of the report, seconded and carried, it was voted to adopt the report. *President Lamkin* then declared those named duly elected.

President Lamkin reported the result of the ballot for selecting the place of meeting in 1929 as being thirty-six votes for Atlanta, Georgia and twelve for Atlantic City, New Jersey, forty-eight votes having been cast. *Mr. Duggan* thanked the Board for having taken such action. Upon motion made by *Mr. Rogers* and seconded by *Mr. Kelley*, the Board of Directors set the place of the next annual meeting at Atlanta, Georgia.

Miss Woodward moved that the Executive Committee be instructed to fix the time of the annual meeting. *Mr. Wannamaker* amended the motion that the Executive Committee fix the time at its first meeting within thirty days. The motion as amended was seconded and carried.

Upon motion regularly made, seconded and carried, *Frank G. Reynolds* was elected to the Executive Committee, and the Secretary was instructed to cast the ballot. *Secretary Crabtree* cast the vote for *Mr. Reynolds*.

Mr. Mooney nominated *Joseph Saunders* for the member of the Board of Trustees. The nomination was seconded. *Mr. Doudna* moved that the Secretary be instructed to cast the ballot for *Mr. Saunders*. The motion was seconded and carried. The Secretary cast the ballot for *Mr. Saunders* as member of the Board of Trustees.

Mr. Saunders tendered his resignation from the Board of Directors for Virginia. *Mr. Mooney* made a motion to accept *Mr. Saunders'* resignation. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Claxton* and carried. Upon the suggestion of *Mr. Saunders*, *Mr. Mooney* made a motion that *C. J. Heatwole* be chosen as a member of the Board of Directors for Virginia. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Walker* and carried.

Mr. Castle, representing the Department of Adult Education, pointed out the fact that his department had been hampered in their work because of inadequate appropriations, and asked the Board for a \$1500 appropriation to carry on the work of adult education. *Mr. Blair* moved that the appropriation to the Department of Adult Education be referred to the Executive Committee with power to act. Seconded and carried.

Mr. Mooney made a motion that the ruling of the Board be that the amount owed to departments be taken from the unappropriated balance before the balance is transferred to the permanent fund. The motion was seconded and carried.

The following were then elected to act as the Budget Committee: *L. W. Rogers* of Texas, Chairman; *George W. Wannamaker* of South Carolina; *W. B. Mooney* of Colorado; *Joseph Rosier* of West Virginia; and *A. L. Whittenberg* of Illinois.

Mr. Miller of Indiana offered the suggestion that in the future the official program be available to teachers at state headquarters on Sunday, thereby enabling them to make their plans for the week. The Secretary stated that careful attention would be given to this reasonable request.

Dr. Condon of Ohio, explaining he was appointed to the Board to relieve *Mr. Eldredge* because of illness, resigned as director and moved that *A. C. Eldredge* of Cleveland be appointed. The motion was seconded and carried.

President Lamkin stated that he was sure that the Board of Directors had been a source of great strength to *Miss Adair* in her year's administration and that all appreciated the fine way in which she had led the Association. He asked the Board to send constructive criticisms or suggestions during the year, and asked for the Board's support in order to make next year one of the best in the history of the Association.

Upon motion regularly made, seconded, and carried, it was voted to adjourn at three-thirty.

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary
Uel W. Lamkin, President

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

Boston, Massachusetts, Saturday, February 25, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Saturday morning, February 25, 1928 in Room 1064, Statler Hotel, Boston, Massachusetts. *Miss Adair*, the chairman, called the meeting to order at 9:45 with the following members present: *Mr. Blair*, *Mr. Siders*, *Mr. Reynolds*, *Mr. Smith*, and *Miss Adair*, chairman. *Miss Wofford* and *Mr. Finegan* of the Board of Trustees were present on invitation.

The chairman called attention to the minutes as printed in the official manual in the hands of members. A motion was passed to dispense with the reading of the minutes.

Mr. Blair related the circumstances of the death of *William B. Owen*, which occurred the preceding week. On the suggestion of the chairman it was decided to recommend that the board of directors pass appropriate resolutions and that copies be sent to *Mrs. Owen* and to the college.

Miss Jones and *Mr. Darrow* asked the privilege of presenting a plan for radio education, representing a committee on radio under the auspices of the Payne Foundation. *Miss Jones* went into details in explaining the report and what it would mean to education to have the approval of the Association for the proposed school of the air. *Mr. Darrow* took part also in urging the plan. After discussion by all members, *Mr. Blair* moved that a special session be held February 26 at 10 o'clock for giving further consideration to the question. Seconded. Carried.

The committee next considered the question of allowing a bill covering *Miss Muir's* expenses for the Seattle meeting and for the Boston and Minneapolis meetings. Opinion was divided as to the action to be taken. After general discussion a motion was made by *Mr. Reynolds* to authorize the president to say to *Miss Muir* that the Executive Committee would recommend the payment of the Minneapolis expenses and if funds are left in the appropriation the committee will consider paying the expenses of the Boston meeting. Seconded by *Mr. Smith*. Carried. *Mr. Blair* then moved to authorize the President to inform *Miss Muir* that the Executive Committee does not feel that the Seattle expenses were authorized. Seconded. Carried.

A recess was then taken until 10 o'clock in the evening.

Saturday Evening, February 25, 1928

The meeting was called to order at 10 in the evening to consider especially the coordination of research. The following members were present: *Mr. Siders*, *Mr. Smith*, *Mr. Reynolds*, and *Miss Adair* in the chair. *Miss Wofford* and *Mr. Finegan* of the board of trustees were also present. The chairman, after presenting the plan in general, requested *Mr. Norton* to explain and to give *Dr. Gray's* reaction on the wisdom of the Association's undertaking the work. *Mr. Norton* then explained the type of coordination proposed and the additional work it would entail on the Research Division. He estimated that it would require \$4000 to \$5000 additional in the budget to cover salaries, cards, and other material and such pamphlets as would need to be printed. *Mr. Siders* moved that the recommendation be approved and that the Secretary and *Mr. Norton* make a preliminary investigation and report at the Minneapolis meeting for the approval of the Board of Directors. Seconded by *Mr. Smith*. *Mr. Blair* suggested that no one could be definitely added to the force until the matter was approved by the Board of Directors. He felt some reluctance in adding specialists to the staff. *Mr. Siders' motion* was then passed by a unanimous vote.

Miss Adair stated that she had received a request from *Dr. Seligman*, Editor of the Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences, asking that the National Education Asso-

ciation appoint a committee to cooperate in the preparation of that section of the encyclopaedia having to do with education. She had, therefore, appointed *Mr. Norton* as our representative on the board of directors, and asked *Mr. Thorndike* and *Mr. Chandler* to serve on the Editorial Board. *Mr. Blair* moved that *Miss Adair's* action be ratified. Seconded. Carried. *Miss Adair* recommended further that any committee expenses incurred by our representative be paid, saying that she preferred that our Association finance its own affairs. *Mr. Blair* indorsed this opinion, giving his reason that he wished our organization to be always in the position to withdraw its representatives should it care to do so. *Mr. Norton* stated that action had been taken by the persons responsible for the Encyclopaedia of Social Sciences that all funds taken in on account of sales of the volumes be turned into research. *Mr. Reynolds* moved that the expenses of any members of our organization be paid who may be placed on this committee, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors. Seconded. Carried.

The committee then adjourned to meet at 10 o'clock Sunday morning.

Sunday Morning, February 26, 1928

The meeting was called to order at 10:30 Sunday, February 26, 1928 in Room 1064, Statler Hotel, Boston, Massachusetts, with the following members present: *Mr. Blair*, *Mr. Siders*, *Mr. Smith*, *Mr. Reynolds*, and *Miss Adair* in the chair. The purpose of the meeting was given to receive further information concerning the plan for a radio education program under the auspices of the Association. *Miss Jones* and *Mr. Darrow* continued the presentation of their plan for a school of the air, using the material that had been prepared by the Committee of the Payne Foundation. Copies of this material had been given to each member of the executive committee and trustees. After considerable discussion, *Miss Jones* and *Mr. Darrow* were excused when the following action was taken:

Moved by *Mr. Blair*, seconded by *Mr. Siders* that the committee request the president of the National Education Association to say to *Miss Jones* and *Mr. Darrow* that with our present knowledge we are unable to make any recommendation or commitment for the Executive Committee on the proposal presented. That, if they desire, on their own responsibility to go forward with their preliminary survey, and present the results to the Executive Committee at the Minneapolis meeting, this Committee will then give the space of an hour for a hearing, and if convinced that their program is a practical one, the Executive Committee will then recommend to the Representative Assembly the appointment of such a committee as they desire. Carried.

Miss Adair stated that she felt that the name "Committee on Educational Problems in Colored Schools" was an unfortunate one. She therefore suggested that the name of our committee be changed to "The Committee on Cooperation with the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools." It was moved by *Mr. Blair* that this name be changed. Seconded. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned until 9 o'clock, Monday morning, February 27.

Monday Morning, February 27, 1928

The meeting was called to order by the president. The following members were present: *Mr. Reynolds*, *Mr. Blair*, *Mr. Siders*, and *Miss Adair* in the chair. *Miss Wofford* of the board of trustees was present.

The secretary presented a bill that had been incurred by *Mr. Muerman* on account of the Department of Rural Education. This bill had been approved by *Mr. Foght*, the head of the department. It was moved by *Mr. Reynolds*, seconded by *Mr. Blair*, that payment of the bill be recommended if the Secretary found

that the money had been spent in the interest of the National Education Association. Carried.

Miss Adair brought up the bill from *Mark T. Green*, who claimed the payment of \$100 for a manuscript on Hawali that had been printed in *The Journal*. He claimed that *Mr. Condon* had promised to find him a medium in which to print his article, but that he had expected to be paid for it. The Secretary had refused to O. K. this bill, as *The Journal* does not pay for articles. *Mr. Blair* moved that *Mr. Crabtree* consult with *Mr. Condon* as to the promise made to *Mr. Green*. It was agreed that *Mr. Condon* should not suffer loss if he felt responsible for the payment of the article.

The committee then adjourned to meet at 2 o'clock on Wednesday.

Wednesday Afternoon, February 29, 1928

The meeting was called to order at 2:25 o'clock, Wednesday afternoon, February 29. The following members were present: *Mr. Blair*, *Mr. Siders*, *Mr. Reynolds*, and *Miss Adair* in the chair.

Recommendations for the permanent roll were taken up.

The first name discussed was that of *Miss Stiffler*, secretary to *Miss Williams*. The secretary explained that *Miss Stiffler* had received a very advantageous offer for a position with the Government but that *Miss Williams* had felt unwilling to release her on account of the time spent in training her for her present position. After some discussion as to the advisability of abiding by the schedule, *Mr. Blair* moved that the Executive Committee recommend to the Board of Directors at the Minneapolis meeting that they put *Miss Stiffler* on the maximum in her class in the schedule from March 1 to July 1, then leave it to the committee as to what her future classification should be. Seconded by *Mr. Reynolds*. Carried.

Then came the question of filling the vacancy left by the resignation of *Miss Cockerille*. *Mr. Blair* moved that the one who fills this vacancy should begin work at a salary not exceeding that of *Miss Cockerille*. Seconded by *Mr. Siders*. Carried.

The secretary made other recommendations. After changing the classification of *Marjorie Beck* from Class 3A to Class 3B, the recommendations were adopted. Placing the following on the permanent roll: *Frances Ogden*, *Edna Sands*, *Elizabeth Woodward*, *Louise Crown*, *Eleanor C. Richards*, *Mary Splawn*, *Alline McBride*, *Evelyn Buck*, *Katherine Nowland*, *Elizabeth Berckman*, *Eva R. Marks*, *Hazel McKay*, *Bess Wood*, *Marjorie Beck*, *Marie Johnson*, *Angeline Marshall*.

Miss Adair stated that owing to the resignation of *Mr. Siders* from the board of directors of the World Federation, it had become necessary for her to make a nomination to the board of directors of the World Federation to fill the vacancy. She had therefore recommended the name of *Uel W. Lamkin*. Moved by *Mr. Reynolds* that the recommendation be approved. Seconded. Carried.

Miss Adair made a brief report of the suggestions of Chairman Newbold of the Committee on Cooperation between the National Education Association and the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. The N. A. T. C. S. is undertaking a financial campaign including the securing of life memberships. *Mr. Newbold* suggested that the National Education Association act in an advisory capacity to this Association. It was agreed to invite representatives to come to Washington and that all assistance possible would be given to them in establishing their financial program. It was also agreed to invite the N. A. T. C. S. to send a representative to our annual convention and that the National Education Association would send a representative to theirs.

Miss Adair reported that she had called an informal conference of the chairmen of departments and standing committees in order that these officers might

know each other better and form a plan for coordinating their work. The executive committee was much pleased with this action on the part of the President. *Miss Adair* then presented plans for the program of the summer meeting. This was followed by an informal discussion.

Motion to adjourn. Seconded. Carried.

Cornelia S. Adair, President

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Friday Afternoon, June 29, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Friday afternoon, June 29, 1928, at 3:30 o'clock in the Curtis Hotel, Room 326, Minneapolis, Minn. The following responded to roll call: *W. R. Siders*, *H. L. Smith*, *F. E. Reynolds*, and *Cornelia S. Adair*, chairman, *F. G. Blair* being unavoidably absent.

Miss Perrin of the American Child Health Association being present was called upon to present the matter of a proposed joint conference on health. She explained the purpose of the proposed conference and requested that the Health Committee of the Association issue the call for the conference jointly with the American Child Health Association. Members of the Executive Committee expressed an interest in the matter and instructed the Secretary to confer with *Dr. Dodson* and to report back to the Committee the attitude of the American Medical Association.

The question of salary increases for the headquarters staff was discussed at length. A motion was made by *Mr. Siders* and seconded by *Mr. Smith* that the schedule of salary increases for the headquarters staff automatically take effect at the end of the calendar year of service unless the secretary should recommend that no automatic increase should be given or that an amount greater than the regular increment of increase should be given, in which case the secretary's recommendation shall be voted upon by the Executive Committee. The motion was unanimously carried.

A motion made by *Mr. Siders* and seconded by *Mr. Reynolds* provided that the Executive Committee should only meet at the time of the winter and summer meetings unless called together by the President. It was unanimously carried.

On the request of the Secretary the question of additions to the headquarters staff and other salaries was left for the evening session. The Secretary presented a table showing salaries, classifications, etc.

On motion a recess was taken until 8 o'clock in the evening.

Cornelia S. Adair, President

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Friday Evening, June 29, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Friday evening, June 29, 1928, at 8 o'clock in the Curtis Hotel, Room 326, Minneapolis, Minn. The roll call showed the following members present: *W. R. Siders*, *H. L. Smith*, *F. E. Reynolds*, and *Cornelia S. Adair*, chairman, *F. G. Blair* was unavoidably absent.

The Secretary presented *Miss Williams'* request for an increase in salary of \$400 for *Miss Geneva Stiffler* and spoke of her qualifications. Upon the recommendation of the Secretary, *Mr. Smith* moved that *Miss Stiffler's* classification be changed from 3A to 2B. As *Mr. Siders* was called out of the room at this point he requested that the motion be not voted upon until after his return.

The Secretary explained that in compliance with a motion passed at the Boston meeting he had appointed *Gertrude Bliss* to a position in the Division of Publications at a salary of \$1500 and submitted this action for ratification. *Mr. Smith*

moved and *Mr. Reynolds* seconded that the appointment of *Gertrude Bliss* be approved. Motion carried. It was decided that *Miss Bliss* and *Miss Beck* would not receive the salary increase at this time but that each would receive this at the end of their first year with the Association, without further action.

A motion was made by *Mr. Reynolds* and seconded by *Mr. Smith* to elect *George McCauley* a member of the permanent roll at a salary of \$1200, beginning August 1. The motion was carried.

A motion was made by *Mr. Reynolds* and seconded by *Mr. Smith* to approve the minutes of the Boston meeting as presented by the Secretary. The motion was carried.

A recommendation from *Mr. Allan* to change *Miss Saunders'* classification from 3A to 2B was presented and the reasons for the change were given. A motion was made by *Mr. Smith* and seconded by *Mr. Reynolds* to change her classification from 3A to 2B, to be effective after June 1, 1928. Carried.

At this moment *Mr. Siders* returned and further attention was given to the recommendation concerning *Miss Stiffler*. A motion to change her classification from 3A to 2B was seconded by *Mr. Siders*. Carried.

On motion the Committee adjourned to meet at 5:30 the next afternoon.

Cornelia S. Adair, President

J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Saturday Afternoon, June 30, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Saturday afternoon, June 30, 1928, at 5:30 o'clock in the Curtis Hotel, Room 326, Minneapolis, Minn. The following answered the roll call: *W. R. Siders*, *H. L. Smith*, *F. E. Reynolds*, and *Cornelia S. Adair*, chairman. *Mr. Gwinn* of the Board of Trustees was present on invitation. *F. G. Blair* was absent.

A communication from *Mr. Morgan* was presented to the Committee. He asked the privilege of employing an assistant at a beginning salary of \$2000 a year. The Secretary recommended the request be granted. As some of the members of the Committee expressed opposition to this action, arrangements were made for calling *Mr. Morgan* before the Committee and the question was held over for the evening meeting.

Attention was called to the great desire on the part of life members to have a life membership key. A meeting of a number of life members in Boston had made the recommendation that the Association decide upon a design and arrange for having the key made available to members who desire to pay for the same. *Mr. Reynolds* moved that the Secretary be given the power to ask the Board of Directors to authorize the Executive Committee to arrange for a key for life members only. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Smith*. Carried.

Mr. Siders called attention to the need of honors to be given individuals for outstanding achievements. He explained the degrees given by the National Association of Scotland. A motion was made that he be authorized to present the question to the Board of Directors. Seconded. Carried.

Mr. Siders moved that the Secretary, *J. W. Crabtree*, be authorized to represent the Executive Committee between meetings in assigning the Association's interest in making adjustments in any retirement annuity, and in all matters connected with these policies and annuities as necessary. Seconded. Carried.

The Committee discussed the question as to whether the Association should give formal attention to the pamphlet "Sanctified Squander," a pamphlet published by the National Association for the Reduction of Taxes, Cleveland, Ohio. It was finally decided not to present the question before the Representative Assem-

bly at the present time fearing that such action would attach undue importance to an insignificant pamphlet.

Miss Adair, the chairman, called attention to the desire of the teachers for the blind and also the teachers for the deaf to have a department in the National Education Association. *Mr. Smith* moved that the Secretary be authorized to encourage the formation of a department of teachers of special groups in the National Education Association. The motion was seconded by *Mr. Reynolds*. Carried.

A letter from *Dr. Fairchild* on character education was read which called attention to the need of a committee of the Association to cooperate with the Institute on Character Education. *Mr. Reynolds* moved that the Secretary be authorized to ask the Board of Directors to create a committee of three on character education. Seconded by *Mr. Smith*. Carried.

Mr. Smith then moved that the Board of Directors be asked to authorize the Executive Committee to appoint a committee to act as a committee on cooperation with other organizations. *Mr. Reynolds* seconded the motion. Carried.

Mr. Reynolds moved that *Miss Muir's* expenses to both the Boston and Minneapolis meetings be allowed. Seconded by *Mr. Smith*. Carried.

A request was received from the Association of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction to the effect that this group be made a department of the National Education Association. The Secretary explained that the association had held the required number of meetings and that it had presented a petition signed by the required number of names. He recommended that this department be created. *Mr. Smith* moved that there be created a Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction. Seconded by *Mr. Reynolds*. Carried.

The meeting then adjourned until 10 o'clock in the evening.

Cornelia S. Adair, President
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Saturday Evening, June 30, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Saturday evening, June 30, 1928, at 10:15 o'clock in the Curtis Hotel, Room 326, Minneapolis, Minn. The roll call showed all members present: *W. R. Siders*, *H. L. Smith*, *F. G. Blair*, *F. E. Reynolds*, and *Cornelia S. Adair*, chairman.

The meeting was called to order by *Miss Adair*, President, who announced as the special order of business that of hearing from *Mr. Morgan* concerning his recommendation for an additional assistant in the Division of Publication. *Mr. Morgan* went fully into the operation of the department, explaining the work in detail. He stated that it was necessary to have additional assistance in order to pick up the loose threads of the department. All members of the Committee entered into the discussion, asking questions and expressing views. *Mr. Morgan* stated that he had mentioned \$2000 as the beginning salary but he would like to have a higher figure in case the right person could not be secured for the salary of \$2000. The Secretary recommended that this assistant be provided even though it might mean letting other help go. *Mr. Blair* moved and *Mr. Siders* seconded that we recommend to the Board of Directors in compliance with the recommendation of the Secretary the employment of the type of assistant which *Mr. Morgan* has requested in the Publications Department at the beginning salary of not to exceed \$2000. The motion was carried.

Meeting adjourned.

Cornelia S. Adair, President
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Thursday Afternoon, July 5, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Thursday afternoon, July 5, 1928, at 3 o'clock in the Curtis Hotel, Room 326, Minneapolis, Minn. The roll call showed all members present: *W. R. Siders, H. L. Smith, F. G. Blair, F. E. Reynolds, and Cornelia S. Adair*, chairman.

On calling the meeting to order *Miss Adair*, President, asked *Mr. Jay Nash*, who was present, to make his recommendations concerning the appropriations for the Health Committee. After hearing the report and after the discussion it was decided that the appropriation would need to be made to the Department of Health Education and that the Committee would need to look to the Department for its funds. *Mr. Nash* was given assurance that an appropriation would be made.

Miss Sally Lucas Jean was then called upon to discuss the proposed health survey under the auspices of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. She went into detail, explaining that the funds would be given without restriction or limitation, and the study conducted entirely by the Association. The Committee expressed appreciation to *Miss Jean* for her interest in this matter. It was understood that the survey would require an additional member in the Secretary's staff.

The budget was then presented by the chairman of the Budget Committee, *Mr. Siders*. After discussion the meeting adjourned to meet on the call of the President at the close of the evening exercises.

Cornelia S. Adair, President
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Thursday Evening, July 5, 1928

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Thursday evening, July 5, 1928 at 11:30 o'clock in the Curtis Hotel, Room 326, Minneapolis, Minn. The roll call showed all members present: *W. R. Siders, H. L. Smith, F. G. Blair, F. E. Reynolds, and Cornelia S. Adair*, chairman.

The matter of the budget was taken up and after discussion it was moved by *Mr. Blair*, seconded by *Mr. Smith*, that the report be accepted and referred to the Board of Directors for their decision. Carried. The Secretary was requested to state to the Board of Directors that this report had the approval of the Executive Committee.

Adjournment was then taken until Friday evening, July 6, at 8 o'clock.

Cornelia S. Adair, President
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary

Friday Evening, July 6, 1928.

A meeting of the Executive Committee was held Friday evening, July 6, 1928, at 8 o'clock, in the Curtis Hotel, Room 326, Minneapolis, Minn. The roll call showed all members present: *W. R. Siders, H. L. Smith, Cornelia S. Adair, F. E. Reynolds, and Uel W. Lamkin*, President.

After discussing in general the work for the coming year and after authorizing the secretary to supply members with minutes of the meetings of the Executive Committee and Board of Directors, the following action was taken concerning the proposed life membership key. Moved by *Mr. Siders* and seconded by *Miss Adair* that the Executive Committee carry out the instructions of the Board of Directors to design a life membership key and to arrange so that it may be purchased by life members, and further that the secretary be instructed to work out a plan of giving schools a chance to submit designs and to carry out the

same without further action of the Committee. The motion was carried. It was understood that the secretary should be ready to report at the time of the meeting of the Department of Superintendence.

It was moved by *Miss Adair* and seconded by *Mr. Smith* that *Mr. Siders* be instructed to report at the winter meeting a plan of giving honors to members of outstanding achievements. Carried.

The secretary was instructed to encourage the formation of a Department of Special Education, one which would include teachers and officers of the institution for the deaf, the blind, and so forth. He was instructed to aid departments in organizing for more effective work.

A motion was passed recommending that the Department of Adult Education pay particular attention to illiteracy, which was followed by a motion made by *Mr. Smith* and seconded by *Miss Adair* to add \$500 to the appropriation for the Department of Adult Education. Carried.

The secretary was requested to ascertain the needs of *Mr. Doudna's* committee and also the one for colored schools.

It was moved by *Mr. Reynolds* and seconded by *Miss Adair* that the date for the next annual meeting of the Association be fixed for June 30 to July 5 in 1929. Carried.

The secretary was instructed to pay the fee to the World Federation of Education Associations out of the special fund and to pay it as soon as possible.

On motion *Mr. Allan* was authorized to go to Atlanta, Ga., at once to make arrangements for holding the next meeting in that city. It was understood that the meeting would be held in Atlanta in compliance with the vote of the Board of Directors.

A motion was then made to adjourn. Carried.

Uel W. Lamkin, President.
J. W. Crabtree, Secretary.

MINUTES OF THE MEETINGS OF THE BOARD OF TRUSTEES

Boston, Massachusetts, Friday Evening, February 24, 1928.

The Board of Trustees met at the call of the chairman, Friday evening, February 24, 1928, at 8 o'clock, in Room 1064, Statler Hotel, Boston, Massachusetts. The following members were present: *Cornelia S. Adair*, *Kate V. Wofford*, *J. M. Gwinn*, *Thomas E. Finegan*, and *W. R. Siders*, chairman. *Frank E. Reynolds* and *Francis G. Blair*, members of the Executive Committee, were present on invitation. *Chairman Siders* called the meeting to order at 8 o'clock, explaining that all members of the board were present.

The chairman called attention to the fact that the financial statement for February showed a healthy condition of the finances of the Association. He then raised the question as to whether at certain times in the year when the monthly balances were large it would not be possible to place a portion of the funds on interest for three or six month periods. After other members and the secretary had expressed approval of the suggestion, a motion was passed instructing the secretary to invest surplus funds whenever possible for periods of three to six months.

There was then a discussion of the regional meetings of the classroom department, of the time spent by the President, *Miss Soules*, and other members of the committee in field work and the influence on membership. The Secretary of the Association called attention to the way in which *Miss Adair*, the President of the Association, had been received in the scores of places visited by her and the effect that these visits would have on the permanency of membership. He

stated that he would not be surprised that a total of 200,000 could be reported at the Minneapolis meeting. It was explained that the official membership count was made each year on January 1. The count was made on this date since the Association was organized.

It was suggested by *Mr. Gwinn* that since boards of education had released members of the executive committee of the department of classroom teachers for four to twelve weeks, without the loss of salary, to attend meetings and to render invaluable service to the profession, it would be fitting to give official recognition of this help by writing the board of education in such instances. He would like for some one to write his board of education, letting the members know of *Miss Eisner's* work and what it meant to the cause. After further discussion there was the understanding that *Miss Adair*, President, would write a letter of appreciation to all boards of education that released teachers for field work during the year.

The chairman next called attention to the investment of the permanent fund. He mentioned recent investments and explained the character of all present investments. He called attention to the need of completing the heating system of the building and proposed finishing for practical use the basement rooms of the headquarters building. There was then a general discussion of the question of heating, that of fitting up the basement and that of constructing a new building. Some members preferred repairing the basement, putting in oil heat, and later building to the present building on the east. The view was expressed, however, that an entire new structure ought to be built as soon as possible. Following the discussion a motion was made by *Miss Adair*, seconded and passed by a unanimous vote, to instruct the headquarters office to secure information relative to the installation of the oil heating plant to heat the entire building and to secure an estimate of the costs of the same and also to secure estimates of the cost of making the basement useable as a part of the operating plant.

The chairman of the board explained the attention which had been given to the matter of homes for retired teachers following out the instructions given at the Seattle meeting of the Board of Trustees. It was found, he said, that the Board of Trustees did not have adequate information as to the need of such homes. It was decided that it would be necessary to make an investigation of the needs before the Board would be justified in making plans for the expenditure of funds. After prolonged discussion, *Trustee Gwinn* moved, and his motion was seconded and passed, to instruct the chairman of the Board of Trustees in cooperation with the headquarters staff to plan and execute research into the needs of such a home and if possible to present the report at the July meeting.

On the suggestion of *Trustee Gwinn* the chairman of the Board of Trustees was directed to write a letter of thanks and appreciation to the Board of Education of Richmond, Virginia, for their contribution to the work and influence of the Association by making it possible for *Miss Adair*, the President, to give her full time to the work of the Association for the entire year without the loss of pay.

On motion by *Miss Wofford* the meeting adjourned to meet on call of the chairman.

J. M. Gwinn, Secretary.

W. R. Siders, Chairman.

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Saturday Evening, June 30, 1928

Chairman Siders called the meeting to order at 8:28 p. m. with all members present. *W. R. Siders*, *J. M. Gwinn*, *Cornelia Adair*, *Kate V. Wofford*, *Thomas E. Finegan*, *Secretary Crabtree*, and *Treasurer Smith* were also present.

Secretary Gwinn read the minutes of the last meeting, which were approved as read.

Mr. Allan, Business Manager, presented the subject of heating—both as to the extension of the present heating system and the installation of oil as the means of heating—in place of coke. "The present building is 60 percent heated by steam, the remaining portion being heated by hot air." *Mr. Allan* left on file a summarized statement covering extension of heating plant and installation of oil burner. Also summarized statement regarding building alterations.

Mr. Gwinn moved that the Chairman of the Trustees be empowered to have such system of oil burning heating plant installed, as he shall, after investigation, approve, with such changes in the basement as may be necessary. This motion was seconded by *Mr. Finegan*, and carried.

Alterations on the fourth floor—*Mr. Allan* reported that *Mr. Norton's* division requires space on the top floor arranged to suit convenience of their work, the present arrangement being unsuitable because space is cut into small rooms. *Mr. Allan* stated that the fourth floor alterations, including linoleum for the floors, would approximate \$2000.

Dr. Finegan moved that this be referred to the Chairman of the Board, with power to carry out the plan. This motion was seconded by *Miss Wofford*, and carried.

Investigation of adjoining property ordered—*Chairman Siders* told of the offer made, that the Association buy the adjoining property on M Street. He described the location and the uses to which it might be put, also telling of the advice received from the Continental Trust Company.

Discussion then followed of real estate values, led by *Dr. Finegan* and followed by *Mr. Allan*, *Mr. Siders*, *Mr. Smith*. *Secretary Crabtree* stated that the Association was not ready to decide whether they should remain at the present location or plan for greater space and a larger building for the future.

Moved by *Dr. Gwinn* that it should be in the minutes that at your request (*Secretary Crabtree*), *Mr. Allan* submit information concerning the property adjoining on M Street, seconded by *Mr. Finegan* carried. After further discussion, it was decided to take no action and the motion was reconsidered and tabled.

Teachers homes—*Mr. Siders* told of the offer made by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, through *Dr. Frankel*—that his staff collect data on the subject. *Mr. Gwinn* and *Mr. Finegan* inquired as to their interest in it. *Mr. Siders* replied that this interest was in the Child Health in Schools and World Federation. *Mr. Gwinn* asked if the questionnaire had been developed and *Mr. Finegan* asked who had done so. *Mr. Siders* replied that *Mr. Norton* had developed the questionnaire.

Mr. Siders told of another proposition in connection with this subject. *Miss Jones* was approached by *Secretary Davis*, who is active in the work of the Moose. He proposes that they build for us such a plant as we might want and give it to us on a long time lease—or give it to us with the holding deed so we can return it to them should we wish to return it.

After discussion the final decision was that the teachers' home may still wait on information to be gotten up by the Research Division.

Finances—*Mr. Siders* stated that the report of the Auditors was in print. He read excerpts, also saying he had a complete statement from *Mrs. Hixson* covering a period of ten years. He then discussed the value of these securities and wanted to know of the Board the type of securities they would advise taking up.

Mr. Finegan said that the Chairman of the Board should have considerable discretion in these matters. (He did not care for the mortgage investments.)

Mr. Gwinn moved that the Chairman be authorized to reinvest whatever funds available and make sales for reinvestment as in his judgment is desirable, and in doing so, to bear in mind safety as well as rate of income.

Mr. Finegan seconded and the motion was carried.

The meeting adjourned at 10:15 p. m. subject to the call of the Chair.

Minneapolis, Minnesota, Friday Afternoon, July 6, 1928

The meeting of the Board of Trustees was called to order at 4 p. m. by the newly elected President, *Uel W. Lamkin*. Those present were: *W. R. Siders*, Chairman; *Uel W. Lamkin*, *Joseph H. Saunders*, *Kate V. Wofford*. *J. M. Gwinn* was absent. *Cornelia Adair*, Secretary *Crabtree*, and *Frank E. Reynolds*, of the Executive Committee, were also present.

Reorganization—*Dr. Siders* was elected Chairman and *Kate V. Wofford* was elected Secretary.

Reaffirmation of action of Board on June 30, 1928—Chairman *Siders* reviewed the matters of alterations and installation of heating plant for the benefit of the new members on the Board.

Discussion was entered into by *President Lamkin* and *Mr. Saunders* concerning the heating plant and the advisability of holding a meeting before the February session.

President Lamkin moved that a meeting be held at Headquarters in Washington during the week of August 27, upon call of the Chairman, and that the Chairman be authorized to proceed with the alterations on the top floor. This motion was seconded by *Miss Wofford* and carried.

Investments—The next discussion was in regard to reinvestment of funds. Those taking part were *Mr. Saunders*, *Miss Wofford*, *Mr. Siders*, and *Mr. Crabtree*.

Mr. Siders explained his method of procedure in investments and asked for suggestions as to better means, also asking if the Board would like to take a preferential vote.

Miss Wofford: It seems to me that you would know more about this, as you were instructed to look into investments.

Discussion by *Mr. Siders*, *Mr. Saunders*, *Mr. Reynolds*, regarding types of investment.

Mr. Siders stated that he would get information right away and would send it to members of the Board and would ask that they promptly send him their comments.

President Lamkin moved that the meeting adjourn to meet at the call of the Chairman. Seconded and carried.

Adjourned at 5:30 p. m.

REPORT OF RESOLUTIONS COMMITTEE

JOSEPH ROSIER, PRESIDENT, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, FAIRMONT, W. VA.
CHAIRMAN

1. Education for a Democracy

Our American democracy is based firmly on the principle of the equal inalienable right of all to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. But there can be no equal right for all, no best achievement for any without full and equal opportunity for education. To give this opportunity to all in fullest measure, both as the means and as the end of democracy, is the great purpose of the American public school. Through the public school we have undertaken to free, develop, inform, inspire, guide, and direct all the energies of all the people to the service of man and of society in all its forms. From the public school the American people expect and demand the promotion of individual welfare, public health, material wealth, social

purity, political wisdom, safety and strength of state and nation, world vision and preparation for the most effective service of humanity. It is for these results that the people pay ever more willingly rapidly increasing sums of money for the support of the schools. That the money of the people may be well spent, the work of the schools well done and their purposes finally attained, We, for ourselves and fellow teachers, pledge the fullest devotion of all our energies as our patriotic duty and highest service to state and nation.

2. National Congress of Parents and Teachers

No greater movement in the field of education has been fostered during the last quarter of a century than the organization of Parent-Teacher Associations. This movement has for its purpose the welfare of children and it has held steadfastly to this high endeavor and has become one of the most efficient agencies in the promotion of all activities which contribute to the successful training of the child in its relation to the home, school, church, and state. In every commonwealth it exerts much influence in the field of the curriculum, and in the assumption of a proper attitude toward extracurriculum subjects. Without its influence there would have been less progress in the securing of adequate funds for buildings, equipment, and maintenance of the public schools. The social intercourse of parents and teachers contributes to a better understanding and appreciation of child nature and brings about united action in every community resulting in democracy in education.

The National Education Association commends this great organization upon the work already accomplished and assures its cooperation in all efforts to promote a closer relationship between the home and the school,

3. Financing Education

The long established and widely accepted principle of equalizing educational opportunity is closely allied with financing education. Provisions for education based on abilities and needs of children are generally directly proportional to school revenues. The real problem therefore of financing education is to devise a system of school revenue that will assure equal educational opportunity which is the birthright of every American boy and girl. The state has the sovereign right and the inescapable duty to organize, supervise, and administer education. Inequalities in educational opportunities exist in almost every state because of inequalities and inequities in taxation necessary to produce school revenue. In those states where the lack of school revenue is most noticeable, invariably taxing possibilities have not been exhausted. There should be made a study and investigation of additional sources of school revenue, with special attention to indirect forms of taxation.

The state should accept the responsibility for seeing that a satisfactory program of education is offered to all children and then it should in a

businesslike manner set about the task of seeing that the burden of support of the program is distributed in such a manner that it will fall upon the people in all localities according to their ability to furnish school revenue.

4. Retirement

Sound teacher retirement systems increase school efficiency. The fact that twenty-two states and the District of Columbia now have statewide laws with eleven more states having laws that apply to certain cities only, and that the other sixteen states are working diligently towards state wide retirement legislation, shows that the public and the teaching profession recognize the value of this movement to the teaching profession. We believe in a retirement system that is absolutely fair to the teacher and to the public. The efficiency of the teacher is increased by a retirement system, because it lengthens the period of teaching efficiency by relieving the teacher's mind of a fear of destitute old age and by making it possible for a teacher to invest in study, training, and travel, without endangering the provision made for his later years.

The National Education Association indorses legislation providing for a fair and just retirement of teachers and believes that a sound plan for this purpose will contribute greatly to the growth and the stability of the teaching profession.

5. Tenure

The development of the teaching profession depends in a very large measure upon the permanence of teaching positions and the freedom of teachers from those disturbances and petty annoyances that cause unrest and dissatisfaction. For these reasons this association gives its support to all legislative movements for the securing of tenure of position for the teachers of our country. We commend those states and cities that have safeguarded their schools by creating laws for teacher tenure. We believe that we cannot have the teaching profession that is desirable until teachers throughout the country have reasonable assurance of tenure.

This association pledges its support to legislation for the purpose of improving conditions of tenure, and urges upon cities and states the importance of permanence in teaching positions to insure the stability and progress of the teaching profession.

6. The Curriculum

The National Education Association recognizes the study and investigation of school curriculums as one of the important educational projects in present day education. The increase in knowledge in all fields of human endeavor has made necessary the selection of subjects for use in the school programs of the country. The efficiency and the value of modern educational programs will depend upon a wise selection of material for use in the instruction of children. This association notes with interest and approval the many studies and reports on the curriculum that have been made in recent years. We believe that the determination of educational

objectives growing out of the study of the school curriculum and the selection of subjects with proper objectives are essential in the development of present day school programs.

The greatest objective in all educational training is the growth and development of the child in all those qualities that make for complete living. We hold to the principle that all programs of study should be subordinate to the advancement of this great purpose.

7. Illiteracy

The National Education Association has stood consistently for the removal of adult illiteracy from the United States and has fostered the movement as one in keeping with the high ideals and patriotic spirit of the teachers of America, as well as one that fulfills the meaning and true purpose of democracy.

The year 1930 will be a momentous one in educational history, marking as it does the new census and the rank which our country will occupy among others in literacy. The best possible use should be made of the intervening time both to enlighten mankind and to lift our nation to the place which it deserves to occupy.

The challenge is to all America, but to the teachers it is insistent. We call upon the teaching forces of America to enlist in a united effort to rid their communities and the nation of illiteracy by 1930.

8. Americanization

The adaptation of persons of foreign ancestry and the naturalization of the foreign born into American citizenship, is a matter of such importance to the welfare of the nation that it should be handled with the greatest intelligence. We commend all movements for the true and sound Americanization of those who do not possess by inheritance the spirit of our American institutions, without bringing upon those who seek American citizenship through the process of naturalization any hardship. We hold that the full rights of American citizenship should not be conferred upon those who have not come into full possession of the American spirit and American ideals. We approve those institutions and agencies that by instruction, training, and inspiration are striving to bring the foreign born into a loyal and understanding relation of our American institutions and a loyalty to our national ideals.

9. International Relations

The National Education Association declares its interest in all movements for the promotion of more amicable relations among the nations of the world. We believe that the nations have much more to gain through the practise of amity and peace than through misunderstanding and discord. We especially commend the work of the World Federation of Education Associations, and we pledge our support and cooperation in its various movements for the establishment of a better understanding among the peoples of the earth. We believe that world peace can only be established through a process of education in all nations and that the establishment of

universal educational ideals among the nations will be the greatest force for creating international understanding and peace.

To attain these results we recommend that educational institutions provide courses of instruction in international relations and that all available materials for the cultivation of goodwill among the nations be fully utilized. Such instructions should be especially emphasized in the teacher training institutions.

10. Freedom of the Teacher

The National Education Association believes there is urgent need for recognizing the influence of the teacher's status on the whole process of education in the public school. This is especially true in the nature of the contract, the status of the teacher in the school and in the community, and in relation to those in authority. We believe there should be more genuine freedom for the teacher, freedom in mind and spirit to achieve and create and to take pride in the art of teaching, so that he may have the same satisfaction in achievement and recognition that the lawyer, the doctor, and the engineer have in the practice of their professions. Such freedom should be accompanied by a proper restraint and a sense of obligation and responsibility in all relations.

This association approves for all those engaged in public education that academic freedom which means, not the propagation of unsound or revolutionary theories, but rather the exercise of initiative and independence in the preparation of individuals for freedom in a democracy. The men and women engaged in the work of education in our country should illustrate in their professional activities the finest type of American citizen.

11. Convention Attendance

We call the attention of directors of summer schools for teachers and summer session of colleges and universities attended by teachers to the importance of so arranging their work as not to deprive their students of the opportunity of attending the meetings of the National Education Association.

12. Health and Physical Education

Health is winning increasing and clearer recognition as the fundamental objective in the entire program of public education. We recognize health education and health service for children as a definite and appropriate function of the public school. This objective should be defined as health of body, health of mind, and health of character. It is a primary function of the school to discover the health assets and health liabilities of the child; to conduct health inspection for the prevention and control of communicable disease, to keep a record of the health and growth of each child as a part of an educational record, to provide a healthful school environment, and to safeguard the life and health of the pupils in promoting all first aid and safety provisions against accident.

The purpose of health education is to bring to bear upon every child in the school, the greatest possible number of influences favorable to the

inculcation of habits, attitudes, and knowledge desirable for individual and community health.

Physical education should put the major emphasis upon an extensive program of wholesome activities for all pupils, rather than the devotion of the facilities of instruction primarily to the more highly gifted and intensively developed few capable of winning victories and contests.

We indorse all movements in the communities and in the schools of the country for the promotion of physical education and mental health. We believe there is no greater objective in education than the ideal of a sound mind in a sound body.

13. Postage Rates for Books

This association gives its endorsement to the proposal to amend the postal laws so that more favorable rates may be granted for the circulation of books through the mails. The diffusion of knowledge and the advancement of culture are dependent largely upon the wide distribution of books. For this reason no necessary restrictions should be placed upon the circulation of books among the people.

14. Unity of Educational Administration

In recent years it has been suggested that the business administration of schools can to advantage be divorced from their professional management. It has been argued that the construction of school buildings, their maintenance and operation, the purchase, storage and distribution of supplies, the making of the budget, and the like, can be best handled by one trained in business affairs. In a considerable number of school systems the business manager has been made an officer coordinate with the superintendent of schools reporting directly to the board of education. This type of organization ignores the fact that every act of the business manager is worthy of approval only as it contributes directly to the furtherance of the educational program adopted by the board of education.

All affirm the necessity for the adequate business procedures in the administration of a school system. The board of education in our larger communities should elect, upon the nomination of the superintendent of schools, an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs. This man should be highly trained as a business executive and should cooperate with the superintendent of schools in the making of the budget, in the development of plans and the supervision of the construction of buildings, in the purchase, storage and distribution of supplies, in the handling of the payroll, and the like. His efficiency will be increased by virtue of the relationship which he bears to the chief executive officer of the board of education. The administration of the schools system will profit from a relationship which is sound in theory and which has been successfully established in practise.

15. Bureau of Education

We commend the work of the United States Bureau of Education, done too often with meager funds and inadequate equipment. We urge upon

Congress the importance of making to the Bureau of Education such adequate appropriations as will enable it to do effectively and on the plane of present needs all the work of investigation, information, advice, and promotion for which it was established. Because of the rapid growth of the public high school as a part of our system of education we urge the need of a comparatively large appropriation for the special purpose of enabling the Bureau, in cooperation with State and local authorities and agencies, to make a through and comprehensive study of public secondary education, its organization and methods, and its relation to and articulation both with elementary education and with higher education.

16. The Education Bill

Efficiency and economy demand that the several agencies of the federal government dealing with education, now distributed among the several executive departments, be consolidated in a department of education.

The welfare of the children enroled in our schools is dependent upon our ability to make available to boards of education, to superintendents of schools, and to teachers throughout the nation, the results of current practice, of experiments wherever they are conducted, and of scientific investigations.

We urge that a department of education be created under the leadership of a secretary, with a seat in the President's cabinet. We urge that adequate support be provided for this department in order that it may conduct such inquiries and disseminate such information as will make for the highest degree of efficiency in all of our schools. This service can be rendered by a federal department of education without in any way interfering with the constitutional rights of several states to control, administer, and supervise their own schools.

We urge the Congress of the United States to create a department of education in accord with the principles embodied in the Curtis-Reed Bill which was before the last session of Congress.

17. To Minneapolis

Among the benefits to those attending the annual meetings of this association are the opportunities to visit states and cities distant from their own homes. Our pleasure and profit have been especially great in seeing and knowing Minnesota and Minneapolis. We have found here inspiring natural beauty, and a city of attractive qualities. We have been impressed with the educational progress manifested in this fine American city. We deeply appreciate the spirit of hospitality shown to us by the city of Minneapolis through its school authorities and its Parent-Teachers Association.

Ws shall depart with agreeable and lasting memories of our visit to this part of our country, and its well organized and efficient committees, its civic organizations and the press of the city. We shall depart with enthusiastic and lasting impressions of our visit in this our great Northwest.

THE AUDITOR'S REPORT

COVERING RECORDS OF SECRETARY, BOARD OF TRUSTEES, AND TREASURER

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.**Accountants and Auditors**400 Exchange Place
New York, N. Y.
June 20, 1928.Miss Cornelia S. Adair, President,
National Education Association of the United States,
Washington, D. C.

Dear Madam:

In accordance with your instructions, we have made our usual examination of the accounts of the National Education Association of the United States for the year ended May 31, 1928, 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, 1928, and a review of the income and expenses 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 \$35,372.26 for the year ended May 31, 1928. The following is a condensed comparative statement of the income and expenses for the two years ended May 31, 1928 and 1927:

CONDENSED COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF INCOME AND EXPENSES

	Year ended May 31		Increase Decrease
	1928	1927	
Income:			
Memberships from Secretary's Office.....	\$164,676.00	\$156,602.00	\$8,074.00
N.E.A. Journal—Subscriptions and Advertising, etc.....	235,574.79	210,345.84	25,228.95
Sales of Proceedings.....	960.82	953.53	7.29
Sales of Special Reports.....	3,713.86	5,199.48	1,485.62
Commercial Exhibits.....	26,810.53	8,517.65	18,292.88
Research Bulletin.....	7,095.26	7,663.15	567.89
Honorariums.....	3,108.27	1,633.73	1,474.54
Rentals.....	2,272.50	2,570.00	297.50
Interest and Discount Earned.....	396.58	919.13	522.55
Cash Sales—Reports, Pamphlets, etc....	892.32	1,388.17	495.85
Net Income transferred from Permanent Fund.....	15,641.37	8,025.46	7,615.91
Sundry Income.....	345.32	207.19	138.13
Sales of Dr. Harris' Book.....	64.73	14.99	49.74
Sales of Pageant Leaflets.....	36.73	292.30	255.57
Sesquicentennial Fund.....		9,323.64	9,323.64
	<u>\$461,589.08</u>	<u>\$413,656.26</u>	<u>\$47,932.82</u>
Expenses:			
Board of Trustees.....	\$ 419.83	\$ 412.53	\$ 7.30
Board of Directors.....	7,829.08	5,490.96	2,338.12
Executive Committee.....	5,874.75	4,635.81	1,238.94
General Secretary's Office.....	23,227.83	23,513.29	285.46
General Headquarters Expenses.....	34,183.08	31,731.54	2,451.54
Institutional Expenses:			
Annual Conventions.....	5,761.26	8,072.94	2,311.68
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership.....	38,691.16	37,832.95	858.21
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution).....	101,374.69	96,769.44	4,605.25
Volume of Proceedings 1927 (Printing and Distribution).....	9,850.67	9,191.81	658.86
Publications and Reports (Printing and Distribution).....	864.50	2,637.31	1,772.81
Research Bulletins (Printing and Distribution).....	7,432.20	7,493.03	60.83
Special Appropriations.....	39,264.66	31,053.74	8,210.92
Division of Accounts.....	7,822.72	7,434.53	388.19
Division of Field (Legislation).....	17,823.82	15,393.50	2,430.32
Division of Business.....	14,805.73	14,231.97	573.76
Division of Publications.....	27,386.40	23,366.27	4,020.13
Division of Research.....	38,073.80	29,476.60	8,597.20
Division of Elementary School Service.....	7,155.10	6,495.36	659.74
Division of Administrative Service.....	6,760.35	4,555.89	2,204.46
Division of Records and Membership.....	31,388.43	31,311.87	76.56
Bad Debts Written Off.....	226.76	1,532.96	1,306.20
	<u>426,216.82</u>	<u>392,634.30</u>	<u>33,582.52</u>
Surplus for Year.....	<u>\$ 35,372.26</u>	<u>\$ 21,021.96</u>	<u>\$ 14,350.30</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, 1928 are submitted in Exhibit "A," appended hereto.

The following is a transcript of the Surplus Account for the year ended May 31, 1928:

Surplus as at May 31, 1927.....	\$ 91,362.91
Deduct:	
Amount transferred to the Permanent Fund.....	9,117.29
	<u>\$ 82,245.62</u>
Add:	
Surplus for year ended May 31, 1928 as per Income and Expense Statement.....	35,372.26
Surplus as at May 31, 1928.....	<u>\$117,617.88</u>

It will be noted that during the year under review there was an increased income of \$47,932.82 while the expenses increased \$33,582.52. The expenses for the year just ended were 92 percent of the income as compared with 95 percent for the preceding year and 88 percent for the year ended May 31, 1926.

On December 1, 1927 the Association adopted a welfare plan providing retirement, disability, and other insurance benefits for its staff. All employees on the permanent roll at headquarters, Washington, D. C. are eligible under the plan and have taken advantage of it.

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, 1927.....	\$ 74,562.48
Add Receipts.....	469,842.93
	<u>544,405.41</u>
Deduct Disbursements.....	447,651.18
Cash Balance as at May 31, 1928.....	<u>\$ 96,754.23</u>
Accounted for as follows:	
Revolving Fund.....	\$ 30,000.00
General Account—Continental Trust Co.....	31,754.23
Certificate of Deposit—Continental Trust Co.....	35,000.00
Total.....	<u>\$ 96,754.23</u>

The total income for the year may be reconciled with the cash receipts as follows:

Income as per Income and Expense Statement.....	\$461,589.08
Add Increase in Deferred Income of Departments of Superintendence, Elementary School Principals, etc.....	12,434.17
	<u>\$474,023.25</u>

Carried forward.....\$474,023.25

Deduct:

Net Increase in Accounts Receivable after taking into account Bad Debts written off.....	\$ 3,732.18	
Increase in Time Checks Receivable.....	301.34	
Increase in Notes Receivable.....	146.80	4,180.32
		<u>4,180.32</u>
Cash Receipts for Year.....		<u>\$469,842.93</u>

The total expenses for the year may be reconciled with the cash disbursements as follows:

Expenses as per Income and Expense Statement.....\$426,216.82

Deduct:

Bad Debts written off.....	\$ 226.76	
Bills Unpaid as at May 31, 1928.....	7,554.90	
Depreciation—Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	4,975.90	12,757.56
		<u>12,757.56</u>
		\$413,459.26

Add:

Bills of Previous Year paid during Current Year....	\$ 19,159.06	
Expenditures for Furniture and Fixtures.....	5,568.26	
Increase in Inventory of Stationery and Office Supplies.....	347.31	
Transferred to the Permanent Fund.....	9,117.29	34,191.92
		<u>34,191.92</u>
Cash Disbursements for Year.....		<u>\$447,651.18</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 other income, and made tests to satisfy 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 three recent vouchers aggregating \$252.91, 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, 1928, 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.....	31,754.23
Time Deposit Account—in Bank.....	35,000.00
Permanent Fund—in Bank.....	246.42

97,000.65

Accrued Interest on Securities Purchased.....	126.25
Accounts Receivable.....	\$ 15,044.99
Less Reserve for Doubtful Accounts.....	1,000.00

14,044.99

Time Checks Receivable.....	915.25
Notes Receivable.....	146.80
Notes Receivable, Life Members.....	94,961.00
Stationery, Supplies, Stamped Envelopes, etc.....	1,076.11
Old Volumes of Proceedings and Other Publications....	500.00
Securities at Book Value (Schedule "1").....	100,928.80
Real Estate Notes.....	67,000.00

Real Estate:

Purchase Price.....	153,000.00
Less Mortgages.....	66,000.00

87,000.00

Improvements and Alterations.....	17,566.13
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104,566.13

Office Furniture, Fixtures and Equipment.....	49,759.04
Less Reserve for Depreciation.....	20,896.46

28,862.58

\$510,128.56

Liabilities

Accounts Payable.....	\$ 7,554.90
Department of Superintendence.....	14,486.77
Department of Elementary School Principals.....	1,295.81
Department of Adult Education.....	467.44
Department of Rural Education.....	470.67
Department of Lip Reading.....	2.49
Department of Secondary School Principals.....	404.00
Permanent Fund.....	367,828.60
Surplus.....	117,617.88

\$510,128.56

We verified the Secretary's Fund partly by count and partly by certificate obtained from the depository. The Regular Account and the Time Deposit Account were verified by certificate from the same source. We also verified the cash 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 con-

dition, and from our discussion with the business manager, we are of the opinion that the reserve of \$1000 previously set up is adequate.

The notes receivable on hand, life members' and others, were examined by us and found in order. The life members' notes are payable in installments, and at the date of our examination, payments amounting to \$1510 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, which we believe is conservative. This asset now includes the following:

	Copies
Volumes of Proceedings.....	14,833
Health Education.....	3,001
School House Planning.....	7,500
Harris' Book.....	3,700
Miscellaneous Pamphlets, etc.....	Uncounted

We inspected vouchers for the additions to the furniture, fixtures, and equipment during the year, amounting to \$5,568.26, 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 \$14,486.77 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. Real Estate notes to the amount of \$34,000 were purchased during the year and all income from investments was duly received.

The following statement shows the changes in the permanent fund during the year:

Balance as at May 31, 1927 as per last report.....	\$290,072.31
Added during Year:	
Cash Received from Life Members' Fees.....	\$ 25,098.00
Notes for Life Members' Fees:	
Amount as at May 31, 1927.....	\$ 51,420.00
Amount as at May 31, 1928.....	94,961.00
	\$ 43,541.00
	\$ 68,639.00
Amount transferred from Surplus Account.....	9,117.29
Balance as at May 31, 1928.....	<u>367,828.60</u>

Made up as follows:

Cash.....	\$	246.42	
Accrued Interest on Securities Purchased.....		126.25	
Notes Receivable—Life Members.....		94,961.00	
Real Estate 6% Notes.....		67,000.00	
Securities.....		100,928.80	
Real Estate less Mortgage Loans thereon.....		87,000.00	
Improvements at M Street, Washington, D. C.....		17,566.13	\$367,828.60

The following is a summary of the income and disbursements of the permanent fund for the year:

Receipts:

Income from Securities owned (Schedule "1").....	\$	4,375.00	
Rent Charged to General Headquarters.....		15,000.00	
Interest from Real Estate Notes.....		2,150.00	
			\$ 21,525.00

Disbursements:

Interest on Mortgages, etc.....	\$	3,960.00	
Repairs, etc.....		1,007.74	
Insurance.....		321.56	
Trustee's Commission.....		594.33	5,883.63
Net Income transferred to the Association.....			\$ 15,641.37

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, 1928

Income:

Memberships from Secretary's Office..... \$164,676.00

N. E. A. Journal:

Subscriptions (Part of Membership Dues).....	\$149,739.00	
Advertising.....	85,721.47	
Sales.....	114.32	235,574.79

Sales of Proceedings.....		960.82
Sales of Special Reports.....		3,713.86
Commercial Exhibits.....		26,810.53

Research Bulletin:

Subscriptions.....	\$ 4,403.00	
Sales.....	2,357.26	
Special Investigations.....	335.00	7,095.26

Honorariums.....		3,108.27
Rentals.....		2,272.50
Interest and Discount Earned.....		396.58
Cash Sales, Reports, Pamphlets, etc.....		892.32
Net Income transferred from Permanent Fund.....		15,641.37
Sundry Income.....		345.32
Sales of Harris' Book.....		64.73
Sales of Pageant Leaflets.....		36.73
		<u>\$461,589.08</u>

Expenses:

Board of Trustees.....	\$ 419.83
Board of Directors.....	7,829.08

Executive Committee:

President (Dr. Blair) 1926-7.....	\$ 814.55	
President (Miss Adair) 1927-8.....	1,706.24	
President's Traveling and Clerical Expenses 1927-8.....	1,517.97	
First Vice-president (Miss McSkimmon) 1926-7.....	284.76	
First Vicepresident (Dr. Blair) 1927-8.....	155.14	
Treasurer (Dr. Smith).....	378.21	
Chairman, Board of Trustees (Mr. Siders).....	565.81	
Member by Election (Mr. Lamkin)...	233.91	
Member by Election (Mr. Reynolds)...	218.16	5,874.75

General Secretary's Office:

Salary of Secretary.....	\$ 10,000.00
Clerical Services.....	10,222.76
Traveling Expenses.....	1,282.43
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	308.03
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	1,192.52

Carried Forward.....	\$ 23,005.74	\$ 14,123.66	\$461,589.08
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Total Income, Brought Forward..... \$461,589.08

Expenses Continued:

Brought Forward..... \$ 14,123.66

General Secretary's Office: (Continued)

Brought Forward.....	\$ 23,005.74	
Telegrams.....	208.84	
General Expenses.....	13.25	23,227.83

General Headquarters Expenses:

General Expense.....	763.68	
Purchase of Books (General Use)....	18.00	
Refunds—Miscellaneous.....	231.29	
Purchase of back volumes.....	48.21	
Subscriptions to Journals.....	6.00	
Express and Freight.....	1,040.34	
Postage, Miscellaneous Reports and Pamphlets.....	593.24	
Telephone Service.....	2,171.99	
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	403.85	
Depreciation—Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	4,975.90	
Interest and Discounts Allowed.....	1,603.18	
Surety Bonds.....	218.00	
Insurance.....	93.45	
Audit Fee, etc.....	811.01	
Physical Plant Expenses:		
Rent.....	\$ 15,000.00	
Light and Power.....	1,017.65	
Heat.....	987.10	
Janitor Service.....	2,174.48	
Maintenance.....	2,025.71	21,204.91
		34,183.08

Institutional Expenses:

Annual Conventions:

Department Expenses.....	\$ 201.67
Registration Bureau.....	523.95
Stenographers and Typing.....	275.80
Publicity.....	214.95
Printing—Programs.....	1,628.82
Printing—Miscellaneous.....	1,443.84
Express and Freight.....	656.55
Telephones and Telegrams.....	40.18
General Expense.....	164.38
Badges.....	85.75
Representative Assembly Expense.....	525.37
	5,761.26

Promotion and Maintenance of Membership.....

Carried Forward.....	\$ 44,452.42	\$ 71,534.57	\$461,589.08
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Total Income, Brought Forward..... \$461,589.08

Expenses: (Continued)

Brought Forward..... \$ 71,534.57

Institutional Expenses:

Brought Forward.....	\$ 44,452.42	
N.E.A. Journal (Printing and Distribution).....	\$101,374.69	
Volume of Proceedings (Printing and Distribution).....	9,850.67	
Publication and Reports—(Printing and Distribution).....	864.50	
Research Bulletins (Printing and Distribution).....	7,432.20	163,974.48

Special Appropriations for the Year:

Committee on Health Education.....	\$ 273.16	
Life Annuities and Insurance.....	3,627.24	
Legislative Commission.....	4,619.44	
National Council on Education.....	14.68	
Committee on Tenure.....	253.01	
Department of Classroom Teachers...	6,797.77	
Committee on Museums.....	61.65	
Financing of Delegates.....	17,178.83	
Kindergarten Education.....	195.71	
American Education Week.....	523.88	
Department of Elementary School Principals.....	2,000.00	
Membership, World Conference on Education.....	1,000.00	
Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions.....	629.82	
Membership, American Council on Education.....	100.00	
Committee on Retirement Allowances...	493.17	
Committee on Behavior Problem Child...	19.25	
Committee on Professional Ethics....	500.45	
Committee on Visual Education.....	32.80	
Committee on Home for Retired Teachers.....	33.07	
Department of Adult Education.....	500.00	
Committee on Foreign Relations.....	410.73	\$ 39,264.66

Division of Accounts:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 7,131.93	
Traveling Expense.....	422.23	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	134.15	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	129.56	
Telegrams.....	4.85	7,822.72

Carried Forward..... \$282,596.43 \$461,589.08

Total Income, Brought Forward..... \$461,589.08

Expenses: (Continued)

Brought Forward..... \$282,596.42

Division of Field: (Legislation)

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 14,129.87	
Traveling Expense.....	2,550.16	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	198.08	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	714.54	
Telegrams.....	138.41	
General Expense.....	92.76	17,823.82

Division of Business:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 12,045.60	
Traveling Expense.....	1,318.14	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	292.21	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	320.57	
Telegrams.....	49.01	
Typing Section.....	19.05	
Mailing Section.....	747.29	
Multigraph Section.....	13.86	14,805.73

Division of Publications:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 22,589.99	
Traveling Expense.....	2,760.13	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	408.09	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	605.46	
Telegrams.....	64.51	
General Expense.....	375.13	
Reprints.....	188.25	
Photographs and Prints.....	394.84	27,386.40

Division of Research:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 33,529.11	
Traveling Expense.....	1,218.42	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	722.85	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	1,069.90	
Telegrams.....	97.84	
General Expense.....	929.12	
Books and Pamphlets.....	506.56	38,073.80

Division of Classroom Service:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 6,410.11	
Traveling Expense.....	507.62	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	63.26	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	156.76	
Telegrams.....	7.35	
General Expense.....	10.00	7,155.10

Division of Administrative Service:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 6,276.79	
Traveling Expense.....	369.81	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	90.88	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	22.87	6,760.35

Carried Forward..... \$394,601.63 \$461,589.08

Total Income, Brought Forward..... \$461,589.08

Expenses: (Continued)

Brought Forward..... \$394,601.63

Division of Records and Membership:

Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 29,154.39	
Traveling Expense.....	562.85	
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	346.53	
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	536.69	
Telegrams.....	3.00	
General Expense.....	3.80	
Addressograph Section.....	781.17	31,388.43

Bad Debts Written Off..... 226.76

Total Expenses..... \$426,216.82

Surplus for the Year..... \$ 35,372.26

Schedule "1"

SECURITIES ON HAND

As at May 31, 1928.

	Par	Value Book	Income
Municipal and School Bonds:			
Clearwater, Kansas, Water Works 5% Bonds due:			
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
	<u>\$ 26,000.00</u>	<u>\$ 26,266.30</u>	<u>\$ 1,200.00</u>
Railroad Bonds:			
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 and 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
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, 4976, 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, Gen. 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 and 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>

TREASURER'S REPORT

FROM JUNE 1, 1927 to MAY 31, 1928

Balance Brought Forward from Treasurer's Report for Year ended
May 31, 1927..... \$ 74,562.48

Receipts:

May 31, 1927 May 31, 1928

For Account:

Department of Superintendence (Net).	\$ 2,989.95	\$ 14,486.77	
Department of Elementary School			
Principals (Net).....	1,063.86	1,295.81	
Department of Adult Education (Net).	438.71	467.44	
Department of Rural Education (Net).	157.68	470.67	
Department of Lip Reading (Net)...	42.81	2.49	
Department of Secondary School Prin-			
cipals (Net).....		404.00	
	<u>\$ 4,693.01</u>	<u>\$ 17,127.18</u>	<u>\$ 12,434.17</u>

From Secretary's Office during Year:

Membership Fees.....	\$164,676.00
Subscriptions to N. E. A. Journal.....	149,739.00
Subscriptions to Research Bulletin.....	4,403.00
Sale of Volumes of Proceedings.....	960.82
Sale of Special Reports.....	3,713.86
Sale of Research Bulletins.....	2,357.26
Special Investigations (Research).....	335.00
Sale of N. E. A. Journals.....	114.32
Sale of Dr. Harris' Book.....	64.73
Sale of Pageant Leaflets.....	36.73
Cash Sales of Reports and Pamphlets.....	892.32
	<u>\$327,293.04</u>

From Income on Permanent Fund.....	15,641.37	
From Commercial Exhibits (Net).....	26,810.53	
From Advertising—N.E.A. Journal (Net).....	85,721.47	
From Interest and Discounts Earned.....	396.58	
From Rentals Received.....	2,272.50	
From Honorariums (Field Work).....	3,108.27	
From Sundry Income—Exchange, etc.....	345.32	461,589.08
		<u>\$474,023.25</u>

Disbursements:

Board of Trustees—Expenses.....	\$ 419.83
Board of Directors—Expenses.....	7,829.08

Executive Committee:

President (Dr. Blair).....	\$ 814.55
(Miss Adair).....	1,706.24
President's Traveling and Clerical Expenses.....	1,517.97
First Vicepresident (Miss McSkimmon).....	284.76
(Dr. Blair).....	155.14
Treasurer (Dr. Smith).....	378.21
Chairman, Board of Trustees (Mr. Siders).....	565.81
Member by Election (Mr. Lamkin).....	233.91
(Mr. Reynolds).....	218.16
	<u>\$ 5,874.75</u>

Office of General Secretary:

General Expense (Salaries, Stationery, etc.).....	\$ 23,227.83
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General Expense—Headquarters:

General Expense.....	\$ 1,067.18	
Express, Freight and Parcel Post.....	1,633.58	
Telephone Service.....	2,171.99	
Repairs—Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	403.85	
Interest and Discounts Allowed.....	1,603.18	
Surety Bonds.....	218.00	
Insurance.....	93.45	
Auditing Accounts of Association.....	811.01	
Physical Plant—Rents, Light, Heat, Power and Janitor.....	21,204.94	29,207.18

Institutional Expense:

Annual Conventions:

Departmental Expenses.....	201.67
Registration Bureau.....	523.95
Stenographic Service.....	275.80
Publicity.....	214.95

Printing:

Programs.....	\$ 1,628.82	
Miscellaneous.....	1,443.84	3,072.66
Express and Freight.....	656.55	
Telephones and Telegrams.....	40.18	
Miscellaneous Expense (Speakers, etc.).....	164.38	
Representative Assembly Expense.....	525.37	
Badges.....	85.75	
	<u>\$ 5,761.26</u>	
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership.....	38,691.16	
N. E. A. Journal (Printing and Distribution).....	101,374.69	
Volume of Proceedings (1927).....	9,850.67	
Research Bulletin (Printing and Distribution)...	7,432.20	
Carried Forward.....	<u>\$163,109.98</u>	<u>\$ 66,558.67</u>

Disbursements: (Continued)

Brought Forward	\$ 66,558.67
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Institutional Expense: (Continued)

Brought Forward	\$163,109.98
Publications and Reports for General Sale	\$ 864.50
	<u>\$163,974.48</u>

Special Appropriations for the year 1927-28:

Committee on Health Education	\$ 273.16
Life Annuities and Insurance	3,627.24
Legislative Commission	4,619.44
National Council on Education	14.68
Committee on Tenure	253.01
Department of Classroom Teachers	6,797.77
Committee on Museums	61.65
Financing Delegates (1927 Convention)	17,178.83
Kindergarten Education	195.71
American Education Week	523.88
Department of Elementary School Principals	2,000.00
Department of Adult Education	500.00
Committee on Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions	629.82
Committee on Retirement Allowances	493.17
Committee on Behavior Problems Child	19.25
Committee on Professional Ethics	500.45
Committee on Visual Education	32.80
Committee on Homes for Retired Teachers	33.07
Committee on Foreign Relations	410.73
Membership—World Conference on Education	1,000.00
Membership—American Council on Education	100.00
	<u>39,264.66</u>

Division of Accounts:

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	\$ 7,822.72
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Division of Field (Legislative):

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	17,823.82
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Division of Business:

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	14,805.73
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Division of Publications:

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	27,386.40
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Division of Research:

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	38,073.80
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Division of Classroom Service:

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	7,155.10
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Division of Administrative Service:

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	6,760.35
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Division of Records and Membership:

(Salaries, Stationery, etc.)	31,388.43
Purchase of Office Stationery and Supplies	347.31
Purchase of Office Furniture and Fixtures	5,568.26
	<u>\$426,929.73</u>

Cash Summary

Balance as per Treasurer's Report, May 31, 1927..... \$ 74,562.48

Receipts for the year ended May 31, 1928:

Total as per page 1..... \$474,023.25

Deduct:

Increase in Accounts Receivable.....	\$ 3,505.42	
Bad Debts Written Off.....	226.76	
Increase in Time Checks.....	301.34	
Notes Receivable.....	146.80	\$ 4,180.32

Total Receipts.....		\$469,842.93
		<u>\$544,405.41</u>

Disbursements for year:

Total as per page 3.....	\$426,929.73
Transfer to Permanent Fund.....	9,117.29
	<u>\$436,047.02</u>

Deduct:

Unpaid Vouchers at May 31, 1928.....	7,554.90
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	<u>\$428,492.12</u>
Add Unpaid Vouchers at May 31, 1927.....	19,159.06

Total Disbursements.....	<u>\$447,651.18</u>
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Cash Balance as at May 31, 1928.....	<u>\$ 96,754.23</u>
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Certificate of Auditors

To the President of the National Education Association:

We have audited the accounts of the National Education Association, and of the Secretary, for the year ended May 31, 1928, and certify that the foregoing 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.

PEAT, MARWICK, MITCHELL & CO.

Washington, D. C., June 20, 1928.

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION FURNISHED BY THE TRUSTEES I. RATING OF SECURITIES RAILROADS

Amount	Issue	Rate	Maturity	Market Value June 9, 1928	Range 1928	Range 1927	Moody's Rating
\$15,000	Terminal R. R. Association of St. Louis.....	4s	1953	92 $\frac{3}{8}$	91—94	87 $\frac{1}{4}$ —95	Aaa
5,250	St. Louis San Francisco Railway, Series A.....	4s	1950	87 $\frac{3}{4}$	87 $\frac{3}{4}$ —93 $\frac{1}{2}$	84 $\frac{1}{2}$ —93 $\frac{3}{8}$	A
10,000	Chicago, Indiana & Southern Railroad.....	4s	1956	94 $\frac{3}{4}$	94 $\frac{1}{4}$ —96 $\frac{1}{2}$	92 $\frac{1}{8}$ —96 $\frac{5}{8}$	Aaa
10,000	Atlantic Coastline R. R.....	4s	1952	91 $\frac{1}{4}$	91 $\frac{1}{4}$ —95 $\frac{3}{4}$	93 $\frac{3}{4}$ —100	Aaa
1,750	St. Louis, San Francisco Ry. (call for payment at 100 on July 1, 1928).....						
4,000	Manhattan Railway Co.....	6s	1955	100	100—101 $\frac{3}{4}$	99—102	Baa
20,000	Baltimore & Ohio R. R.....	4s	1990	71 $\frac{3}{8}$	68 $\frac{1}{2}$ —77 $\frac{3}{8}$	67 $\frac{1}{4}$ —75	A
10,000	Oregon Shortline R. R.....	4s	1941	93 $\frac{1}{2}$	93 $\frac{1}{2}$ —97 $\frac{1}{2}$	92 $\frac{5}{8}$ —98 $\frac{1}{2}$	Aa
		4s	1929	99 $\frac{1}{8}$	98 $\frac{1}{2}$ —100	98 $\frac{1}{4}$ —100	Aaa
	GOVERNMENT						
10,000	Salt Lake City, Utah.....	4 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1934	101 $\frac{3}{4}$			Aaa
1,000	City of Clearwater, Fla.....	5s	1930	95			Baa
6,000	Sedgwick County, Kans.....	5 $\frac{1}{2}$ s	1930	100 $\frac{1}{2}$			Aaa
10,000	Seattle School District Washington.....	5s	1952	113			Aaa
	MISCELLANEOUS						
12,000	Maine Real Estate Title.....	5s	1932	99			

II. STATEMENT OF CURRENT INCOME AND EXPENSE BY YEARS—1916—1928				Balance
Year	Income	Expense	Deficit	
1915-16.....			\$5,371.88	
1916-17.....	\$68,992.52	\$70,177.30	4,187.10	
1917-18.....	46,025.16	47,109.50	3,102.76	
1918-19.....	67,727.43	66,838.62	3,991.57	
1919-20.....	110,865.79	121,251.48	6,394.12	
1920-21.....	133,247.88	128,591.29	1,737.53	
1921-22.....	228,832.98	203,801.58	23,293.87	
1922-23.....	263,334.71	288,931.93	2,303.35	
1923-24.....	312,791.41	308,071.36	2,416.70	
1924-25.....	342,045.86	325,906.73	18,555.83	
1925-26.....	381,408.66	341,089.02	58,875.47	
1926-27.....	412,306.87	396,619.86	74,562.48	
1927-28.....	469,842.93	447,651.18	96,754.23	

III. STATEMENT OF PERMANENT FUND—1916—1928

Year	Cash	Securities	Personal Notes Receivable	Purchase Price	Real Estate Mortgages	Cash Paid	Real Estate Improvements	Real Estate Rates	Accrued Interest	Total
1916-17		\$200,000.00								\$200,000.00
1917-18	\$1,542.71	198,406.29								199,949.00*
1918-19	1,708.41	202,000.00								203,708.41*
1919-20	1,208.41	133,665.59		\$ 98,000.00	\$33,000.00	\$65,000.00				199,874.00*
1920-21	420.51	132,005.29		98,000.00	33,000.00	65,000.00				197,425.80*
1921-22	520.51	132,005.29		98,000.00	31,500.00	66,500.00				199,025.80*
1922-23	4,162.51	110,428.80		153,000.00	67,500.00	85,500.00				200,091.31†
1923-24	6,998.38	110,428.80	\$1,550.00	153,000.00	83,000.00	70,000.00	\$16,089.13			205,066.31†
1924-25	7,696.38	110,428.80	1,475.00	153,000.00	83,000.00	70,000.00	17,566.13			207,166.31†
1925-26	3,171.38	100,928.80	6,945.00	153,000.00	66,000.00	87,000.00	17,566.13	\$14,000.00		229,611.31†
1926-27	157.38	100,928.80	56,279.50	153,000.00	66,000.00	87,000.00	17,566.13	33,000.00		294,931.81†
1927-28	246.42	100,928.80	94,961.00	153,000.00	66,000.00	87,000.00	17,566.13	67,000.00	\$126.25	367,828.60†

IV. ASSESSED VALUATION N.E.A. REAL ESTATE

As Carried on the Books of the Assessor of the District of Columbia

	Purchase Price	Land Value	Improvements	Total
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W.	\$ 98,000.00	\$ 68,740.00	\$72,000.00	\$140,740.00
1541-43 M. Street.		24,550.00	6,900.00	31,450.00
1537-39 M. Street.	55,000.00	24,472.00	1,700.00	26,642.00
	\$153,000.00	\$117,762.00	\$80,600.00	\$198,832.00

* Accountant states that fluctuation is due to changes in value of securities.

† Carried at Book Value.

*REPORT OF THE BUDGET COMMITTEE **

Budget for June 1, 1928 to May 31, 1929

The Limit of Appropriations

The Board of Directors on July 2, 1928 decided to continue the practice of the past few years of keeping the appropriation for the current year within the income of the last fiscal year. This amount is \$461,589.08. (See Auditors' Report for 1928.)

The Contingent Fund

For emergencies that may arise the Board of Directors set aside the sum of \$20,000.00 to be expended only upon vote of the Executive Committee. The \$20,000.00 is taken from the Cash Balance at the end of the fiscal year which amounted to \$96,754.23.

Transfer to Permanent Fund

The Directors ordered the remainder of the Cash Balance transferred to the Permanent Fund, said transfer to take place in the fall of 1928 thereby leaving this amount of \$76,754.23 in the General Fund during the time when membership receipts are insufficient to cover current expenses.

* Adopted by the Representative Assembly, Friday, July 6, 1928, Minneapolis, Minn., and the totals for each item appropriated in same date by the Board of Directors.

CONDENSED SCHEDULE OF EXPENSES

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29	Percent of Total
I. General Control:			
Delegates.....	\$17,178.83	\$10,000.00	2.166
Directors.....	7,829.08	10,000.00	2.166
Executive Committee.....	4,356.78	4,300.00	.930
Contingent fund for President.....	1,517.97	1,500.00	.328
Trustees.....	419.83	420.00	.099
Total.....	31,302.49	26,220.00	5.689
Secretary's office.....	23,227.83	27,340.00	5.923
Division Accounts.....	7,822.72	8,154.00	1.766
Business Division (25%).....	3,701.43	4,112.50	.890
Retirement Annuities and Insurance.....	3,627.24	8,502.44	1.841
Total.....	38,379.22	48,108.94	10.420
Total General Control.....	69,681.71	74,328.94	16.109
II. Operation and Maintenance:			
Physical Plant.....	\$21,204.94	\$21,203.00	4.593
General Office Expense.....	8,002.24	7,936.00	1.819
Furniture and Fixtures.....	4,975.90	5,000.00	1.084
Business Division (25%).....	3,701.43	4,112.50	.890
Total.....	\$37,884.51	\$38,251.50	8.386
III. Promotion and Maintenance of Membership.....	\$38,691.16	\$38,000.00	8.232
IV. Division Records and Membership.....	\$31,388.43	\$34,492.00	7.366
V. Association Activities:			
Field Division (Legislative).....	\$17,823.82	\$18,759.00	4.064
Business Division (50%).....	7,402.87	8,225.00	1.781
Publications Division.....	27,386.40	32,706.00	7.085
Research Division.....	38,073.80	48,826.00	10.578
Classroom Service.....	7,155.10	7,352.00	1.592
Administrative Service.....	6,760.35	8,061.00	1.746
Journal N. E. A.....	101,374.69	101,374.00	21.960
Research Bulletin.....	7,432.20	8,000.00	1.733
Volume Proceedings.....	9,850.67	9,850.00	2.134
Publications and Reports for Sale..	864.50	500.00	.108
Annual Convention.....	5,761.26	5,445.00	1.179
Special Appropriations.....	17,358.59	25,400.00	5.589
Total.....	247,244.25	274,498.00	59.549
VI. Membership in:			
World Federation.....	\$1,000.00	\$1,000.00	.216
American Council Education.....	100.00	100.00	.021
	\$ 1,100.00	\$1,100.00	.237
VII. Depreciation:			
Bad Debts written off.....	\$ 226.76		
GRAND TOTAL.....	\$426,216.82	\$460,670.44	99.879
VIII. Contingent Fund:.....		20,000.00	
		\$480,670.44	

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Financing Delegates.....	\$17,178.83	\$10,000.00
Totals.....	\$17,178.83	\$10,000.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Board of Directors:		
Annual Meeting.....	\$ 7,492.77	
State Expenses.....	336.31	
Totals.....	\$ 7,829.08	\$10,000.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Executive Committee:		
President (1926-27).....	\$ 814.55	
President (1927-28).....	1,706.24	
First Vicepresident (1926-27).....	284.76	
First Vicepresident (1927-28).....	155.14	
Treasurer (1927-28).....	378.21	
Chairman Board of Trustees (1927-28).....	565.81	
Member by Election (1926-27).....	233.91	
Member by Election (1927-28).....	218.16	
Totals.....	\$ 4,356.78	\$ 4,300.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Contingent Fund for President.....	\$ 1,517.97	\$ 1,500.00 (a)
Totals.....	\$ 1,517.97	\$ 1,500.00

(a) For secretarial service, special travel and contingencies.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Board of Trustees.....	\$ 419.83	\$ 420.00 (a)
Totals.....	\$ 419.83	\$ 420.00

(a) The expenses of the Chairman of the Board of Trustees and the President of the Association are charged to the account of the Executive Committee.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
General Secretary's Office:		
Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$20,222.76	\$24,020.00 (a)
Traveling Expenses.....	1,282.43	1,500.00
Stationery & Office Supplies.....	308.03	350.00
Stationery & Stamped Envelopes.....	1,192.52	1,200.00
Telegrams.....	208.84	220.00
General Expense.....	13.25	50.00
Totals.....	\$23,227.83	\$27,340.00

(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—J. W. Crabtree and six assistants and temporary help.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Division of Accounts:		
Salaries & Clerical Services.....	\$ 7,131.93	\$ 7,424.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	422.23	300.00
Stationery & Office Supplies.....	134.15	250.00
Postage & Stamped Envelopes.....	129.56	175.00
Telegrams.....	4.85	5.00
Totals.....	\$ 7,822.72	\$ 8,154.00

(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—Helen T. Hixson and two assistants.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Division of Business:		
Salaries & Clerical Services.....	\$12,045.60	\$13,672.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	1,318.14	1,200.00
Stationery & Office Supplies.....	292.21	200.00
Postage & Stamped Envelopes.....	320.57	320.00
Telegrams.....	49.01	50.00
Typing Section.....	19.05	20.00 (b)
Mailing Section.....	747.29	643.00 (b)
Multigraph Section.....	13.86	20.00 (b)
Advertising Service.....		325.00 (c)
Totals.....	\$14,805.73	\$16,450.00

(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—H. A. Allan, thirteen assistants and from twelve to forty temporary workers; parts of salaries and wages charged to other activities as services are given.

(b) Operating costs are distributed and charged to activities for which work is done; amounts above are required for items remaining undistributed at end of year.

(c) To provide for expenses incidental to handling Journal advertising previously paid for directly out of advertising income. A separate appropriation item is recommended by the Auditor.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Retirement Annuities and Insurance:		
Payable June 1.....		\$ 4,169.97 (b)
Payable December 1.....	\$ 3,627.24 (a)	4,332.47 (b)
Totals.....	\$ 3,627.24	\$ 8,502.44

(a) For period December 1, 1927 to May 31, 1928.

(b) For premiums for retirement annuity, disability and group life insurance policies. This amount is matched by deductions from salaries of employees paid for the same purpose. Premiums from this appropriation are payable June 1, and December 1, 1928.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Physical Plant:		
Rent.....	\$15,000.00	\$15,000.00
Lights & Power.....	1,017.65	1,017.00
Heat.....	987.10	987.00
Janitor Service.....	2,174.48	2,174.00
Maintenance.....	2,025.71	2,025.00
Totals.....	\$21,204.94	\$21,203.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
General Office Expenses:		
Telephone Service.....	\$ 2,171.99	\$ 2,200.00
Repairs—Office Furniture & Equipment.....	403.85	400.00
Insurance.....	93.45	154.00
General Expense.....	763.68	760.00
Subscriptions to Journals.....	6.00	6.00
Purchase of Books (General Use).....	18.00	18.00
Refunds of Membership.....	231.29	230.00
Purchase of Back Volumes.....	48.21	48.00
Express & Freight.....	1,040.34	900.00
Interest & Discount Allowed.....	1,603.18	1,600.00
Surety Bonds.....	218.00	218.00
Auditing Accounts of Association.....	811.01	812.00
Mailing—Reports & Pamphlets.....	593.24	590.00
Totals.....	\$ 8,002.24	\$ 7,936.00
	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Office Furniture and Fixtures.....	\$ 5,568.26	\$ 5,000.00 (a)
Depreciation Reserve.....	(—592.36)	
Totals.....	\$ 4,975.90	\$ 5,000.00
(a) Office furniture and fixtures purchased under this head become a part of fixed assets of the Association.		
	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Promotion and Maintenance of Membership.....	\$38,691.16	\$38,000.00
Totals.....	\$38,691.16	\$38,000.00
	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Division of Records and Membership:		
Salaries & Clerical Services.....	\$29,154.39	\$31,492.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	562.85	750.00
Stationery & Office Supplies.....	346.53	350.00
Postage & Stamped Envelopes.....	536.69	300.00
Telegrams.....	3.00	50.00
General Expense.....	3.80	50.00
Stock Supplies & Machine Upkeep.....	781.17	1,500.00
(Addressograph Section)		
Totals.....	\$31,388.43	\$34,492.00
(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—T. D. Martin, fourteen assistants and temporary help.		
	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Field Division (Legislative):		
Salaries & Clerical Services.....	\$14,129.87	\$14,959.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	2,550.16	2,500.00
Stationery & Office Supplies.....	198.08	250.00
Postage & Stamped Envelopes.....	714.54	800.00
Telegrams.....	138.41	150.00
General Expense.....	92.76	100.00
Totals.....	\$17,823.82	\$18,759.00
(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—Charl O. Williams and three assistants and extra clerical help.		

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Division of Publications:		
Salaries & Clerical Services.....	\$22,589.99	\$28,246.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	2,760.13	2,300.00 (b)
Stationery & Office Supplies.....	408.09	400.00
Postage & Stamped Envelopes.....	605.46	600.00
Telegrams.....	64.51	60.00
General Expense.....	375.13	400.00
Reprints.....	188.25	200.00
Photographs, Prints, Mats & Electros.....	394.84	500.00
Service to State Association Journals.....		
Totals.....	\$27,386.40	\$32,706.00

(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—Joy E. Morgan, eleven assistants and extra clerical help.

(b) This item covers travel in connection with the Association's convention for all members of the division staff who work on publicity and publications. Honorariums will offset much of this expense. Honorariums received by members of the division during 1927-28 and turned into the Association's general fund amount to \$1,732.20.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Division of Research:		
Salaries & Clerical Services.....	\$33,529.11	\$38,976.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	1,218.42	1,200.00
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	722.85	750.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	1,069.90	1,100.00
Telegrams.....	97.84	100.00
General Expense.....	929.12	1,200.00
Books and Pamphlets (Library).....	506.56	1,000.00
Coordination of Research.....		4,500.00 (b)
Totals.....	\$38,073.80	\$48,826.00

(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—John K. Norton, fourteen assistants and extra clerical help.

(b) This item is for the appropriation to cover the cost of initiating the work in the direction of coordinating and synthesizing the results of education research. At Boston the Association's Executive Committee approved the initiation of this work during the year 1928-29.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Division of Classroom Service:		
Salaries and Clerical Services.....	\$ 6,410.11	\$ 6,812.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	507.62	300.00
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	63.26	60.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	156.76	150.00
Telegrams.....	7.35	10.00
General Expense.....	10.00	20.00
Totals.....	\$ 7,155.10	\$ 7,352.00

(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—Agnes Winn, one assistant and extra clerical help.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Division of Administrative Service:		
Salaries and Clerical Service.....	\$ 6,276.79	\$ 7,736.00 (a)
Traveling Expense.....	369.81	200.00
Stationery and Office Supplies.....	90.88	100.00
Postage and Stamped Envelopes.....	22.87	25.00
Totals.....	\$ 6,760.35	\$ 8,061.00

(a) Salaries as per schedule 1928-29—S. D. Shankland, five assistants and extra clerical help; part of salaries paid by Department of Superintendence and Department of Elementary School Principals.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Journal of the National Education Ass'n.:		
Printing and Distribution.....	\$101,374.69	\$101,374.00
Totals.....	\$101,374.69	\$101,374.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Research Bulletin:		
Printing and Distribution.....	\$ 7,432.20	\$ 8,000.00
Totals.....	\$ 7,432.20	\$ 8,000.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Volume of Proceedings.....	\$ 9,850.57	\$ 9,850.00
Totals.....	\$ 9,850.57	\$ 9,850.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Publications and Reports for General Sale.....	\$ 864.50	\$ 500.00 (a)
Totals.....	\$ 864.50	\$ 500.00

(a) Out of this appropriation are printed or reprinted books or pamphlets having ready sale. This is an income producing account.

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Annual Convention:		
Department Expenses.....	\$ 201.67	\$ 200.00
Registration.....	523.95	525.00
Stenographers and Typing.....	275.80	200.00
Publicity.....	214.95	200.00
Printing Programs.....	1,628.82	1,600.00
Printing—Miscellaneous.....	1,443.84	1,400.00
Express and Freight.....	656.55	500.00
Telephone and Telegrams.....	40.18	40.00
General Expense.....	164.38	170.00
Badges.....	85.75	85.00
Representative Assembly Expense.....	525.37	525.00
Totals.....	\$ 5,761.26	\$ 5,445.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Special Committee Appropriations:		
Foreign Relations (Publicity).....	\$ 410.73	\$ 1,000.00
Health Education.....	273.16	400.00
Legislative Commission.....	4,619.44	5,000.00
Tenure.....	253.01	500.00
Department of Classroom Teachers.....	6,797.77	8,500.00
American Education Week.....	523.88	250.00
Dept. of Elementary School Principals.....	2,000.00	1,500.00
One Hundred on Retirement Allowances.....	493.17	500.00
Behavior Problem—Child.....	19.25	100.00
Professional Ethics.....	500.45	400.00
Visual Education Department.....	32.80	150.00
Home for Retired Teachers.....	33.07	300.00
Department of Adult Education.....	500.00	500.00
School Museums Relations.....	61.65	
Kindergarten Education.....	195.71	
Delegate Representation and Kindred Questions.....	629.82	4,000.00
National Council of Education.....	14.68	500.00
Economic Status of the Teacher.....		1,800.00
Totals.....	\$17,358.59	\$25,400.00

	Expended 1927-28	Budget 1928-29
Association Membership Fees:		
World Federation of Education Associations.....	\$ 1,000.00	\$ 1,000.00 (a)
American Council on Education.....	100.00	100.00 (a)
Totals.....	\$ 1,100.00	\$ 1,100.00

(a) Membership fees as fixed by organizations of which the N. E. A. is a member.

Respectfully submitted,
Budget Committee.

THE BUDGET COMMITTEE

Walter R. Siders, Chairman, State House, Augusta, Maine.

John W. Abercrombie, Assistant State Superintendent of Education, Montgomery, Alabama.

Mrs. Bertha S. Armbruster, Principal, 111 Gale Avenue, River Forest, Illinois.

E. M. Carter, Secretary, Missouri State Teachers Association, Columbia, Missouri.

Clara Jahnke, 1930 8th Avenue, Spokane, Washington.

Sue M. Powers, Superintendent, Shelby County Schools, Court House, Memphis, Tennessee.

Frank E. Reynolds, Secretary, Ohio State Teachers Association, 428 Chamber of Commerce, Columbus, Ohio.

Henry Lester Smith, Dean, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana.

Caroline S. Woodruff, Principal, State Normal Training School, Castleton, Vermont.

SECRETARY'S REPORT

J. W. CRABTREE, SECRETARY, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C.

THIS report presents the work of the Association for the year. It calls attention to the constructive tendencies in education and to the improved relationship with colleges. It discusses the power propaganda, sanctified squander, and the blacklist. It gives items of interest at the central office and in the field. It makes suggestions and recommendations for the consideration of the officers of the Association.

CONSTRUCTIVE TENDENCIES

A few years ago the Association adopted the ideal, "A stabilized all inclusive membership and the entire profession at work on its problems." Many thought it a beautiful sentiment but not an ideal to be realized.

THE IDEAL TO BE REALIZED Each year, however, members are impressed with the gain made during the preceding year. Teachers in all types of work are members—teachers in the kindergarten in the elementary grades, in the junior and senior high school, in the college and university. The gain in professional spirit and in the study of the problems of the profession are among the outstanding achievements of the year.

Many school systems now have a continuous plan for the study of the curriculum. In some systems of schools there is a director for curriculum study. The building of the course of a study is no longer done by the

AT WORK ON THE CURRICULUM

clipping process. The study is on a truly scientific basis in a few cities, and in most cities careful intelligent thought enters into the discussions and decisions. The yearbooks issued by the Department of Superintendence lead the way. These are on a scientific basis and contain the best practices and the best thought in the profession. The large number of orders received for these yearbooks is a fair indication of the trend of thinking along these lines.

The cooperative plan of studying questions in the preparation of committee reports aids materially in getting the profession at work on its problems. The definite effort to interest principals in holding meetings of the teachers in their buildings, printing for them in pamphlet form suggested

PROFESSION AT WORK ON ITS PROBLEMS

programs for the work, and urging organization and study in the *Journal* and in the *Research Bulletin*, have had a tremendous influence in establishing the practice of studying professional problems. Henry van Dyke says: "*Knowledge may be gained from books; but the love of knowledge is transmitted only by personal contact.*" In like manner professional knowledge may be found in libraries, but professional ideals come only from the exchange of views and from the inspiration of personal contacts such as these meetings and educational conventions afford.

The Association has advanced the interests of the profession much more rapidly by getting into the current of the best educational tendencies, by

contributing what it could to these tendencies and to others growing out of them. Has not the gain been much more pronounced than would have been possible by spending its energies in trying to start new trends and theories? In 1917 there was plainly a movement for giving the classroom teacher a larger share in working out educational programs and policies. Believing it to be a tendency in the right direction, the Association took it up as a part of its program. The momentum of the movement has increased rapidly from year to year. It has developed greater professional spirit among teachers. It has increased the membership of the Association. It has resulted in the movements to improve the curriculum and to secure a better balanced articulation between subjects, courses, and institutions, as well as to lead to other constructive tendencies.

**PROMOTING
THE BEST
TENDENCIES**

If it is true that the unparalleled growth and success of the Association is largely due to its taking hold of and promoting the best trends of the day, it becomes important to know which are the most fundamental trends and to follow them from year to year as in the case of the one just mentioned. In order to get a list of worthwhile tendencies we wrote to a number of the leading educators of the nation asking each to mention two or three to which

**FINDING THE
BEST TRENDS**

the Association could give attention. The replies brought in a long list, the same ones being mentioned time after time in different phraseology. Those in the following paragraphs are the one that were most frequently mentioned in these letters. There is no attempt to list them in the order of importance. The wording is as a rule that given in the letters.

There is a distinct movement toward unity on the part of those engaged in education. Even the ranks of higher education are feeling the impress of it now. This movement is an outgrowth of an awakened professional consciousness and a realization that the teaching of youth and the cause of education have a fundamental place in the success and social progress of the republic. That consciousness is pervading the ranks of those who teach the youngest children and those who do the expert work in the laboratories of great research institutions. There is already a marked increase of confidence on the part of the lay public and a willingness to take the advice of those in professional ranks as to educational policies. The teacher, the superintendent, and the professor are becoming the nation's expert advisers on school problems in their relation to national prosperity and individual happiness.

**A UNIFIED
TEACHING
PROFESSION**

There is a marked tendency to recognize education as a governmental issue separate and apart from the usual functions of government. This tendency recognizes that education has a fundamental relationship to the welfare of society and to the state. It is not simply passive and protective. It is not a mere incident to the forward movement of society. It is more than all that. It places education as the foundation of human progress.

It tends to establish in the several states educational machinery, which is responsible to the people through the chief state school official and which in each state and community separates school issues from all others of state and municipal control. If the tendency in this direction develops as it bids fair to do, it will ultimately bring about in this country a popular habit of mind which will enable citizens and voters to solve school problems in the terms of school issues, separate from the other issues of politics and government. No more wholesome tendency is evident than this one.

SCHOOL CONTROL AND SCHOOL ISSUES SEPARATE FROM MUNICIPAL CONTROL

The fuller meaning of the state's function in the preparation of teachers for the public schools is recognized as never before. Associated with this are better salaries and longer tenure. The possibility of still better preparation is thus made possible. Are we expecting too much to look forward to the day when four years of preparation beyond the senior high school will be the minimum for teaching in the elementary schools? Tulsa, Oklahoma, and a few other cities require four years' training as a minimum.

THE STATE'S FUNCTION IN PREPARING TEACHERS

Another movement is in the eagerness to find an equalization principle in state plans for subsidizing public education—with a square deal for all communities. Perhaps the provision in the earlier Education Bill of a \$50,000,000 fund for equalizing educational opportunities had much to do with bringing this topic forward for discussion. The work of the Finance Inquiry gave the fact basis. Certain techniques have recently been developed and there is now going on a revision of state subsidy plans in New York, Florida, Kansas, Nebraska, Connecticut, Wisconsin, Pennsylvania, and possibly many other states. The economic ability of the weaker districts must be brought up to par in order that the children may not suffer from inferior teachers or inferior school opportunities of any kind. A square deal will bring this about and people are trying to find it.

EQUALIZATION PRINCIPLE

Great gain has been made in the extension of local public educational programs to adult education and in the utilization of the public school plant for evening work to meet the needs of all citizens. The part-time school, libraries, lyceums, clubs, chautauquas, the radio, the motion picture are some of the many out-of-school agencies contributing to the intellectual growth of the individual. There is a very decided tendency to develop the first two years of college work in the immediate environment of students. Some interesting experiments are now being made in the field of the junior college. This tendency is moving rapidly. It needs to be wisely directed or it might do harm as well as good.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND ADULT EDUCATION

There is an increasing tendency to regard all school education as a continuous whole, and thus to lessen emphasis on the former arbitrary breaks between the parts of the educational system. This is particularly noticeable in the college. Colleges are taking a very different attitude toward secondary and even elementary education than they did a few years ago. This is true whether the institutions be state or private. Regional associations such as the North Central, Middle States and Maryland, Southern, New England, et cetera, are experiencing a great change in the spirit which animates and dominates them. Higher institutions must serve the ends of society. Therefore, they are coming into closer relationship with state-supporting education. The whole nation is ready to profit from the report being prepared by the Committee on Articulation.

**BETTER
ARTICULATION
CLOSER
RELATIONSHIPS**

Provision has been made in many colleges for freshmen orientation or guidance. Provision has also been made in a number of secondary schools for helping high school freshmen to find themselves. This service naturally extends itself to other high school and college students. It was organized first to meet an emergency need for freshman and then extended in places to meet an urgent need in other classes. Guidance and help become more and more necessary as larger and larger numbers attend the high school and college. Is not the time ripe for a study of this tendency and to have the practises and findings of those working on the problem published for general distribution?

**FRESHMEN
ORIENTATION
AND GUIDANCE**

One outstanding leader of educational progress cites these desirable trends. "A move towards the county unit in administration, abolition of elected county and state superintendents, improved systems of taxation, part-time education, vocational education for all, child welfare, preschool, and junior college." Another one gives this list:

"Vitalizing courses of study, improved efficiency in teaching and in administration, increased attention

**LISTS OF
TRENDS**

to character education, a deeper appreciation of our own profession and the observance of its standards and ideals, and an all-inclusive association and understanding." Still another says: "Improvement in teaching personality and in extending character education, organizing and supervising extracurriculum activities, but nothing else means more than the movement for retirement allowances and for fairer tenure regulations."

The following movements have either been set in motion by the Association or at least stimulated by it:

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.

THINGS UNDER WAY

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 practises.
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 COLLEGE AND THE ASSOCIATION

The statement "Colleges are not interested in the National Education Association" has been made many times during recent years. In arranging to carry out the instructions of the Board of Directors and of the Representative Assembly to use the Association's influence for better salaries for college instructors and professors the thought of a new relationship between the Association and colleges was developed. The plan of working

THE NEW RELATIONSHIP WITH COLLEGES

through a committee chairman for each college was worked out and submitted to college presidents. It was accepted by 635 institutions representing practically all leading colleges and universities in the United States. The plan provides for a committee chairman in each college who receives information concerning the work of the Association and who passes on to the president and faculty only such questions as he considers advisable. He appoints members of his committee as necessary.

The correspondence back and forth has been heavy. Each general letter brought replies from hundreds of committee members. Many have asked for special information on other professional problems. The following statement by a committee chairman is typical of letters which have been received during the last month:

"We have taken a very different interest in the N. E. A. at this University since you began your efforts to enlist the college people in the Association. We

had come to think of the organization as belonging to the public schools and only those interested more directly in the preparation of teachers. We are convinced now that your organization may be of great benefit to all colleges and that possibly we can be of some help to the N. E. A. We have had discussion of the various items taken up in your letters and have planned to have interested groups go more into detail at another meeting and during next year. Of course we are interested in your efforts to have salaries placed upon a proper basis. This question is quite a serious one in colleges of this type. Also the maximum load for the instructor is an important item where the funds for the budget are inadequate. We are interested in all that you have to offer and will continue to look forward to your communications.

NEW INTEREST IN THE ASSOCIATION

The publicity given to the low salaries paid to instructors and professors, and particularly to those in charge of freshman and sophomore classes, has led colleges and universities to plan to increase salaries. Many have actually taken steps for giving increases. A few have already adopted new schedules providing more adequate salaries. The charge that the staggering freshman mortality of recent years was largely due to inferior teaching in Freshman year is causing colleges to give careful consideration to the whole question of teacher preparation, personality, tact, and to salary. The committee chairman who knows the viewpoint of the profession and who appreciates the conditions and handicaps that must be overcome in the college proves to be the one to call the attention of college authorities to the question.

BETTER SALARIES FOR INSTRUCTORS

This is one of the most important movements of the year. It could not have been accomplished had it not been preceded by the outstanding work of the research division. The gain has already been so great that no one can longer make the statement that colleges are not participating in the study of professional problems. The ease and alacrity with which the interest and cooperation of the college has been secured is cause for congratulation when one realizes the full meaning of having such highly trained specialists at work on the problems of the profession. It is hoped that the Board of Directors will approve of the plan and authorize that it be continued.

CONTINUATION OF PLAN

LIFE MEMBERSHIP

Eight hundred life members in a year is a good record. It means an addition to the permanent fund of \$80,000 in cash and notes. The permanent fund has been almost doubled by funds from this source in three years. We have every reason to expect that there will be more than 800 new members next year and still more than that the year following. This gives assurance of funds for the new building at headquarters. There is great need for additional space. It is necessary even now to begin renting outside quarters for

LIFE MEMBERSHIP AND THE NEW BUILDING

certain activities. Is it not perfectly safe to arrange for this new building within the next two years? Ground adjacent to the present building has already been purchased.

The ten payment plan has extended the opportunity of life membership to teachers and principals. Out of more than a thousand notes signed by those taking advantage of this method of paying, only one during the year has asked to have his note cancelled. Only fifteen have asked for further

RESULTS OF THE TEN PAYMENT PLAN

time in which to make the payment. Payments have been discontinued in two instances because of death. What business man can do as well in collecting notes? These memberships are coming in as a result of the growth in professional interest. Many who accept the life membership invitation have great difficulty in making ends meet. They make a financial sacrifice in accepting and in paying their notes each year. The joy, satisfaction, and prestige that comes according to their reports more than compensates them for the outlay and for the sacrifices made.

The classes of 1903 and 1928 of the high school at Tiffin, Ohio, are presenting Miss Mary Hartman with life membership in the National Education Association as she retires from her work in the high school.

BUILDERS OF THE PROFESSION HONOR THEM

Are there not other places where the alumni of the first and last graduating classes would take pride in extending to the one who has served long and faithfully this highest honor in the profession? It is suggested that every officer of the Association, every committee, and every delegate of the Representative Assembly keep this in mind and take the initiative in starting the movement to honor these teachers who have served so well. The presentation can be made by classes or teachers or citizens. Do not let these best builders of the profession be forgotten. Read "The Woman Who Was Forgotten" in the February, 1927, *Journal*. It will serve as an inspiration.

Here is a suggestion that if adopted would mean a new headquarters building within two years. Let each delegate of the Representative Assembly at the Minneapolis meeting and each life member in the Association find one new life member for 1928-29. Then let each new member be requested to find another member before the end of the year. This would

PLANS FOR LIFE MEMBERSHIP CAMPAIGN

form the nucleus of a membership chain that would add link after link each year until it reached into every town and community in the nation. This membership chain has started in a few cities as New Brunswick, N. J., Superior, Wis., Lincoln, Nebr., Canyon, Texas, and Cincinnati, Ohio. It guarantees wise selections. Many of the 800 new members for the year 1927-28 came from the sources just mentioned. The plan will work even more effectively next year.

The desire has been expressed over and over again to have life member-

ship in the Association mean life membership in the Departments also. That is, for each Department to accept as life members its own members who hold life membership in the Association. The added expense to any department would be negligible at first. Why not encourage Departments to adopt that plan? If it should become expensive the executive committee could arrange to share the additional expense. Such an arrangement would be highly appreciated by life members.

**LIFE
MEMBERSHIP
AND THE
DEPARTMENTS**

There is a widespread desire to have a life membership key in addition to or in place of the life membership pin. When the pin was selected a few years ago it was preferred to a key. During the last year or two there has come the desire for the key. There have been many letters asking about it, particularly since the special key was made for Mrs. Lindbergh. A group of life members who discussed the question at the Boston meeting decided to recommend that a key be adopted which could be ordered by life members. It was thought it should be made in about three sizes and kept in stock by a jeweller with prices guaranteed and that the order should be made through the central office. Similar advice has come from other members. It is therefore recommended that the board of directors authorize the executive committee to work out a plan by which a life member may purchase a life membership key.

**LIFE
MEMBERSHIP
KEY**

THE DAUGHTERS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION

In February and March pamphlets were distributed in many local chapters of the Daughters of the American Revolution, listing a number of welfare associations as being sympathetic with communistic ideals. The National Education Association was listed with the others. Some of these pamphlets which were not prepared by the D. A. R. but by other agencies contained what is known as "the black list"—a list of names of men of questionable loyalty. In this list was the name of David Starr Jordan, an ex-president of the National Education Association.

**THE BLACK
LIST**

As a rule it is not wise to pay attention to charges of this kind. But the fact that these pamphlets were distributed through chapters of the D. A. R. gave the impression that they represented the views of that great patriotic organization. This led us to write the president general calling her attention to the pamphlets and giving her a chance to stop their further distribution.

**LETTER TO
MRS. BROSSAU**

In laying the matter before Mrs. Brosseau we took occasion to say: "Do you know of any other class of people whose work during the World War was more nearly up to the effectiveness of that of the D. A. R. itself than was the work of teachers in aiding the Red Cross to collect funds,

in promoting the sale of liberty bonds, and making effective Mr. Hoover's plan for the conservation of food? You doubtless saw at the time Mr. Hoover's letter of appreciation to teachers. Has it not occurred to you that the wonderful loyalty of the people of our nation in that great emergency was largely the fruits of the training in citizenship and loyalty in the schools? In view of what the teachers of America have done and in view of what they are doing today, we could not afford to permit false statements to go out to your people unchallenged."

The reply stated that "I have always held the National Education Association in high esteem." While the reply did not express disapproval of what had been distributed, we have not heard of any further distribution of literature reflecting on the loyalty of our Association. The inference is that the D. A. R. was not fully aware of all that was going on. The

TEACHERS WERE LOYAL

DAUGHTERS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION NOT FULLY AWARE

fact that this propaganda was distributed through chapters put the D. A. R. on the defensive and in an unpleasant position. The newspapers of the country have severely criticised the organization for distributing these pamphlets. The incident closes with a continuance of the spirit of cooperation and goodwill which has characterized the relationship between our organizations for many years. These other agencies seem to have made about the same use of the Daughters of the American Revolution in releasing their propaganda that the Utility Bureaus have made of the schools.

UTILITY AGENCIES INVADE THE SCHOOLS

The Federal Trade Commission has made an extensive investigation into the activity of the Public Utility Service Bureaus and their attempt to influence state and national legislation on the question of ownership of public utilities. Early in the hearings testimony was given by utility agents showing that much attention had been given to what was being taught in the schools, to the elimination of undesirable texts, and to securing the adoption of satisfactory books. These agents testified that much information had been prepared and furnished free to the schools and that educators had been paid for editing books, for writing articles, and for delivering addresses promoting the interests of Utility Corporations.

PUBLIC UTILITY AGENCIES AND THE SCHOOLS

The purpose it was stated was to provide useful upto date information and to prepare the next generation of voters to appreciate and stand for private ownership of utilities. This aspect of the case, this attempt to bring into the schools semipolitical matter has stirred the nation to an appreciation of the importance of maintaining the integrity of our educational institutions which exist to serve all the people regardless of party, creed, or economic status. *Nothing else arouses the indignation of*

all the people so much as an attempt to use the schools for commercial and political purposes. The commission, in going into the school phase of the question, has confined the inquiry largely to the policies of the utility agencies and the extent to which propaganda has been distributed. It is not concerning itself with what was actually accomplished so much as with what was attempted.

Letters have been written to many superintendents asking for information to place before the executive committee and board of directors. The replies show that superintendents have not, as a rule, been aware of the organized effort to use the schools for semipolitical purposes. Those who have replied think that little in that direction has been accomplished. They feel that the common sense of teachers would usually prevent their using advertising material or propaganda to carry out any questionable purpose. They have been annoyed by propaganda from other sources fully as much as from this source. They generally feel, however, that the association should give attention to the whole propaganda question, not to condemn what has been done so much as to aid in making it still more difficult to use the schools to promote commercial, political, or factional ends.

**EDUCATORS
IGNORANT OF
POWER
MOTIVES**

The following from C. G. Schulz, secretary of the Minnesota Education Association, is typical of the letters from the secretaries of state Associations: "Much publicity has been made of the facts brought out by hearings before the Federal Trade Commission bearing upon what public utility companies have attempted to do through the public schools and other educational institutions. The whole thing, as shown by the facts presented, is dead wrong. I think that the teachers, as represented by the N. E. A. should make a firm and emphatic protest and repudiate any use of educational processes for that purpose. I am in full accord with the suggestion to take this before the board of directors."

**STATE
SECRETARIES A
TYPICAL VIEW**

Many state, city, and county superintendents are now investigating the situation. A few have completed their surveys and have reported. The importance of the question suggests giving in full Superintendent Threlkeld's (Denver) careful analysis of the issues involved:

**SUPERIN-
TENDENT
THRELKELD'S
ANALYSIS**

"My first thought is, however, that we should not be fragmentary in our attack upon this problem. Propaganda by the public utilities is only one phase of the propaganda problem as it faces the schools. It might be taken as a point of departure dealing with the entire problem. My point is that every teacher, every supervisor, every administrator in the public schools should clearly think out the distinction between propaganda and education, *and no propaganda of any kind should be allowed in the schools.* This has far-reaching applications.

**PROTECT THE
SCHOOLS FROM
PROPAGANDA**

"Some one said that any one who teaches a theory is a propagandist. Taking the meaning that I have for this statement, I agree with it. *It is our job to study theories, not to teach them, if by teaching we mean fixing them in the minds of pupils as definite and final answers to questions.*

WHAT IS A PROPAGANDIST? Looking at it from this angle there is undoubtedly a great deal of propaganda in the schools, and much of it may be more damaging than that which is getting so much attention now with regard to the public utilities. Any teacher who has a particular theory in politics, economics, morality, or in any phase of our life and who presents it to the exclusion of opposing arguments is a propagandist.

"Why not seize upon this situation as an opportunity to clarify the thinking of our profession generally with regard to the distinction between real education and propaganda. I recall authors and teachers that I have come in contact within the field of political science who were propagandists for a particular type of city government. Their effect upon me was a

MASQUERADING UNDER THE GUISE OF EDUCATION tendency toward a closed mind on a question to which there is no final and absolute answer. *Is not this vicious propaganda, and should it go on under the guise of education?* I do not intend to minimize the importance of the particular phase of this

question which is now getting so much publicity. My only point is that we should consider it to be only a phase of the propaganda problem and not the whole scope of it.

"Our research department has recently made a survey of our schools with regard to our relationship to the public utilities, and nothing significant was discovered with regard to propaganda from that source. They

LITTLE ACCOMPLISHED IN DENVER

have sent certain material direct to our principals, but in cases where it has been used at all only certain portions that have informative value have been used, and the propaganda features have been held back. On the whole, our contact with the public utilities in Denver has not been troublesome. I have had much more difficulty in opposing propaganda from other sources.

"May I say in this connection that I think the official staff of the N. E. A. could do much good if it were to take up the problem of keeping advertising materials and movements out of the public schools. This is a phase of the propaganda problem. In Denver we have a very strict rule against any advertising material or movement going into our schools.

ADVERTISING IN THE SCHOOLS

It is difficult to enforce minutely but I think we live up to it pretty well. Unless I am quite in error, however, there are school systems in the country which seem not to follow such a policy. Private concerns are able to get their advertising materials into their schools. This

makes it more difficult for the school system that does try to stand out against it. It makes us appear finicky.

"There is a fundamental principle of public school administration involved here which I think ought to be developed throughout the nation. In our schools for example, we will not permit the advertising of a musical entertainment, even if the entertainment itself is good, if it is promoted for the making of profit. We do not see how we can help an agency that makes its money this way and deny advertising to a building and loan association, for example, whose activity might also be said to be of benefit to humanity.

**THE
FUNDAMENTAL
PRINCIPLE**

Yet in enforcing a rule of this kind we frequently have to appear to be opposed to a thing which has good educational value in itself when we are simply opposed to making a public school system a party to private enterprise. Perhaps all of this suggests the problem of a rather definite code of ethics to be followed in the school administration throughout all our schools."

Usually the attack upon propaganda of one kind comes from propagandists of another kind. This makes it very difficult to handle. It places one between the frying pan and the fire. *But here is a clearcut analysis of the case by one who sees the question from the middle as well as from each end.* Of course we all know that children are not scientists and that they must acquire the judicial temperament later in life. They dart from one opinion to another as the bumblebee flits from one clover blossom to another.

**THE
ANALYSIS**

After students find that they have formed judgments which are untrue or partly untrue they gradually begin to consider both sides of the question. There is the possibility however when only one side of the question has been presented with the apparent approval of school authorities and with conviction by the teacher that the temporary judgment may become a prejudice which is difficult to remove. This is why schools need to be protected from one sided information.

One reason why the Utility Bureaus have failed to get very far in other cities as well as in Denver with their questionable purposes is because of the organizations of teachers for work in a continuous effort to improve the school curriculum. In the hundreds of schools where the work of improving the course of study is in the hands of committees and school authorities there is little danger from propaganda efforts. Perhaps the solution of the question lies in this particular movement. Superintendent Gwinn in an interview with reporters who called to learn to what extent the power propaganda had been distributed in the San Francisco schools said in part: "Every textbook and all information sources used in our schools is subjected to the careful scrutiny of a course of study committee before its use is approved. *Under this system which is*

**CURRICULUM
STUDY A
PREVENTIVE**

not yet in general use, it would be almost impossible for agencies to inject propaganda to promote selfish ends. The survey undertaken by the N. E. A. is vitally necessary and may reveal astounding conditions. I am convinced that the widespread publicity being given to the subject will result in a careful examination of all material submitted to committees and school authorities."

**SUPERINTEND-
ENT GWINN
TO REPORTERS**

We have taken the view that the service bureaus of public utility companies do not represent the business men who own the stock in power companies. We fully expect to see rigid requirements adopted for service bureaus as a result of the investigations by the Federal Trade Commission.

**U. S. CHAMBER
OF COMMERCE
COMDEMNS
POWER
PROPAGANDA**

As evidence of this view we quote the following from a resolution adopted by the United States Chamber of Commerce and which was submitted to the National Electric Light Association for its consideration: "*American business is jealous of its good name and insists upon protecting its professional status by the maintenance of the highest standards, and intends scrupulously to discharge its collective responsibilities. Chief among such responsibilities is that of purging business of all those who indulge in commercial and political corruption, and thru resort to unclean or unworthy practices bring business into disrepute and shock the sensibilities of all decent citizens.*" That is the way the leading business men look upon what has been done. There ought to be no desire among educators to soft-peddle an issue of this type.

On June 5 the secretary of the National Education Association sent the following communication to the officers of the National Electric Light Association: "We see that you apparently disapprove strongly of the action of Utility Service Bureaus in their purpose to put material into the schools for semi-political reasons. We have held the view all along that the large minded business men who hold the stock in power companies, also hold high ethical views in matters of this kind, that they would disapprove of this

**TO THE
NATIONAL
ELECTRIC
LIGHT
ASSOCIATION**

crime against youth and that these agencies would be severely censured by their superiors and hereafter greatly restricted in their operations. We regret exceedingly that any college or university professor would sell his services to promote such a purpose. Did any of them lead in the movement, or were they led into it? In your judgment should they be censured by their professional associations and institutions? Why not clean up on this school side of the question while we are at it? There are other propagandists worse than yours who try to use the schools. If you do a thorough job of housecleaning it will help to rid the schools of other pests."

While the evidence in the hearing of the Federal Trade Commission is not yet complete, it appears to show that these utility service bureaus have

attempted to carry out the definite purpose of getting propaganda into the schools; that they employed scores of college professors to lecture in schools and colleges; that they used their influence through school channels and through publishers of textbooks, to force changes in

texts satisfactory to their purpose—many changes having actually been made; that in some states between \$50,000 and \$100,000 was used, a part of which was used to reach children in the schools and students in high schools and colleges; and that salaries and part salaries were paid to those on the payroll of institutions.

SUMMARIZED

To overlook this insult on the intelligence of school authorities would open the gates for a flood of propaganda. To let these agencies, because of their millions and the strength of their organizations, have the right of way at this time would mean that all other agencies must also have free access to the schools. The political party in power may not be condemned for its failure to go after the sins and crimes of its previous political managers and office holders, but the standards and ideals of a profession would not justify our Association's soft-pedaling a matter as grave as this even though there may be the danger that a few educators chance to be involved. Owing to the power of these agencies in some localities and states, it may be unwise and dangerous for a given educator to raise

RECOMMENDATION

his voice against what is going on, but there is no such handicap on the actions of this Association as a whole. Perhaps individuals need this type of backing. Your secretary therefore feels forced to recommend that the Association strongly denounce the purpose and efforts of the utility service bureaus to carry propaganda into the schools and that it appoint a committee to look into the whole propaganda question and report at the next annual convention.

SANCTIFIED SQUANDER

"Sanctified Squander" is the name of a pamphlet put out by the Association for Retrenchment in Public Expenditures, 110 Engineers Building, Cleveland, Ohio. Sanctified Squander is meant to characterize the waste of funds on the schools. This pamphlet has been distributed in many if not all of the states. It contains statements made by Dr. Pritchett in his annual report a few years ago. It uses phrases which the enemies of the schools quote to ignorant taxpayers and voters. It appeals to prejudice. It is doing much harm in many places. It is doing most harm in places where teachers' salaries are low. Why would this pamphlet be sent into South Carolina where the average annual salary of teachers is \$761? Why distribute it by the thousands in Ohio where the average annual salary of teachers is only \$1411?

SANCTIFIED SQUANDER

What are the sources of support of this Association? It charges sanctified squander in states however inadequate the funds for the schools. Who pays it to do that? It draws on Dr. Pritchett for conclusions. Does it get financial help from this source? Is it said that some of the taxpayers'

WHAT ARE THE SOURCES OF SUPPORT associations in the states are supported largely by power companies? Does this association receive funds from power companies? Why not investigate this agency? Perhaps it is more of a barnacle on real business than we are aware of. Why not ask the research division to analyze their statements?

THE CENTRAL OFFICE

Visitors at headquarters seldom leave without speaking of the fine working spirit of the staff. It is one of the things that impresses them most. No telling how much this appreciation has to do in developing the commendable spirit observed. These members of the staff like the teachers they represent are devoting their lives to a service that seems important and fundamental. It is a joy to be in such an atmosphere. There is

STAFF SPIRIT no trying to take undue advantage of others. There are no hard feelings between those who direct and those who carry out. Life is pleasant at headquarters, and the conditions are favorable for the best work these young people are capable of doing. A visit will show that there is no exaggeration in this statement.

Take a trip through the headquarters building and glance at what is going on there. As one enters the door he is impressed by the high ceilings and beautifully carved woodwork. On the right is the Secretary's office and at the left is the conference room and the offices of the business division. The Secretary devotes his time largely to visitors and in going over matters with the directors of divisions. The assistant secretary and several assistants distribute the incoming mail, look after the correspondence of the Secretary's office, fill orders for publications, care for life memberships, look after affiliations, and attend to many similar matters. It is a busy, cheerful place. In

SECRETARY BUSINESS the business division are the director, three associates and a score of assistants, working in fine spirit and in great earnestness on advertising, commercial exhibits, business matters of the association, mailing and shipping, purchasing and distributing supplies, typing and folding. Here is where plans are made and machinery set up for the two annual conventions. Five million pieces of literature have gone out of the typing section alone during the year.

On the floor above on the south side of the building are two divisions—Classroom Service and the Legislative Division. On the north side are the Membership and Accountancy Divisions. In the central rooms are the offices of the Department of Superintendence and of the International Kindergarten Union. There are on this floor alone more than four times the force employed by the entire Association ten years ago. It also is a busy

place—directors and assistants dictating to expert stenographers and the typewriters providing a service music that all appreciate. It is on this floor that the administration of the Department of Superintendence heads up in a staff of six. The second floor is the clearing house for the kindergarten teachers, for classroom teachers, for principals and other departments. Here is where the accounts are kept, where the records for 190,000 members are found, where the typing service section is located in which many staff members have had their training. Here is where the organization for the Education Bill heads up and where plans and policies of the Legislative Commission are executed.

**CLASSROOM
LEGISLATION
MEMBERSHIP
ACCOUNTS
SUPERIN-
TENDENCE
KINDERGARTEN**

On the south side of the third floor are the headquarters for the National Congress of Parents and Teachers representing more than a million members and turning out an enormous volume of work in proportion to the service which this organization is rendering in state, city, and county throughout the nation. The north side and the rest of the floor is occupied by the Division of Publications. Here the plans for the *Journal* and other publications are formulated, editorials are written, proof read—in short where work is done on the largest output of educational material in the United States. This is an important center in the beehive of workers serving the association.

**THE NATIONAL
CONGRESS OF
PARENTS AND
TEACHERS
PUBLICATIONS**

The fourth floor is occupied by the Division of Research and Library. The director, two associates, and more than a score of trained assistants are at work gathering and disseminating information on financing public education, on tenure, retirement allowances, on the curriculum, on administration, etc. The data prepared during one month will be seen in state and local journals the next month. This division issues the Research Bulletin five times a year. It is the clearing house for research and information for schools and colleges. There is a stimulating wave of influence going out continuously to all parts of the nation.

**DIVISION
OF RESEARCH
A CLEARING
HOUSE**

During the last year there has been a noticeable gain in the visits of educators from other nations and in the correspondence with teachers in foreign countries. Members of embassies often bring educators and other visitors to headquarters. Groups sent by their governments to study education in the United States always spend some time at the offices of the National Education Association. Two large groups of foreign students attending Columbia University have visited the N. E. A. during the year for the purpose of getting definite information concerning its organization and work. Recently a notable group of German educators

**VISITORS
FROM OTHER
COUNTRIES**

who visited the offices of the Association were much impressed with the services which are here rendered to the profession. This is but another bit of evidence of the high esteem in which the Association is held abroad as well as at home.

Secretary Work of the Department of the Interior recently presented the Association with a section of a giant redwood tree, which has been placed on the lawn in front of the entrance at headquarters. The hedge and small pines make a suitable frame and setting for it. This fifteen inch section, which was cut seventy feet from the base, is nine feet eight inches in diameter. It is finished in the natural redwood colors, set at an angle of fifteen degrees and provided with explanations on redwood boards at either side of the section. The numbers show the leading historical events during the growth of the tree. The rings at the center represent the date 79 B. C. The rings at the rim represent the World War—the year when the tree fell. Its age was 1995 years. Metal tags show on the rings the dates of the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, when the Association was organized, and other important events. Hundreds of people stop to see it each day to note the information provided. It is a unique and valuable gift.

A man prominent in education twelve years ago but who was swept by the war into social service work by the Red Cross route and has since that time devoted his energies to general welfare work, nationwide in scope, has just renewed his membership in the Association. And here is what he says: "I can't resist expressing my amazement at the growth of the Association during the last ten years. The little leaflet showing the growth in numbers and in service from year to year is a revelation to me. Never dreamed of such figures as shown in this pamphlet."

A RIP VAN WINKLE EXPERIENCE

SHOWING PROGRESS

American Education Week was more generally observed last year than in any previous year. A difficult situation has developed between teachers and the board of education in a few cities but not in any one that has been observing Education Week year after year. No one can overestimate the value of a nationwide observance of Education Week carrying out the purpose to acquaint the public with the work of the schools and their needs.

EDUCATION WEEK

In presenting this matter to the delegates at the meeting of the World Federation of Education Associations we said:

This plan for an Education Week comes as the challenge of a great ideal. We celebrate Christmas because it gave us a great religion. We in the United States celebrate the Fourth of July because it gave us a free nation. Let us magnify the schools one week each year because through them we shall develop the finer values of our civilization, and through them, under the ideals of Education Week, we shall make civilization safer and more certain for all time. Let us observe Education

A CHALLENGE

Week throughout the world and secure these higher values in the civilization of all peoples.

The Legislative Commission and the legislative division in the staff are doing wonderful work in acquainting the profession and the public with the need of a Department of Education. The organized study of the Education Bill during the last year has given new strength to the movement back home. It required more than twenty-five years to get a department of agriculture and about that same length of time to get a Department of Commerce and a Department of Labor. The intensive work for a Department of Education began ten years ago. Success will certainly come much sooner than for either of these other welfare departments. These ten years show that the Association, like the drummer boy, can beat a charge and keep it up, but like him it does not know how to beat a retreat. The fact that it can take the larger view, the fact that it does look ahead and stand solidly for a principle, aids in giving it a place with the other great professions that hold steadfastly through the years to their standards and ideals.

**CONTINUED
INTEREST
IN THE
EDUCATION
BILL**

The movement for a department moves ahead in its course as did the suffrage movement and as does the Gulf Stream. The selfish opposition which was militantly active a few years ago is apparently easing up. The early fear that a department would be immediately followed by establishing a national university in Washington, which would lessen the prestige of national universities already established, is seldom mentioned now. Those who honestly feared that the promotion of public school education through a department would handicap and injure private and church schools, are growing less and less persistent in their opposition. About the only arguments urged now are exactly the same that were urged against the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. With the stimulus from the study of the bill back home and the easing up of bitter opposition, the bill could be passed whenever it is possible to bring it to a vote in Congress.

**OPPOSITION
DECREASING**

The Commencement season each year witnesses the passing of three or four million young people from one unit of the school system into the next higher unit or out into active life. These Promotion and Commencement exercises focus the attention of practically the entire nation on its ideals. At best they help to build into the lives of young people an appreciation of the more abiding values. During the past year a movement has been promoted by the Association through its division of publications to vitalize commencements by taking advantage of their larger possibilities. Suggestions looking toward this end have been made in the journals of state and national associations and reports from the field indicate wide interest. Many schools have had senior classes make special studies around each of the seven objectives of education. The high school of Tulsa, Oklahoma, dramatized these objectives in a program of unusual effectiveness. In the high school

**VITALIZED COM-
MENCEMENTS**

of Chanute, Kansas, eight honor students wrote essays about the objectives which were printed along with the Commencement Program and class lists in a pamphlet produced in the school print shop. Other schools are considering these objectives in school annuals and other college publications.

Another phase of the movement for vitalized commencements is to have technical and professional schools give special attention to the problems falling within the various fields of teaching, law, medicine, and engineering. Boulder, Colorado, has a unique pageant for Promotion Day. Other schools have attempted to interpret to the community at commencement time the specific contributions which the school is making to the life around it. Johnstown, Pennsylvania, has especially featured this type of program. In the high school at Mobile, Alabama, students have discussed the various activities of the school that citizens might understand better its ideals and purposes.

NEW LIFE IN THE PROGRAM

That there is a widespread desire to make commencements richer and more forceful is shown by responses to editorials in the *Journal* and by efforts of leading school systems to bring new life into this great annual occasion. The Association may well be proud of the success of this movement. The secretaries of state associations are cooperating with the national association in an effort to put new life into all commencement exercises whether in the kindergarten, grammar grade, or college.

In the field of education, research is proving that education is not the intangible process that it was formerly supposed to be. Research indicates that education can be directed by studying the individual child as he is, by visualizing him with his particular capacities developed, and by adapting courses of study, methods, and environment to bring about those changes by which he may go out to meet life in terms of his own best self. Scientific educational research only dates back to approximately 1900. In the last quarter of a century we have glimpsed its possibilities.

SERVICE OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

Challenging years of thoughtful experimentation lie ahead of us. Research which evolves out of a sound education philosophy and which is

A CHALLENGE AND AN OPPORTUNITY

interpreted by this same philosophy aids teachers, principals, and superintendents in doing better work. The application of scientific methods does not mean that teaching is made mechanical or that it is left of its spiritual qualities. At its best, it recognizes the sacredness of human personality. The findings of educational research are not ends in themselves. They are means in the development of better trained minds and hearts.

Teachers are no longer automatically blamed for pupils' failures. A class well above the average in intelligence may succeed in satisfying the course of study requirements with a poor teacher; a class of low intelligence

will fail to master maximum requirements even when taught by a highly qualified teacher. The scientific procedure is to study conditions so as to prevent failures as far as possible, and when they occur to make a close study of each individual failure to determine its cause, and where possible to remove difficulties of adaptation which have been discovered through research.

**RESEARCH
HELPS THE
TEACHER**

The principal now looks to the findings of research for help in guiding the teachers and pupils for whose growth he is responsible. These are among the questions which he wants answered by research: How may the principal's supervision result in better teaching? Through what activities can character best be developed? How can parents be kept in closer touch with the school? What are the plans and specifications of the school principal's job? Can it be so analyzed that definite training can be prescribed and specific duties better performed?

**RESEARCH
HELPS THE
PRINCIPAL**

Neither by philosophizing nor by conjecture can a superintendent schools accurately determine such conditions as these: What is the total number of pupil failures in his schools? What is the expenditure for office overhead in school systems comparable to his in size? How many new teachers are needed for the coming year? What should be the bases for their selection? What is the anticipated pupil enrolment for the ensuing five years? Are building facilities adequate? These and hosts of other questions with which every superintendent of schools is faced have to be answered by opinion unbiased by facts, unless the findings of research are available.

**RESEARCH
HELPS THE
SUPERIN-
TENDENT**

The facilities for fruitful committee research on the part of the National Education Association are better each year. The entire profession is coming to be interested in its problems. More help can be secured from people in the field. The Research Division, starting with only a director and one stenographer, has within six years developed a staff of eighteen people. With this small personnel the division has won national recognition because of the practical and scientific contributions which it has made. Through the cooperative relationships which it has established with the research agencies and educators of the nation, and the confidence which it has inspired, it is able to turn out a prodigious amount of helpful material. Owing to the failure of the government to provide for the research in education that it has provided in agriculture and commerce—larger responsibilities fall upon the Association. Much of all recent progress in education is due to the liberality of the membership in financing research and to the farsighted vision and the fine leadership of the director and assistants, in making the Association the clearinghouse in this field for the nation. Let there be the usual in-

**DIVISION
OF RESEARCH
A CLEARING-
HOUSE**

crease in the budget. Let the allowance be as large as is consistent with the income of the Association.

Revision of the calendar is now receiving international attention. The present measure of time with its months of unequal length, shifting day names, and floating holidays is considered a makeshift for a scientific instrument. From a collection of 185 calendar suggestions from thirty-eight nations, investigated at the instance of the International Chamber of Commerce, has emerged the so-called "International Fixt Calendar" which has met with wide favor among scientists, business men, religious and educational authorities, leading women, labor officials, and government departments. According to this calendar, each year consists of thirteen twenty-eight day months. Each month begins on Sunday and ends on Saturday.

THE PROPOSED CALENDAR

The new month is inserted between June and July. The 365th day, December 29, has no week day name but is called Year Day. In Leap Year, the extra day is inserted as June 29 without a week day name. 1933 appears to be the logical time for inaugurating the new calendar since in that year Sunday falls on January first. Inasmuch as popular sentiment seems to be crystalizing in favor of calendar adjustment and the revision has long been considered inevitable, an international conference similar to that convened in this country by President Arthur, who established standard time, will eventually be called. Would it not be well if this Association gave full support to this progressive movement?

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

PURPOSE OF STEPS TAKEN

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. Another advanced step which improves the morale of the staff was that of adopting a plan of retirement allowances for the headquarters staff.

The adoption of a system of personnel classification at the Dallas meeting in 1927, was taken as a previous cases after careful study and investigation. In this study the Executive Committee was fortunate in getting the

HELP OF UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EFFICIENCY

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.

PERSONNEL CLASSIFICATION FOR THE HEADQUARTERS STAFF
Showing Salaries—Basic—Maximum—Annual Increase

1. Director of Divisions.

A. Directors of business, administrative, and creative divisions.

Basic	per year	\$5000
Maximum	per year	7500
Annual increase		250

B. Directors of other divisions and chief assistant to the secretary.

Basic	per year	\$2500
Maximum	per year	4500
Annual increase		200

2. Head Division Assistants and section chiefs.

A. Assistants to directors in 1A and chiefs of important sections with directive and administrative responsibilities.

Basic	per year	\$1800
Maximum	per year	3000
Annual increase		120

B. Chief clerks, head stenographers, and technical assistants in positions of responsibility.

Basic	per year	\$1250
Maximum	per year	2250
Annual increase		100

3. Clerks, stenographers, and technical assistants.

A. Clerks, stenographers, technical assistants expert in their work.

Basic	per year	\$1320
Maximum	per year	2000
Annual increase		68

B. Clerks, stenographers, and other assistants.

Basic	per year	\$1200
Maximum	per year	1800
Annual increase		60

4. Unclassified service—The temporary roll.

A. Clerks, stenographers, typists, other help on temporary basis.

Salary	per week	\$15 and above
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The permanent assistants are drawn largely from Group 4—Unclassified Service. It serves as a training school for 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

**A TRAINING
SCHOOL**

tion improves 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.

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 larger than that shown in the schedule or for valid reasons the annual increase may be reduced.

SALARY REGULATING

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. Where the increases are above or below the scheduled 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.

The Association adopted at the Seattle meeting a plan providing retirement allowances, life insurance, and permanent liability benefits. All permanent members of the headquarters staff are eligible for entry into this plan. Each one pays five percent of his monthly salary into the fund. The Association pays an equal amount. This covers a \$1000 life insurance. It provides for a liberal monthly allowance in case of permanent disability. It provides for retirement allowances in proportion to what has been paid. In the case of those who have seen twenty or more years in the service the sum will amount to a fair retirement salary. For instance, a woman, age 25, salary \$1550 at the age of 60

STAFF RETIREMENT ALLOWANCES

Membership in Professional and Technical Organizations

Prepared by the Research Division of the National Education Association

States	Number of physicians 1926	Membership in American Medical Association 1926	Percent of physicians members of American Medical Association	Rank of column 4	Number of lawyers in 1920	Membership in American Bar Association 1926	Percent of lawyers members of American Bar Association	Rank of column 8	Estimated number of teachers 1926-27	Membership in National Education Association Jan. 1927	Percent of teachers members of National Education Association	Rank of column 12
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
United States	148,644	91,792	61.75		123,162	24,751	20.10		891,555	170,053	19.07	
Alabama.....	2,284	1,612	70.57	11	1,416	206	14.55	45	15,800	1,142	7.23	44
Arizona.....	378	221	58.73	31	443	114	25.73	16	3,000	2,095	69.83	6
Arkansas.....	2,212	1,183	53.45	45	1,338	315	23.54	24	13,500	1,765	5.67	47
California.....	8,363	4,203	53.26	48	6,745	1,323	19.62	31	36,000	17,924	49.79	7
Colorado.....	1,837	1,068	58.14	35	1,539	619	40.22	2	10,000	4,450	44.50	12
Connecticut.....	1,884	1,229	65.23	21	1,332	370	29.13	8	9,900	1,986	20.06	24
Delaware.....	256	178	69.53	36	171	75	43.86	1	1,450	802	55.31	7
District of Columbia.....	1,813	549	30.28	53	2,415	657	27.16	14	2,450	1,449	59.18	8
Florida.....	1,452	700	48.21	50	1,137	353	31.93	6	9,500	2,225	23.42	21
Georgia.....	3,122	1,784	57.14	40	2,531	323	12.76	50	17,800	671	3.77	51
Idaho.....	416	233	57.45	37	652	87	13.31	49	4,500	950	21.11	22
Illinois.....	10,743	7,020	65.35	20	8,843	1,981	22.40	25	46,500	9,303	20.01	25
Indiana.....	4,251	2,671	62.83	24	3,307	540	16.33	40	25,800	6,439	24.96	20
Iowa.....	1,748	2,362	69.92	13	2,494	538	21.57	30	27,400	3,313	12.09	37
Kansas.....	2,364	1,556	65.82	16	1,676	401	23.93	22	19,600	2,696	13.76	31
Kentucky.....	3,041	1,850	60.84	30	2,382	350	14.69	44	16,500	1,244	7.54	43
Louisiana.....	1,991	1,248	62.68	26	1,206	344	28.53	9	12,900	906	7.02	45
Maine.....	1,037	785	75.70	4	801	166	20.73	32	7,000	1,782	25.46	19
Maryland.....	2,313	1,259	54.43	44	2,118	472	22.29	26	8,900	3,186	35.80	30
Massachusetts.....	6,187	4,748	68.66	14	4,954	1,364	27.53	13	26,500	5,415	20.43	23
Michigan.....	4,837	2,983	61.67	27	3,037	839	27.63	12	35,800	10,311	28.81	16
Minnesota.....	2,823	2,053	72.73	7	2,613	620	23.73	23	23,000	3,800	16.52	28
Mississippi.....	1,702	976	57.34	39	1,158	122	10.54	52	16,600	312	1.88	53
Missouri.....	5,806	3,770	65.32	42	4,506	697	17.69	38	24,600	3,186	12.55	33
Montana.....	525	269	51.24	47	875	131	14.97	43	6,800	313	4.60	50
Nebraska.....	1,859	1,227	65.65	18	1,328	373	25.72	17	14,400	2,682	18.67	27
Nevada.....	129	91	70.54	12	1,230	82	35.65	4	8,425	684	82.91	3
New Hampshire.....	601	489	81.37	2	379	91	24.01	21	3,400	460	13.53	32
New Jersey.....	3,567	2,240	62.80	25	3,918	560	14.29	46	24,100	6,488	26.92	18
New Mexico.....	365	260	71.23	9	342	113	33.04	5	3,350	286	8.54	41
New York.....	17,671	10,885	61.60	28	18,473	3,005	16.27	41	72,200	9,278	12.85	34
North Carolina.....	2,281	1,668	73.12	5	1,585	311	19.62	35	24,000	634	2.64	52
North Dakota.....	485	394	81.24	3	629	192	30.53	7	9,600	508	5.29	48
Ohio.....	8,113	5,240	64.59	22	6,485	1,216	18.75	36	43,100	14,587	33.77	15
Oklahoma.....	2,524	1,553	61.53	29	2,818	385	13.66	48	19,800	1,565	7.90	42
Oregon.....	1,176	551	46.85	51	1,424	201	14.12	47	7,900	2,877	36.42	13
Pennsylvania.....	11,140	7,502	67.34	15	6,784	1,469	21.65	29	56,500	17,650	31.24	17
Rhode Island.....	423	243	57.45	43	515	143	27.77	11	3,900	474	12.15	36
South Carolina.....	1,317	861	65.38	19	989	169	17.09	39	13,200	614	4.65	49
South Dakota.....	604	343	56.79	41	700	180	25.72	18	9,600	1,188	12.38	35
Tennessee.....	3,128	1,571	50.22	49	2,040	328	16.08	42	16,900	1,126	6.66	46
Texas.....	6,063	3,479	57.38	38	5,325	624	11.72	51	38,400	3,726	9.70	37
Utah.....	505	357	70.69	10	527	138	26.19	15	4,650	2,093	45.01	11
Vermont.....	537	353	65.74	17	344	86	25.00	19	3,200	330	10.31	38
Virginia.....	2,534	1,846	72.85	6	1,981	441	22.26	27	17,900	1,717	9.59	40
Washington.....	1,781	1,132	63.56	23	2,237	401	20.61	33	11,900	5,465	45.92	9
West Virginia.....	1,753	1,020	58.19	34	1,426	292	20.52	28	15,000	1,739	11.59	26
Wisconsin.....	2,826	2,054	72.68	8	1,978	493	24.93	20	23,700	3,825	16.49	29
Wyoming.....	255	149	58.43	32	268	107	39.93	3	3,200	1,133	35.41	14
Alaska.....	56	21	37.50	52	80	17	21.25	31	200	163	81.50	4
Canal Zone.....	127	110	86.62	1	1	1			130	95	79.17	5
Foreign.....										168		
Guam.....									90			
Hawaii.....	225	131	58.22	33	173	49	28.32	10	1,700	2,506	147.41	1
Philippine Islands.....	905	174	19.23	54					27,000	59	.22	55
Porto Rico.....	321	166	51.71	46	300	69	17.69	37	5,000	64	1.28	51
Virgin Islands.....									120	168	90.00	2

THIS TABLE compares the membership in professional and technical organizations as indicated by the following: Percent of physicians members of American Medical Association, percent of lawyers members of American Bar Association, and percent of teachers members of National Education Association.

In the United States as a whole there are 148,644 physicians. Of this number 91,792, or 61.75 percent, are members of the American Medical Association. Of the 123,162 lawyers in the United States 24,751, or 20.10 percent are members of the American Bar Association. Of the 891,555 teachers in the United States 170,053, or 19.07 percent are members of the

National Education Association. You may obtain the figures for your state by reading table as follows: Of the 2284 physicians in Alabama, 1612, or 70.57 percent, are members of American Medical Association. This percent gives Alabama a rank of 11 in this regard. Of the 1416 lawyers in Alabama, 206 or 14.55 percent are members of American Bar Association. This percent gives Alabama a rank of 45. Of the 15,800 teachers in Alabama, 1142, or 7.23 percent, are members of National Education Association. This percent gives Alabama a rank of 44 in this regard.

The figures for number of physicians and membership in American Medical As-

sociation were obtained through the courtesy of the American Medical Association. Figures as to number of lawyers are taken from the Federal Census of Occupations for 1920; they include lawyers, judges, and justices. Figures for years later than 1920 are not available. Membership in American Bar Association is taken from membership Record of the American Bar Association. The figures as to number of teachers and membership in National Education Association are from THE JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, April, 1927. Preserve your files of THE JOURNAL. These tables and many other original features can be had nowhere else.

Growth of Education Associations

States and Other Units	Estimated number of teachers in 1928.	Membership in National Education Association						Membership in State Associations					
		Jan. 1, 1908	Jan. 1, 1927	Jan. 1, 1928	Percent of teachers members	Relative rank Jan. 1, 1928	Rank in size groups ¹	Jan. 1, 1908	Jan. 1, 1927	Jan. 1, 1928	Percent of teachers members	Relative rank Jan. 1, 1928	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	
United States.....	901,280	4,982	170,033	181,350	20.12			63,993	613,728	650,368	72.16		
Alabama.....	16,100	55	1,142	1,150	7.14	45	C-9	1,103	10,752	11,916 ²	74.01	29	
Alaska.....	225		163	161	71.56	3	E-4		180 ³				
Arizona.....	3,100	20	2,186	2,178	70.32	6	D-2	520	2,705	2,525	81.43	19	
Arkansas.....	12,500	17	765	810	6.43	47	C-11	485	8,269	8,209 ⁴	66.15	36	
California.....	38,000	249	17,924	18,497	48.68	11	A-1	2,020	28,042	30,469	80.18	22	
Canal Zone.....	140		95	107	76.43	4	E-3						
Colorado.....	10,700	75	4,430	4,582	42.82	12	C-2	2,025	7,330	8,073	75.45	27	
Connecticut.....	11,000	68	1,886	1,997	18.15	27	C-3	3,800	9,636	9,996	90.87	13	
Delaware.....	1,500	9	802	756	50.40	9	E-5		800 ⁵	1,400	93.33	10	
Dist. of Columbia.....	2,900	47	1,449	1,432	49.38	10	D-4		1,374 ⁶	1,200 ⁶	41.38	48	
Florida.....	10,000	10	2,225	2,819	28.19	18	D-6	500	5,576 ⁷	6,886 ⁸	68.86	33	
Foreign.....			168	203									
Georgia.....	18,250	50	671	645	3.53	51	C-11	240	8,600 ⁹	10,551 ¹⁰	57.81	44	
Hawaii.....	90		2,506	2,593	117.86 ¹¹	1	D-1						
Idaho.....	4,500	21	950	1,040	23.31	23	D-9	325	3,221	3,650	81.11	20	
Illinois.....	46,000	420	9,303	11,253	24.46	21	B-5	1,294	32,600	33,888	73.67	30	
Indiana.....	24,000	128	6,439	3,315	23.15	24	B-3	3,450	15,448	16,532	68.97	32	
Iowa.....	26,000	63	3,314	3,342	12.85	32	B-6	1,519	16,763	16,801	64.97	38	
Kansas.....	21,700	84	2,696	2,789	12.85	33	B-7	1,200	16,271	16,843	77.62	25	
Kentucky.....	18,000	60	1,244	1,321	7.34	44	C-8	475	11,249 ¹²	13,355 ¹³	74.17	28	
Louisiana.....	11,000	42	770	700	6.36	46	C-10	1,863	9,101 ¹⁴	10,149 ¹⁵	92.26	11	
Maine.....	6,400	32	1,782	1,643	25.67	20	D-8	1,500	7,031	7,028	100.00	1	
Maryland.....	8,400	55	1,371	952	11.33	38	D-13	400	2,350 ¹⁶	2,302 ¹⁶	27.40	49	
Massachusetts.....	26,000	332	6,415	5,846	21.72	25	B-4	1,500	10,033	17,134	65.90	37	
Michigan.....	31,200	130	10,311	11,256	36.08	14	A-3	4,800	26,837	29,483	94.50	7	
Minnesota.....	24,000	145	3,806	5,773	24.05	22	B-2	2,900	14,325	14,600	60.83	41	
Mississippi.....	15,000	10	312	274	1.83	53	C-15	1,200	11,032 ¹⁷	9,049	66.27	35	
Missouri.....	24,800	216	2,195	2,973	11.99	36	B-8	665	22,382 ¹⁸	22,752	91.74	12	
Montana.....	6,200	21	313	612	9.87	41	D-15	100	3,699	3,920	63.23	40	
Nebraska.....	15,000	71	2,602	2,376	15.81	29	C-5	2,000	12,527	13,537	90.25	14	
Nevada.....	800	4	64	77	9.25	2	E-1		222	701	655	81.88	18
New Hampshire.....	3,100	20	460	431	13.90	30	D-10	1,100	2,500 ¹⁹	2,630	84.84	16	
New Jersey.....	24,500	193	6,488	7,173	29.28	17	B-1	4,157	23,772	24,500 ²⁰	100.00	3	
New Mexico.....	3,400	13	286	354	10.41	39	D-14	500	1,717	2,203	64.79	30	
New York.....	73,000	918	9,278	8,666	11.87	37	A-7	2,367	36,260 ²¹	38,516 ²²	52.76	45	
North Carolina.....	24,200	23	634	716	2.96	52	B-9	750	13,700 ²³	14,544	60.12	42	
North Dakota.....	9,500	42	508	517	5.44	49	D-17	425	5,475	4,480	47.16	46	
Ohio.....	45,000	349	14,387	16,785	37.30	13	A-2	1,000	33,640	37,117	82.48	17	
Oklahoma.....	19,300	23	1,565	1,801	9.33	42	C-7	615	17,487 ²⁴	18,210 ²⁵	94.38	8	
Oregon.....	8,400	19	2,877	2,316	27.37	19	D-7	1,200	6,542	6,417	78.77	23	
Pennsylvania.....	59,000	325	17,650	15,439	31.29	16	A-4	821	55,203	57,411	97.31	4	
Philippine Islands.....	27,000		39	83		55	B-10						
Porto Rico.....	2,200		64	79	1.52	54	D-18						
Rhode Island.....	3,000	32	474	319	8.18	43	D-16	1,790	3,750	3,711	95.15	6	
South Carolina.....	14,000	22	614	633	4.52	50	C-13	300	8,116	8,281 ²⁶	39.15	43	
South Dakota.....	9,500	40	1,188	1,198	12.61	34	D-12	500	9,001	9,113	95.93	5	
Tennessee.....	18,000	31	1,126	6,119	48	C-12	165	7,095	7,900 ²⁷	43,89	47	31	
Texas.....	40,000	48	3,726	4,997	12.49	35	A-6	500	23,600 ²⁸	25,500 ²⁹	71.25	31	
Utah.....	4,600	30	2,093	2,562	55.70	8	D-3	1,400	4,785	4,861	105.67 ³⁰	2	
Vermont.....	3,100	30	330	417	13.45	31	D-11	1,139	2,430	2,495	80.48	21	
Virgin Islands.....	125		108	105	84.00	3	E-2						
Virginia.....	18,000	40	1,717	1,794	9.97	40	C-6	1,500	12,366 ³¹	12,104 ³²	67.24	34	
Washington.....	11,900	68	5,465	6,899	57.97	7	C-1	4,005	10,983	11,185	93.99	9	
West Virginia.....	15,000	24	2,729	2,603	16.27	28	C-4	430	10,573	12,450 ³³	77.81	24	
Wisconsin.....	21,450	160	3,825	4,062	18.94	26	B-5	5,000	15,447	16,540	77.11	26	
Wyoming.....	3,400	12	1,133	1,206	35.47	15	D-5	390	3,046	3,000 ³⁴	88.24	15	

THIS TABLE shows the growth of professional organizations and indicates the relative standing of each of the states with respect to membership in both national and state associations. The total membership in the National Education Association was 4982 on January 1, 1908; 170,033 on January 1, 1927; and 181,350 on January 1, 1928. This last figure is 20.12 percent of the 901,280 teachers in the United States and territories.

The figures for state associations for January 1, 1908, show a membership in these associations of 63,993. The figures for January 1, 1927, are 613,728, and for January 1, 1928, are 650,368, which is 72.16 percent of the 901,280 teachers in the United States and territories.

In the United States in 1927, 19.07 percent of the teachers of the country were enrolled in the National Education Association; the corre-

sponding percent for 1928 given at the head of Column 6 is 20.12. During the same year the percent of teachers enrolled in State Associations increased from 68.84 to 72.16, the percent given at the head of Column 11. The preceding percents are based upon estimates as to the number of teachers in each state in 1927 and 1928. These estimates are as accurate as available data permit. The figures of Column 2 include teachers, principals, supervisors, and administrative officers. The figures for state associations are based on signed reports from the officers of those associations.

¹ The letter "e" indicates that the figure is an estimate.

² Column 8 enables each state to compare its membership achievement with that of other states in its size group. The states marked

"A" have 30,001 or more teachers; those marked "B" have 20,001 to 30,000 teachers; "C" 10,001 to 20,000; "D," 2001 to 10,000; "E," 2000 or under.

³ Figure does not include members enrolled in statewide organizations for colored teachers.

⁴ Includes enrollment in both white and colored associations (separate organizations).

⁵ The rank of the New York State Association is lowered by the fact that New York City teachers at present work largely through local organizations. There are approximately 30,000 teachers in New York City.

⁶ The percents in excess of one hundred percent are accounted for by the fact that members are enrolled among teachers in private schools, institutions of higher learning, and laymen.

⁷ Does not include city of Wilmington.

could retire on a salary of approximately \$130 a month. With the schedule of increases it would go above that amount. Should she become permanently disabled before that time she would receive \$45 or \$50 a month to the age of 60 and after that the regular retirement allowance. The plan is operated through the Equitable Life Assurance Society. It is an up-to-date plan and one which institutions such as colleges look upon as worthy of adoption.

LIST OF NAMES REPORTED BY NECROLOGY COMMITTEE

Alabama

E. P. Murphy, Gadsden	Hortense R. Thornton, Birmingham
Eugene Allen Smith, University	F. W. Williams, Huntsville

Arizona

Phoebe Bogan, Tucson	Paul Clements, Tucson
----------------------	-----------------------

California

W. H. Housh, Los Angeles	Mary Pillot, San Jose
Kathryn Jeffries, San Diego	Carrie E. Saine, Los Angeles
Mark Keppel, Los Angeles	

Connecticut

Frederick Wells Williams, New Haven

Florida

O. F. Burger, Gainesville	R. M. Sealey, Tallahassee
A. A. Murphree, Gainesville	A. H. Walker, St. Augustine

Georgia

Wilber Colvin, Atlanta	R. I. Knox, Hartwell
Fort E. Land, Atlanta	Henry Clay White, Athens
James W. Lee, Atlanta	

Hawaii

Mrs. Elizabeth Jernegan, Hilo	Mrs. Sophie Overend, Honolulu
Mrs. Grace A. Lang, Wahiawa	

Idaho

Carrie C. Farr, Boise

Illinois

Elmer Blanchard, Hoopston	Elizabeth Harrison, Chicago
Henry Clay Cox, Chicago	Dorothy Roehlke, East Chicago

Iowa

C. Bayless, Dubuque	Scott T. Crosswait, Alleman
W. H. Bender, Jefferson	Lizzie Davis, Grinnell
Mrs. Nannie M. Chambers, Ottumwa	Mary Davis, Audubon
George Chandler, Osage	Harold Ebert, Des Moines
Mrs. Nira Clark, Indianola	Emma Estes, Keokuk

Bruce Fink, Fayette
 Daniel M. Gorman, Dubuque
 Mrs. Frank Halloway, Des Moines
 J. H. Holaday, Webster City
 Henry Clay Hollingsworth, Des Moines
 Geneva Jackson, Newton
 Herbert Jones, Prairie City
 Thomas J. Kelley, St. Anthony
 Gertrude Kiser, Council Bluffs
 Ethel MacMillan, Des Moines
 Howard McDonald, Fairfield
 Grace Maple, Onslow

Clarence Messer, Humboldt
 William Mullin, Hedrick
 Mrs. Sarah A. Pasch, Davenport
 Elizabeth Paterson, Boone
 James Thomas Rosson, Burlington
 John M. Saysell, Newburg
 Ella Scholes, Des Moines
 Alda May Shimer, Sioux City
 Luella Tolbert, Perry
 Alvin E. Veline, Eldora
 Nettie A. Wells, Cushing

Kentucky

T. J. Coates, Richmond

Maine

Arthur J. Roberts, Waterville

Massachusetts

John Spencer Bassett, Northampton
 Archibald Cary Coolidge, Boston
 George E. Gay, Malden
 Herbert W. Kittredge, Westfield

Charles I. Rice, Worcester
 Sarah Frances Whiting, Wellesley
 Charles T. Woodbury, Fitchburg

Michigan

Orvetta Avery, Forest Grove
 Martin D. Boz, Spring Lake
 Robert M. Compton, Romulus
 Dora Harding, Oxford

Mary L. Helm, Saginaw
 George E. Latchaw, Mt. Clemens
 Ella Wynkoop, Grand Rapids

Missouri

T. J. Walker, Springfield

Montana

Mrs. Sallie M. Adams, Forsyth

Nebraska

Daniel E. Jenkins, Omaha
 Pearl S. Kelley, Peru
 Austin Norman Palmer, Cedar Rapids

Mrs. Carrie B. Raymond, Lincoln
 J. W. Searson, Lincoln

New Jersey

Leroy J. Archer, Sea Isle City
 Evan D. Custer, Leesburg
 Alexander C. Humphreys, Morristown

Thomas F. Kennedy, Newark
 Carl Milton White, Camden

New York

Arthur G. Clement, Albany
 Frank P. Gilbert, East Schodack
 Arthur Arton Hamerschlag, New York
 City
 Percy Meredith Hughes, Syracuse
 Willard D. Johnson, Albany
 John Kennedy, Batavia

Elmer S. Redman, Port Chester
 Herbert Maule Richards, New York
 City
 Thomas W. Salmon, New York City
 Edward W. Stitt, New York City
 Edward Bradford Titchener, Ithaca

North Carolina

Charles L. Coon, Wilson
 Kate Ferguson, Bath

William C. Stone, Raleigh

North Dakota

M. C. Beck, Hankinson

Ohio

Lena Alvinger, Cleveland
 Eugene Barwell, Kenton
 Elsie Roberts Baumann, Lisbon
 Carrie Beach, Akron
 J. O. Beck, Cincinnati
 C. P. Briggs, Lakewood
 Kate Buchanan, Zanesville
 D. U. Coberly, South Vienna
 George H. Colton, Hiram
 C. Henry Dickerman, Granville
 O. E. Ewan, Edon
 Mary Gormley, Belpre
 Eleanor Green, Painesville
 Mary M. Guthridge, Dayton
 Jessie F. Hampsher
 Helen F. Kendrick, Cincinnati
 Mary J. Kennedy, Cleveland

Rowena Hewitt Landon, Columbus
 Selden H. Lightner, Youngstown
 Alice D. Lord, Cleveland
 J. A. McDowell, Ashland
 Mabel C. Markley, Ashland
 Ida Miller, Elyria
 Ethel L. Outcalt, Cincinnati
 Mary L. Peterson, Cleveland
 Ada Ritchie, Toledo
 Azariah S. Root, Oberlin
 Nannie M. Schellart, Steubenville
 Mrs. G. A. Starner, Marion
 John A. Tait, Newark
 Etta Westerfelter, Springfield
 John R. Whitacre, Dayton
 Henry G. Williams, Columbus

Oklahoma

Mrs. W. L. Bradford, Oklahoma City
 Hoyle Clem Carolan, Vian
 N. S. Cowart, Wewoka
 Mrs. G. K. Harris, Weatherford
 C. F. Hines, Dustin

Isaac M. Holcomb, Oklahoma City
 Mrs. Lola Irish, Muskogee
 E. R. Knight, Leedey
 Mrs. Mae Noble, Okemah
 Lyman Hoyt North, Oklahoma City

Pennsylvania

Charles Thomas Aikens, Selinsgrove
 J. W. Cooper, Shenandoah
 Enoch W. Dalbey, Pittsburgh
 Dora Donaldson, Franklin
 Jeannette M. Eaton, Pittsburgh
 Oscar Gerson, Philadelphia
 John G. Haley, Curwensville
 Roy W. Honsberger, Monessen
 Joseph W. Huff, Haverford
 George W. Hull, Millersville
 Lila Strong Jones, Philadelphia
 Samuel Black McCormick, Pittsburgh

H. W. McElree, Pittsburgh
 Marion Reilly, Bryn Mawr
 Walter D. Reynolds, Sunbury
 Edward G. Rose, Harrisburg
 Jessie Rundle, Easton
 William E. Shellenberger, Farrell
 Willis R. Skillman, Kane
 Andrew Thomas Smith, West Chester
 Edgar Fahs Smith, Philadelphia
 Samuel P. Stambaugh, Harrisburg
 Daniel P. Stapleton, Williamsport
 John A. Thompson, Blair County

Philippines

Guy Benton Potter, Manila

South Carolina

J. B. Miller, Langley

South Dakota

James Kendall Freeman, Wessington
 Springs
 E. H. Kahl, Webster

A. W. Norton, Sioux Falls
 L. E. Potter, Webster
 Christian Sandell, Spearfish

Tennessee

Elizabeth Lee Bloomstein, Nashville

Texas

E. R. Benedict, Midland
Charles D. Rice, Austin

Mary Irene Walker, Galveston

Virginia

Mrs. Walker M. Bond, Winchester
John Leslie Hall, Williamsburg

Frank Waring Lewis, Richmond

Washington

J. A. Mitchell, Langley

West Virginia

George W. Lilly, Hinton

I. C. White, Morgantown

Wisconsin

Olive Agnew, Evansville
Sylvanus Ames, Stoughton
Jean Anderson, Manitowoc
Ida Blossy, Chippewa Falls
Josephine Crowe, Evansville
Lillian Evans, Rhinelander
Edith Hamacker, Stevens Point
P. H. Hembdt, Superior
Henry D. Hesse, Milwaukee
Mrs. Esther C. Ireland, Kenosha
Edward Johnson, Crawford Co.
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Richard E. Krug, Milwaukee
S. M. Kyes, Marshfield
C. H. Leach, Kenosha
Alma Liessmann, Baraboo
Victor Lenher, Madison
C. L. Lewis, Kenosha
Jeanette McKillop, Milwaukee
Michael McMahon, Kewaunee

Julia Malone, Waterford
Hope Mattoon, Superior
Elvira Mattson, Merrill
Mrs. Clara Bement Merriman, Beloit
Mrs. C. H. Merriman, Clinton
Miss E. Meyer, Rocky Knoll
June Cecile Nelson, Oconto
Joseph F. Novitski, Oshkosh
Willard N. Parker, Neenah
Gladys Petran, Wausau
Emily Ursula Sarnow, Milwaukee
Helen Saxton, Richland Center
R. F. Skiff, Elkhorn
Lucian Robert Stanfield, Waukesha
Catherine Testolin, Iron Belt
Ida E. Tracy, Pocatello, Idaho
Francis Tuite, Jacksonville, Ill.
A. A. Upham, Whitewater
Helen M. Wolf, Los Angeles

THE EIGHTH REPRESENTATIVE ASSEMBLY

Delegates who attended the Sixty-sixth annual meeting of the National Education Association in Minneapolis, Minnesota, July 1-6, 1928. 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

Abercrombie, Dr. John W. (Assistant State Superintendent of Education), Montgomery; Alabama Education Association.
Crumpton, Mrs. Ethel A. (County Supervisor of Schools), Jasper; Alabama Education Association.
Davis, B. F. (Teacher), 1041 West Graymont Avenue, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
Forbes, Maude (Teacher), 2620 Warrior Road, Ensley, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
Hendrix, Noble (Principal), Woodlawn High School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
Pogue, James V. (Principal), Gibson School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
Richardson, Nannie E. (Teacher), Minor School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
Sevier, Susan (Teacher), Wylam School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
Storey, W. H. (County Superintendent of Education), Carrollton; Alabama Education Association.
Tomlinson, Florence (Teacher), Central Park School, Birmingham; Birmingham Teachers Association.
Wall, Allie (Teacher), 841 South 41st Street, Birmingham; Alabama Education Association.
Williams, J. D. (Ex-officio), Principal Avondale School, Birmingham; State Director.

ALASKA

Hanson, Dalma (Teacher), Juneau; Alaska Education Association.

ARIZONA

Acker, Mrs. Charlotte (County Superintendent), Flagstaff; Arizona Education Association.
Archambeau, Mrs. Alice (Teacher), Box 646, Prescott; Arizona Education Association.
Baker, Jessie L. (Principal), Box 2237, Bisbee; Warren District Teachers Association.
Case, C. O. (Ex-officio), State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Phoenix.
De Silva, Marie (Teacher), 619 North 5th Street, Phoenix; Phoenix Teachers Association.
Faherty, Lucy (Teacher), 1315 West Washington Street, Phoenix; Phoenix Teachers Association.
Grau, Miriam (County Superintendent), Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.
John, Hester Mary (Teacher), 34 East McCormick, Tucson; Tucson Teachers Association.
Kennedy, Mrs. Bertha S. (Principal), Flagstaff; Arizona Education Association.
Laudolt, Leona (Teacher), 601 North 4th Avenue, Phoenix; Phoenix Teachers Association.
Martin, Margaret B., State Superintendent's Office, Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.

Matthews, A. J. (President), Tempe Normal School of Arizona; Tempe; Tempe-Mesa N. E. A. Association.
Montgomery, Winona (Teacher), Phoenix High School, Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.
Riggins, Mrs. J. A. (Teacher), R. F. D. 3, Phoenix; Arizona Education Association.
Rose, C. E. (Ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, Tucson; State Director.
Sundby, Elva (Kindergarten Director), Colonial Apartments, Prescott; Prescott Education Association.
Turek, Anne (Teacher), 720 East 8th Street, Tucson; Tucson Teachers Association.
Zimmerman, R. H. (Principal), Patagonia; Arizona Education Association.

ARKANSAS

Hall, W. F. (Assistant), State Department of Education, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
Henderson, D. T. (County Superintendent), Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
Hill, A. B. (President), Ouchita College, Arkadelphia; Arkansas Education Association.
Keller, Fred (Superintendent of Schools), Jonesboro; Arkansas Education Association.
Lambert, H. L. (Secretary), Arkansas Education Association, Box 1086, Little Rock; Arkansas Education Association.
Root, F. S. (Superintendent of Schools), Fayetteville; Arkansas Education Association.

CALIFORNIA

Albee, George (Superintendent of Schools), Eureka; California Teachers Association.
Alman, John E. (Principal), 1421 Rollins Street, South Pasadena; South Pasadena Elementary Teachers Association.
Anderson, John A. (Teacher), 1725 Rose Villa, Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
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Benz, C. J. (Teacher), 3486 35th Avenue, Oakland; Alameda County Teachers Association.

- Benz, Mrs. Freda (Teacher), Parker School, Oakland; Alameda County Teachers Association.
- Berry, George (Teacher), Biggs; California Teachers Association.
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- Bonney, Wilbert H. (Principal), Central School, 402 South Philadelphia, Anaheim; California Teachers Association.
- Braaten, Elvira (Teacher), 854 North Dillon Street, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Brown, Alice M. (Teacher), 511 San Pablo Avenue, Fresno; Fresno City Council of Education.
- Brown, Clara Marie (Teacher), 2726½ Orchard Avenue, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Brown, Jeannette (Teacher), Emerson School, Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
- Brubaker, N. J. (Teacher), 2140 West 31st Street, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles City.
- Cameron, Lelia (Teacher), 70 South 7th Street, San Jose; California Teachers Association.
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- Cave, Elmer L. (Teacher), 344 Virginia Street, Vallejo; California Teachers Association.
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- Clarke, Helen (Teacher), 19 North Ocean View Avenue, Santa Barbara; Santa Barbara County Teachers Association.
- Clifton, A. R. (Ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, Monrovia; State Director.
- Cloud, Roy W. (Secretary), California Teachers Association, 508 Sheldon Building, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Cohn, Flora N. (Teacher), 1717 Browning Boulevard, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Cole, Perry O. (Principal), Court School, San Luis Obispo; California Teachers Association.
- Colmore, C. A. (Teacher), 1032 Cragmont Avenue, Berkeley; San Francisco High School Teachers Association.
- Colmore, Margarette (Teacher), 1032 Cragmont Avenue, Berkeley; San Francisco High School Teachers Association.
- Corey, A. F. (Principal), 705 South Los Angeles Street, Anaheim; Orange County Principals and Teachers Association.
- Craft, Helen (Teacher), 1724 15th Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Croak, Margaret (Teacher), 70 Liberty Street, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Cross, Gertrude (Teacher), 1520 Madison Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Dacre, Emma L. (Teacher), 45 Henry Street, San Francisco; California Teachers Association.
- Davis, Jehiel S. (Teacher), c/o High School, Van Nuys; High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles City.
- Donald, Marie (Teacher), 928 North La Jolla Street, Hollywood; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Dyck, H. O. (Teacher), Metropolitan High School, Los Angeles; California Teachers Association.
- Edgemond, John W. (), City Hall, Oakland; Alameda County Teachers Association.
- Eisner, Miriam D. (Teacher), 3117 California Street, San Francisco; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.
- Estes, Sally (Teacher), 438 Lee Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Everett, R. W. (Teacher), 2740 Portola Way, Sacramento; California Teachers Association.
- Farr, Jessie V. (Teacher), 405 West Adams Street, Los Angeles; California Teachers Association.
- Fiske, Anne (Teacher), 1363 8th Avenue, San Francisco; San Francisco High School Teachers Association.
- Floyd, Selina (Teacher), 924 Vermont Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Foote, Mrs. Ellen N. (Teacher), 1305 North Broadway, Santa Ana; Santa Ana City Teachers League.
- Fouts, W. R. (Principal), Rialto Junior High School, Rialto; California Teachers Association.
- Garton, George (Teacher), 718 Waterloo Street, Los Angeles; Evening High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles.
- Gastrich, J. Wm. (Teacher), 620 South Tamarind, Compton; California Teachers Association.
- Gerlach, Mrs. Juanita (Teacher), 1030 Gragmont Avenue, Berkeley; Berkeley Teachers Association.
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- Graham, J. F. (Teacher), Lemoore Union High School, Lemoore; California Teachers Association.
- Gray, Hazel (Teacher), Seaside School, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.
- Green, W. W. (Principal), 909 McKinley Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Gridlev, E. G. (Teacher), 312 Federal Telegraph Building, Oakland; California Teachers Association.
- Gwinn, I. M. (Ex-officio), Superintendent of Schools, San Francisco; Member, Board of Trustees.
- Hall, Louise (Teacher), Arroya Seco School, Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
- Hale, Mrs. Verna (Principal), San Pascual School, Los Angeles; California Elementary School Principals Association, Southern Section.
- Halley, E. P. (Principal), High School, Patterson; Stanislaus County Teachers Association.
- Hamlin, Elizabeth (Teacher), 3021 Third Street, Santa Monica; California Teachers Association.
- Hammond, Mrs. Gertrude Best (Principal), Hyde Park School, Los Angeles; The Principals Club of the Los Angeles City Elementary Schools.
- Hanna, Howard J. (Teacher), 2440 Crenshaw Boulevard, Los Angeles; High

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- Houston, Samuel J. (Teacher), 549 Hood Street, Huntington Park; High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles City.
- Huffman, Roy R. (Teacher), Roosevelt Junior High School, Richmond; Richmond Teachers Association.
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- Hutchings, Raymond (Director of Research), 1923 Alameda Padre Serra, Santa Barbara; Santa Barbara City Teachers Club.
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- Martin, Frederick F. (Superintendent of Schools), Santa Monica; California Teachers Association.
- Moore, Elizabeth McK. (Teacher), 312 Bon Air Street, La Jolla; San Diego Teachers Association.
- Moorehead, Mrs. Lulu H. (County Supervisor Rural Schools), Modesto; Stanislaus County Teachers Association.
- Mortensen, George E. (Principal), 474 Dutton Avenue, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Mueller, Alex J. (Teacher), 1527 Palos Verdes Street, Los Angeles; Los Angeles City Teachers Club.
- Munday, Mrs. Kathleen (Teacher), Peralta Apartments, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
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- Passmore, Irvin (Teacher), 1048 Kensington Road, Los Angeles; High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles City.
- Pearce, Mrs. Grace T. (Teacher), Escalon; California Teachers Association.
- Peterson, Sophia (Teacher), 1267 Ellis Street, San Francisco; San Francisco Classroom Teachers Association.
- Polley, Egbert (Teacher), 2606 Montana Street, Oakland; Oakland Teachers Association.
- Polley, Minnie (Teacher), 2606 Montana Street, Oakland; Alameda County Teachers Association.
- Price, Ruth (Teacher), 1270 Upas Street, San Diego; San Diego Teachers Association.
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- Ray, Mrs. Kathryn (Teacher), 536 North Alexandria, Los Angeles; Evening High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles.
- Raybold, Vivian (Teacher), 4524 Fountain Avenue, Hollywood; California Teachers Association.
- Reuter, Charles E. (Teacher), 1548 East 76th Street, Los Angeles; Evening High School Teachers Association of Los Angeles.
- Riggs, Mrs. Florence J. (Teacher), 4603 East Broadway, Long Beach; Long Beach City Teachers Club.
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- Scott, Lendon Linus (Teacher), 1112 Cedar Street, Santa Monica; Santa Monica Classroom Teachers Association.
- Seeley, Mrs. Bertha R. (Principal), Los Gatos; Santa Clara County Teachers Association.
- Sexson, John A. (Superintendent of Schools), Pasadena; Pasadena Teachers Association.
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- Sherwood, George C. (Superintendent of Schools), Orange; California Teachers Association.

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DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

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FLORIDA

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- Nelson, Clara (Teacher) Momence; East Central Division, Illinois State Teachers Association.
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TABLE OF PUBLICATIONS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, 1927-28

	When published	Number of pages in each	Number of copies printed	Total number pages
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	Oct. 1927	68	175,000	11,910,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	Nov. 1927	68	175,000	11,910,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	Dec. 1927	68	175,000	11,910,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	Jan. 1927	68	190,000	12,920,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	Feb. 1927	68	160,000	10,880,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	March 1927	68	160,000	10,880,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	April, 1927	68	165,000	11,120,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	May, 1927	68	165,000	11,120,000
JOURNAL of the National Education Association.	June, 1927	68	160,000	10,880,000
Preprints and reprints from the Journal.				269,060
Addresses and Proceedings.	Nov., 1927	1,232	6,750	8,316,000
Program, Seattle Convention.	July, 1927	64	11,000	704,000
Official Manual for Delegates.	July, 1927	88	2,000	176,000
Annual Report of Secretary.	July, 1927	40	2,500	100,000
Report of Retirement Committee.	July, 1927	16	2,350	37,600
Report of Committee on Ethics.	July, 1927	8	1,500	12,000
Report of Committee on Visual Instruction.	July, 1927	2	1,500	3,000
Sabbatical Leave Report.	July, 1927	32	3,550	113,600
Report of Committee on Behavior Problems of Children.	July, 1927	4	1,500	6,000
Report of Committee on Joint Relationship with Museums.	July, 1927	4	1,500	6,000
Treasurer's Report.	July, 1927	4	1,800	7,200
Report of the Auditors.	July, 1927	16	1,800	28,800
Report of Budget Committee.	July, 1927	12	2,000	24,000
Report of Committee on Tenure.	July, 1927	32	3,400	108,800
Report of Board of Trustees.	July, 1927	4	1,800	7,200
Sunday Program.	July, 1927	4	2,500	10,000
Reprint from Proceedings "Bylaws".	Aug., 1927	24	200	4,800
Reprints of "Bylaws".	Sept., 1927	24	1,000	24,000
Reprints of "Bylaws".	Oct., 1927	24	2,500	60,000
"Bylaws" (galleys).	June, 1927	30	1,500	45,000
Seattle Program.	July, 1927	64	11,000	704,000
Reprint of Seattle Program.	July, 1927			
Reprint of Revised Annual Report of Secretary.	Oct., 1927	40	2,000	80,000
Bylaws.	June, 1927	24	2,800	67,200
Boston Convention Programs.	Feb., 1928	64	14,000	896,000
Reprints of Boston Program.	Feb., 1928	24	5,000	120,000
Booklet "The College of Tomorrow".	Feb., 1928	24	8,000	192,000
Booklet "The Boston Exhibit".	Feb., 1928	44	12,500	550,000
Boston Program of Educational Research Association.	Feb., 1928	4	500	2,000
The Cooperative Plan of Curriculum Revision.	Oct., 1927	4	4,500	18,000
Articulation Commission of the Department of Superintendence.	Feb., 1928	6	4,000	24,000
Leaflets on Department of Superintendence.	June, 1928	6	4,000	24,000
Reprints of Leaflet on Department of Superintendence.	Oct., 1927	6	10,000	60,000
Sixth Yearbook of Department of Superintendence.	Jan., 1928	584	10,000	5,840,000
Official Report, Boston Meeting.	April, 1928	299	4,700	1,317,300
Reprints of Fifth Yearbook.	May, 1928	24	300	7,200
Reprints of Chapter IX, Fifth Yearbook.	May, 1928	60	200	12,000
Fourth Handbook of Educational Press Association.	April, 1928	24	4,000	96,000
Seventh Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals.	Feb., 1928	512	8,500	4,352,000
Reprints Chapter II, "The Nursery School and Parental Education" from Sixth Yearbook.		17	100	1,700
October Bulletin, Department of Elementary School Principals, Vol. VII, No. 1.	Sept., 1927	64	7,000	448,000
July Bulletin of Department of Elementary School Principals (Seventh Yearbook).	July, 1927	512	4,500	2,304,000
Elementary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 2.	Jan., 1928	64	7,000	448,000
Elementary School Principals Bulletin, Vol. VII, No. 4.	July, 1928	64	7,000	448,000
Leaflet, Department of Elementary School Principals.	Sept., 1927	4	5,000	20,000

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Department of Elementary School Principals (Reprint)	April, 1928	4	10,000	40,000
Educational Research Service Circular No. 1	Jan., 1928	14	600	8,400
Educational Research Service Circular No. 2	Feb., 1928	11	300	3,300
Educational Research Service Circular No. 3	1928	20	350	7,000
Educational Research Service Circular No. 4	1928	9	300	2,700
Educational Research Service Circular No. 5	1928	5	400	2,000
Educational Research Service Circular No. 6	1928	16	900	14,400
Educational Research Service Circular No. 7	1928	10	350	3,500
Educational Research Service Circular No. 9	1927	3	300	900
Educational Research Service Circular No. 10	1927	12	600	7,200
Educational Research Service Circular No. 11	1927	13	300	3,900
Educational Research Service Circular No. 12	1927	10	300	3,000
The Development of High School Curriculum	April, 1928	2	60,000	120,000
Reprints "Recent Issues of Research Bulletin"	Sept., 1927	4	500	2,000
Research Bulletin for May, Vol. V, No. 3	May, 1927	64	18,000	1,152,000
Research Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 4	Sept., 1927	32	18,000	576,000
Research Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 5	March, 1928	68	13,500	918,000
Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 1	May, 1928	68	20,000	1,360,000
Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 2	Sept., 1928	68	17,000	1,156,000
Classroom Teachers Leaflet	Feb., 1928	4	5,000	20,000
News Bulletin of Department of Classroom Teachers	April, 1928	4	1,000	4,000
Third Yearbook of Department of Classroom Teachers		112	1,200	134,400
The Catechism on the New Education Bill	Dec., 1927	8	20,000	160,000
Copies of Bill H. R. 7	Dec., 1927	8	5,000	40,000
Why You Should Support the Education Bill	Dec., 1927	12	10,000	120,000
Articles on Education Bill (General Federation of Women's Clubs)	Oct., 1927	1	4,000	4,000
Copies of Bill S. 291	Nov., 1927	8	1,000	8,000
Folder, "The Need for a Department of Education as Seen by a Business Man"	May, 1928	4	20,000	80,000
Leaflet, "Thomas Jefferson and Public Education"	June, 1928	2	10,000	20,000
Folder, "How Shall We Secure a Department of Education"	June, 1928	4	20,000	80,000
Card, "Great Leaders Favor New Education Bill"	April, 1928	2	10,000	20,000
Booklet, "Why You Should Support the Education Bill"	April, 1928	12	10,000	120,000
Folder, "Education Has First Claim to the Next Cabinet Seat"		8	10,000	80,000
New Education Bill	April, 1928	2	10,000	20,000
The Bill to Create a Department of Education, by Dr. Payson Smith	April, 1928	4	10,000	40,000
Comments on Proposed Department of Education	April, 1928	12	5,000	60,000
Comments on Proposed Department of Education (Revised)	May, 1928	16	20,000	320,000
A Southern Congressman on the Education Bill	May, 1928	1	20,000	20,000
A Plank Endorsing a Department of Education	June, 1928	4	4,000	16,000
Leaflets, "Presentation of Life Membership to Mrs. Lindbergh"	March, 1928	6	100,000	600,000
NEA Publications of interest to Parent Teacher Workers	March, 1928	6	5,000	30,000
Leaflet, "A Study of the Problems of the Profession"	Oct., 1927	8	70,000	560,000
American Education Week Programs	Aug., 1927	6	75,000	450,000
Education Week for All Nations	Aug., 1927	6	25,000	150,000
Life Enlistments	Sept., 1927	6	8,000	48,000
Life Enlistments	Nov., 1927	6	20,000	120,000
Reprint of Life Enlistments	Jan., 1928	6	10,000	60,000
Reprint of Life Enlistments	Jan., 1928	6	50,000	300,000
Reprint of Life Enlistments	Feb., 1928	6	15,000	90,000
List of Publications	Sept., 1927	4	2,500	10,000
Revised List of Publications	Oct., 1927	4	62,500	250,000
Index to Journal	Dec., 1927	6	5,000	30,000
Booklet of Information	Sept., 1927	16	5,000	80,000
Reprints of Booklet of Information	March, 1928	16	500	8,000
"Two Notable Yearbooks"	April, 1928	4	65,000	250,000
1928 Yearbook of American Association of Teachers Colleges	May, 1928	148	700	103,600
Circulars and Forms—Printed and Multigraphed				2,965,705
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