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FOREWORD

By J. W. Crabtree

"Education has come to be nearer to the hearts of the American people than any other single public interest." So great is the importance attached to the cause of education that both educators and laymen are inquiring as to the place of education in our republic and the essentials of an adequately functioning public school system. These questions will receive national attention during American Education Week, November 7th to 13th, when the nation takes stock of its schools.

Forty state legislatures will convene during the coming year. Each will have its education committee to consider proposed legislative measures for the improvement of the schools. These committees will face these questions:

1. What is the place and importance of education in our republic?
2. What are the essentials of an efficient public school system?

Women's clubs, civic organizations, boards of school trustees, teachers' associations, parent-teacher groups, and teacher study classes are also seeking answers to the above questions.

This issue of the Research Bulletin has been prepared especially for these lay and professional groups, and the educational committees of the state legislatures. It discusses the relation of the public school to the moral, civic, social, and economic life of the nation. This Bulletin names these eight factors as the essentials of an efficient school system: (1) A competent and conscientious teacher, (2) a trained and understanding administrative and supervisory staff, (3) a living and developing curriculum adapted to social and individual needs, (4) a school term of reasonable length with high regularity of attendance, (5) an adequate school plant, (6) a just and effective method of providing school support, (7) an effective form of organization, and (8) an interested, intelligent, and supporting public. Timely and salient data are presented on each of these topics. Carefully selected references are listed for those desiring additional information.

Leaders of both lay and professional study groups will find the section, entitled: Growth of Teachers in Service, rich in helpful suggestions for their local work.

"The entire profession at work on its problems" is the ideal for which the National Education Association is striving. It takes pride in offering this issue of the Research Bulletin to all those interested in studying public school problems. This Bulletin because of its timeliness, content, and arrangement may well be used as a handbook by lay and professional study groups throughout the country. Think what it would mean to have thousands of teachers and public-spirited laymen during the coming months engaged in serious study of major educational issues! Better schools for our boys and girls would be the result—the final objective of all activity centering around the public school.

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The Place and Importance of the Public School in Our Republic

What is the justification of universal taxation for the support of public education? Public education helps secure those things for which the founders of the American republic framed the Constitution, namely: A more perfect union, justice, domestic tranquility, the common defense, general welfare, and preservation of the blessings of liberty. As the republic has grown the conviction has increased that these can best be secured by the maintenance of public schools. Public schools are maintained to promote the general welfare. Men and women are capable of being made more responsible and more intelligent through training. On this fact rests our faith in democratic forms of living and working together.

Economists recognize that education is our most valuable form of wealth. Willford I. King, in discussing the nation's ability to produce, lists increases in the productive power of individual inhabitants resulting from education as one of four factors that mean greater productive power. He states:

Some of the most expensive and important forms of saving are not tangible but consist of such things as accumulated scientific knowledge and the training of the human mind. Savings of the last-mentioned variety are extremely perishable, since they are constantly being lost through the death of the persons possessing the education.¹

Another economist writes:

"A nation's greatest wealth is knowledge disseminated among the masses of people."

Public school costs—democracy's insurance premium. The public school is civilization's insurance against the loss of its most valuable form of wealth—its culture, morality, idealism, mechanical genius, government, and home life.

President Coolidge recognized education as America's life insurance when he said:

Those who believe in America, in her language, her arts, her literature, and her science, will seek to perpetuate them by perpetuating the education which has produced them.

Through its public schools the nation seeks to hold the present generation at the highest level to which it has attained in the deeper, more fundamental traits of our national character.

The public school is also civilization's method of insuring future progress. It offers a nation the chance to make a new start with each generation. Beyond holding to the level to which it has attained, the nation seeks, through its public schools to make greater advances by drawing out the best of the abilities and cultivating the talents of the younger generation.

Education has the double function of holding on to the best of those things which have gone before and reaching ahead to better things.

Merely to hold on to the civilization achieved through the centuries is a tremendous task, since each generation has to be educated anew. According to one writer, "Each individual and each generation takes part in the great relay race of human evolution and each retires at the end of a short period." The public school has the task of educating children to replace the million and a quarter trained men and women over twenty, who die each year. Progress demands more than this. The taxpayers who provide only a "replacement education" for their community—one which gives their children no better training than they received—are overlooking the need for expansion and extension. Progress demands that each generation be better educated than the last. Civilization does not stand still. It either moves forward or backward.

Education is recognized today as the greatest productive force in modern life. To insure universal education, every state has passed compulsory school attendance laws.

This is a far cry from the "good old days" when ignorance was thought to be bliss. The *Boston Repertory* in 1729 published an essay on public education by Bernard Mandeville, which expressed these ideas:

¹ Willford I. King, "The Net Volume of Saving in the United States," *American Statistical Association Journal*, 1922, p. 307.

To make the Society happy and the People easy under the meanest circumstances it is requisite that great numbers of them should be ignorant as well as poor. . . . Reading, writing, and arithmetic are very necessary to those whose business requires such qualifications; but where people's livelihood has no dependence on these arts, they are very pernicious to the poor, who are forced to get their Daily Bread by their Daily Labour.¹

This same "ignorance is bliss" idea was expressed in 1757 by Soame Jenyns,¹ who wrote:

Ignorance, or the want of knowledge and literature, the appointed lot of all born to poverty, and the drudgeries of life, is the only opiate capable of infusing that insensibility which can enable them to endure the miseries of the one and the fatigues of the other. It is a cordial administered by the gracious hand of Providence of which they ought never to be deprived by an ill-judged and improper education. It is the basis of all subordination, the support of society, and the privilege of individuals.

In contrast with these statements, Henry Suzzallo,² speaking on Our Faith in Education, states:

In the ascent of the educational ladder character and brains are the chief determinants as to how far a man can and will go. Social position and economic place have been reduced to minor factors. Every man's chance must be preceded by an educational opportunity properly seized by the youth, else his "show" in the world becomes a mere technical privilege and not a real one, like the useless right of the average man to run in a race with trained sprinters.

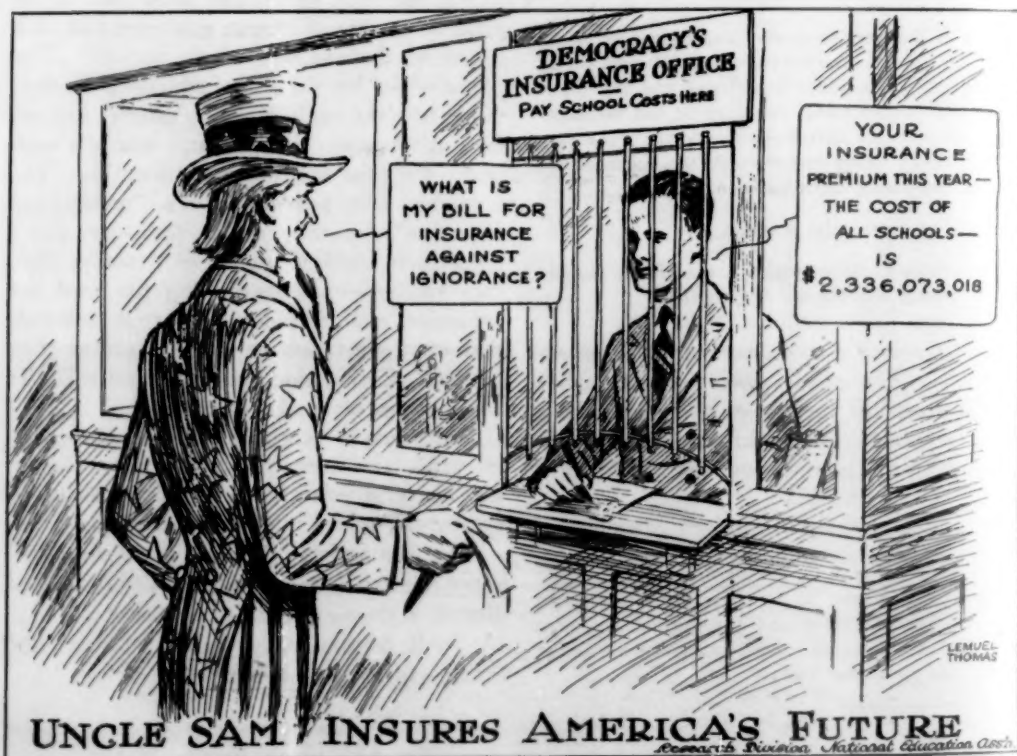
There are modern Mandevilles and Jenyns who cry out against existing expenditures for education, but to those who face facts education has proved itself to be a productive force. The economist points out that on the side of production, intelligence in labor and management makes for large output at low cost. On the side of consumption, intelligence makes for socially effective use of that product.

Since wealth in trained minds means future prosperity, increase in school attendance is to be welcomed.

Education formerly a privilege held by the few now a right claimed by all. The old idea

¹ See: "A New War with Old Weapons" by Dorothy Waples in the *Educational Review*, September, 1925, pp. 57-61.
² Suzzallo, Henry, *Our Faith in Education*, Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1924, pp. 33-34.

FIGURE I



of training a few leaders has given place to the modern idea of universal education to increase democratic action and public service. Chart I shows that the increase in educational opportunity which America offers, number of days' schooling provided annually, times the actual number of pupils in attendance, is far in excess of the increase in total population. More people are going to school today for a longer period of time than ever before.

How do the schools of today compare with those of a generation ago? On pages 172 and 173, the schools of forty years ago and the schools of today are contrasted as to numbers enrolled, attendance, teachers, subjects taught, and purposes.

These statistics show that the functions of public education have increased, larger numbers have enrolled, more teachers have been trained, and larger service has been rendered.

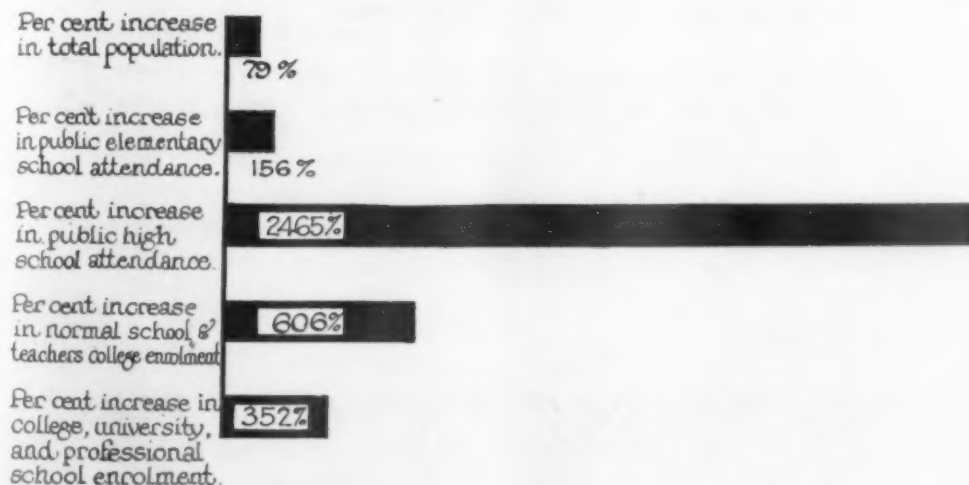
What do the schools do in relation to what they cost? The business man when reporting

on a business venture reports it from two angles: (1) Cost and (2) amount of business transacted and financial returns. The public school should be reported in terms of the value of its product to society, as well as in terms of cost. To know that public schools cost nearly two billions of dollars a year, tells us nothing about their value to the nation. Yet the layman in discussing the public schools, often reports only their cost in terms of total expenditures or millage tax levy. He even fails to report the two chief causes of enlarged expenditures, namely, increases in number of pupils trained and the depreciation of the dollar. Despite this latter factor, the public schools have been serving larger numbers and doing it more effectively than ever before. In other words, there have been increased returns in terms of a more enlightened citizenry.

In the final analysis school costs are not a burden but an investment which pays handsome dividends. No industry can ever be more productive than an effective public school system. The material goods with which mod-

CHART I

COMPARISON of INCREASE in TOTAL POPULATION and SCHOOL ATTENDANCE 1890 ~ 1924



Research Division, National Education Ass'n.

Based on figures of U.S. Bureau of Education.

The Public School of Forty Years Ago

Enrolled:

- 19.7 percent of total population.
- 65.5 percent of children 5 to 17 years.
- 1.1 percent of total enrolment in high school.

Had:

- 62.3 percent of children enrolled attending each day.
- An average length of school term of 130.3 days.
- An average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled of 81.1.
- An average number of days attended by each child (5 to 17 years of age) of 53.1.

Taught by Teachers:

- Receiving an average annual salary of \$195.
- Trained in normal schools and teachers' colleges with an enrolment of 34,814.

Taught the following subjects in elementary schools:

- Reading, spelling, penmanship, conduct, arithmetic, grammar, geography, U. S. history and Constitution, object lessons—elementary science, drawing, music, and physical exercises.

Had as its purpose:

- Schooling—The memorization and acquisition of a rigid body of facts and relatively simple skills.

in Education

The Public School of Today

Enrolls:

- 21.7 percent of total population.
- 82.8 percent of children 5 to 17 years.
- 14.0 percent of total enrolment in high school.

Has:

- 78.8 percent of children enrolled attending each day.
- An average length of school term of 168.3 days.
- An average number of days attended by each pupil enrolled of 132.5.
- An average number of days attended by each child (5 to 17 years of age) of 109.6.

Taught by Teachers:

- Receiving an average annual salary of \$1,227.
- Trained in normal schools and teachers' colleges with an enrolment of 245,649.

Teaches the following subjects in elementary schools:

Reading, spelling, penmanship, arithmetic, grammar, composition, literature, geography, U. S. history, Constitution of the United States, Declaration of Independence, state history and constitution, citizenship, morals and manners, health, physical education, nature study or elementary science, cooking, sewing, manual training or industrial arts, thrift, music, art, safety first—accident prevention and fire prevention.

Has as its purpose:

Education—The modification of conduct in the direction of developing higher moral character, better health habits, civic efficiency, command of fundamental processes, worthy home membership, vocational efficiency, and wholesome use of leisure.

ern industry mainly concerns itself is a fixed quantity. No nation can increase its material resources. "Matter cannot be created or destroyed."

The intelligence and skill with which a nation uses its basic material resources are not fixed quantities. They are restricted only by the limits that are placed upon the development of a sound system of education.

Arguments for adequate school support. These statements were made by the General Education Board in its report on the public school finances in Kentucky.¹

1. The tide of prosperity does not rise in countries that pay little for education, it rises in those that pay much.
2. A vigorous and industrious population does not seek a state which has poor schools; it seeks a state which has good schools.

3. Such action is recommended not only by statesmanship, but by enlightened selfishness, if one must have a lower justification.

The public gets the kind of schools it is willing to pay for. Schools are for the most part the direct reflection of the community which supports them—a direct reflection of the spirit and attitude of the community in relation to education. Our appreciation of the values of education determines the amount and kind of education with which we provide our children. We spend money for those things we value and consider essential. More money will be spent on education when the public becomes better informed as to the essentials of an adequately functioning school system. The next section of this Bulletin analyzes these essential factors.

¹ *Public Education in Kentucky*, a report by the Kentucky Educational Commission, General Education Board, 61 Broadway, N. Y., 1921, p. 202.

A NEW IMPORTANCE is attaching to the cause of education. A new realization of its urgent necessity is taking hold of the nation. A new comprehension that the problem is only beginning to be solved is upon the people. A new determination to meet the requirements of the situation is everywhere apparent. The economic and moral waste of ignorance will little longer be tolerated. This awakening is one of the most significant developments of the times.—*Calvin Coolidge*.

THE CHILD of today is born into a world which would have staggered his immediate forbears—it is a world moving at a vastly accelerated pace and consequently throws additional strain upon the mental and physical being of the individual—

It is necessary that we begin to rear a new child for this new world, one who is fully equipped to direct its forces and instruments of power, who can master it rather than be mastered by it. We who are concerned in any way with the betterment of children are engaged in a work of racial defense and it is essential that we summon to the task the most accurate knowledge that science can give us, that we perfect our social machinery and man it with experts, and that we look steadily ahead to a clearly visioned goal.—*Herbert Hoover, The Forum, October, 1926, p. 537-542.*

The Essentials of a Modern School System

The burdens carried by the American public school increase each year. If the school meets these new demands it must be a changing school. It must avail itself of every facility that modern thought and science produce which may be used to improve its product.

A thoroughly modern school should enjoy eight essentials. If it lacks any one of them its effectiveness is reduced. These are the essentials of a school system equipped for effective service: (1) Trained, capable and conscientious teachers, (2) A trained and understanding administrative and supervisory staff, (3) A living and developing curriculum adapted to social and industrial needs, (4) An adequate school plant, (5) A school term

of reasonable length with high regularity of attendance, (6) A just and effective method of providing school support, (7) An effective form of organization, and (8) An intelligent and supporting public.

There is not a state school system in the union that has all of these essentials. Many state school systems have made notable progress in the direction of achieving these characteristics. How may the citizen of a state and of a local community discover the progress made by his state and local school system in achieving these essentials? How may he assist his state and local schools to achieve these essentials? To answer these questions is the purpose of the succeeding paragraphs.

Trained, Capable, and Conscientious Teachers

No matter how well a school is otherwise equipped, it will not be a good school unless it has good teachers. The other essentials of an effective school system discussed in this Bulletin have no reason for existence in themselves. Modern, healthful buildings, trained and capable administrative staffs, and the other prerequisites to a good school are desirable because they increase the effectiveness of the teachers' work. In working for good schools a community should first of all strive to place a trained, capable, and conscientious teacher at the head of every one of its class-rooms.

These facts seem too obvious to need stating. In theory they are readily accepted. In the popular oration they are frequently dwelt upon at length. In practice, however, many school systems give but little evidence of having recognized the crucial importance of securing good teachers as the first step in providing good schools.

Popular Fallacies Concerning Teaching

The influence of the past is largely responsible for many present-day attitudes toward teaching.

Many still believe that most anybody can

teach children. This idea comes down from the day when school keepers rather than school teachers were in demand. Most anybody can keep school. A strong right arm, some drill material to be beaten into the heads of the children, a birch rod, and a few benches under a roof that will shed water, and all requirements for school keeping are met.

In colonial days the method of providing school keepers was simple and direct. Here is an advertisement from a colonial newspaper:

To be disposed of: A likely servant man's time for four years who is well qualified for a clerk or to teach, he reads, writes, understands arithmetic and accounts very well. Inquire of the printer hereof.

The Maryland Journal of Baltimore in June, 1776, contained this notice:

Just arrived: In the Ship Paca, Robert Caulfield, Master, in five weeks from Belfast and Cork, a number of healthy men and women servants.— Their indentures are to be disposed of.

This notice inspired an editorial in a Boston newspaper issued just four days before the Declaration of Independence. The editorial ran as follows:

Now for school masters. In the Ship *Paca* arrived at Baltimore in five weeks from Belfast and Cork are imported and advertised for sale in the Maryland Journal of June 2d, various Irish Commodities, among which are *school masters*, beef, pork and potatoes.

School keepers of the type of Ichabod Crane were the natural outcome of a period that was satisfied to recruit its teachers from the ranks of indentured servants and wayfarers of unknown repute.

Another popular fallacy would have us believe that the ability to teach is one given at birth—nothing is to be gained by training for teaching. It is readily recognized that the physician, the lawyer or the engineer must be given a long and rigorous training before he is prepared to serve the public. If these people are untrained, the patient dies, the client loses his case, or the bridge falls. The results of amateur teaching are less definitely brought to public conscientiousness. The untrained teacher deals with relatively helpless children. The results of poor teaching become evident so many years later that the cause and the effect are not connected. Consequently, some short-sighted communities are willing to employ untrained teachers because they will keep school at a low cost.

Then there are communities who look upon teaching as a stepping stone. As has been well said, they forget that it is the children who are stepped upon. These communities evidently believe that anybody can teach children for a year or two—the shaping of character and the training of intellect are such simple processes that an amateur can perform them.

Then there are those who seem to believe that capable teaching service can be purchased by something less tangible than the coin of the realm. Missionary spirit and the appeal of service is, and must always be, an important part of a good teacher's equipment. But they alone will not recruit large numbers of capable workers in any profession. Meager compensation on a half-year basis may have been sufficient to secure school keepers of the colonial type. It will not attract capable school teachers of the type needed in modern schools.

How to Obtain Capable Teachers

Substantial progress has been made in providing American classrooms with capable

teachers. We have come a long way from the time when teachers were recruited from the ranks of indentured servants and persons of questionable repute. We have a long way still to go, however, before every American class-room will be presided over by a trained and capable teacher. What are the things which states and local communities must do before this ideal will be attained?

Preliminary to everything else, the public in general must take a new attitude toward teaching. We must cease to look upon teaching as a part-time, transient form of endeavor, to be engaged in by amateurs for a brief period and then deserted for "something better." We must recognize that teaching of the kind necessary to fit American children for successful living in our changing and complex civilization calls for the best that people of first-rate ability and sound training can give throughout a lifetime of endeavor.

When this attitude toward teaching becomes more general, we will put into practice measures that will create a far more effective teaching profession than that of today.

These are some of the steps that some advanced communities are already taking and which all communities will take as they give serious attention to the problem of putting fully qualified teachers in all class-rooms.

1. *Essential facts will be obtained about the make-up of the nation's teaching personnel.* In many states and communities there exist practically no records as to the make-up of the teaching personnel. It is impossible to obtain exact information as to the amount of training and experience possessed by the members of the teaching corps. To obtain the percentage of the teachers of a state who have had training of two years beyond high school—the minimum amount required in all civilized nations—it is necessary to secure the estimates or best guesses of school officials.

Several attempts have been made in recent years to assemble a complete set of estimates concerning the training of the teachers of the various states. Approximately half of our teachers have less than what is accepted as the minimum amount of training desirable

for successful teaching.¹ The majority of untrained teachers are working in rural communities. Here thousands of girls, too young to vote, with little training for the work, and practically no teaching experience, are at present employed as teachers.²

From various scattered sources evidence can be assembled that there is a tremendous amount of turn-over annually in the nation's teaching personnel. Considerably more than 100,000 teachers leave the profession each year.³ A study of teacher transiency in a state with one of the best developed school systems, recently showed that more than one out of every three teachers were new that year to the position which they held, while approximately two-thirds of elementary, high school teachers, and principals had been in their positions less than three years.

It is generally recognized that the efficiency of any working group is seriously decreased by a high percentage of turn-over. The more skill the work involves the greater are the losses resulting from frequent desertions by the workers of the group. The loss is especially high in teaching, where a knowledge of individual children, of conditions in a community, and of the subject-matter and activities of the curriculum are essential to a high type of teaching effort.

When the states seriously face the problem of putting a fully qualified teacher in every class-room, they will provide their state school offices with the facilities necessary to assembling each year the facts necessary for intelligent procedure.

2. *Facts will become the basis of a broadly conceived, coordinated plan for the training of teachers.* Teacher training is generally recognized as a state function. Yet many states cannot tell with exactness how many new teachers are needed each year to provide for

replacements and growth in school population. The tardy effect of the law of supply and demand is the determining factor. In some years, many of those who have completed teacher training courses find no positions open to them. In other years, and this is the more frequent situation, it is found that there are too few trained teachers to fill vacancies. The only way to keep some schools open is to let down the bars of certification to those admittedly unprepared for teaching. The trained graduates of teacher training institutions find themselves in competition with a horde of untrained transients, who are willing to keep school at a rate of compensation that a professionally trained person will not accept.

When facts become the basis of a state's teacher training program these conditions will no longer be tolerated. The state will know just how many of its teachers are untrained and will adopt definite plans to bring all teachers up to the minimum standard of training.⁴ Careful predictions will be made five and ten years ahead as to the number of new teachers needed in future years. Guided by these predictions there will be selected each year, from among the most promising high school graduates who apply for admission to our teacher training institutions, a sufficient number, so that the demand for new teachers each year may be fully met.

States will know with exactness the length of the teaching career of those who enter this line of work. When the turn-over is unnecessarily high in some sections, they will determine the causes. Constructive measures will then be adopted to reduce turn-over.

3. *The support given teachers' colleges will be adequate for the work they have to perform.* The average teacher training institution receives extremely meager support. Teachers' colleges accept only high-school graduates, as

¹ At present an attempt is being made to collect from state superintendents a comprehensive set of estimates as to the amount of training and experience of teachers in every state in the union. The results of this attempt will be published in the JOURNAL OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION. For further information on this subject, address the Editor of the JOURNAL.

² Ask your local librarian for a copy of Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923, published by the National Education Association. Consult Table 78, page 100, and ask yourself this question, "Have the Rural Teachers of My State Adequate Preparation for the Important Work They Are Expected to Perform?"

³ Obtain a copy of The Problem of Teacher Tenure, Research Bulletin, November, 1924, National Education Association, and study Table 3. What percentage of the teachers in your state leave teaching at the end of each year?

⁴ The Pennsylvania plan for gradually raising certification requirements so that all teachers will have at least the minimum desirable training may well be studied. A number of other states have adopted a similar plan in recent years. The Pennsylvania plan is of particular importance since its adoption was accompanied by increases in state financial support which made it possible to pay salaries that will secure teachers possessing the minimum training required for certification. See: *A Survey of the Fiscal Policies of the State of Pennsylvania in the Field of Education*, Harlan Updegraff and Leroy A. King, December, 1922. Laws requiring minimum training on the part of all teachers have become scraps of paper in the past, since the salaries were so low in some states that professionally trained teachers would not accept them.

do other colleges, and are supposed to do work on the same level as other colleges. Teachers' colleges usually have at their command, however, but a fraction of the amount of money per student enrolled that is considered necessary and is actually available in well-equipped colleges.

The facts revealed by a recent Massachusetts report are typical. Normal schools and teachers' colleges expend an average of \$214 a year per student. Other state-supported colleges were spending \$408 per student.¹

Teacher training institutions find it extremely difficult to obtain adequate financial support. The salaries at present paid the instructors in many normal schools are less than those paid high school teachers, and in some cases the average is lower than those paid elementary teachers in progressive cities. This makes it difficult, at times impossible, for the presidents of teacher training institutions to recruit a capable faculty.

When states seriously face their duty in training teachers, teachers' colleges will be as well supported as are other colleges. Facilities will be provided so that teachers' colleges may carefully study those who apply for admission. None who appear to be unfitted for successful teaching service will be admitted. From those who appear qualified, the best will be selected. The total admissions to teaching preparatory courses in a state will be no more than is enough to meet the predicted demands for new teachers in future years.

We will set as high standards, and be as careful in the selection of those who are to teach teachers, as we are now in selecting those who are to teach doctors, lawyers, army officers, or engineers.

4. *The hampering and morale-destroying influences which now afflict teaching service will be removed.* As a hangover from the days when teachers were recruited from the ranks of incompetents, there still exist in some communities conditions affecting teaching service, that people of self respect accept with resentment—if they accept them at all. Some of these are frequently mentioned in an illumin-

ating series of articles which recently appeared in a magazine of national circulation.² In some communities the teacher's business is made everybody's business. She must be at the beck and call of every community movement. Everything that she does is criticized. The living conditions which she must put up with are less satisfactory than those enjoyed by the average resident of the community. Some of these conditions, of course, are "a part of the job" when one holds a public position. They frequently exist in exaggerated form, however, in relation to teachers.

Such attitudes toward the teacher can be corrected but slowly. As the standard of educational attainment rises in a community many of these petty afflictions, that decrease the joy of teaching service, disappear. Many progressive communities have found it desirable to take definite measures to see that satisfactory living conditions are provided for teachers. They have erected cottages and dormitories which offer teachers satisfactory living conditions at a reasonable rate. Residence in these "teacherages" protects the teacher from many of the petty annoyances which are the natural outcome of the old "boarding-around" plan.

5. *State laws regulating the employment of teachers will be based on the assumption that teaching is a permanent form of service.* The opposite is the presumption of school codes at present. Most states by law forbid the contracting with a teacher for a period of service longer than a year. The situation as it exists in practice is well summed up in this statement:

Compared with employees in other lines of work, the school teacher, under the annual-election plan, is not accorded the tenure of position given to street or steam-railway employees, general business employees, policemen, firemen, or government clerks. None of these have to apply over and over for positions which they have been filling acceptably nor run the chance of annual election with its attendant accidents and surprises.³

It is little wonder that it has been said that we have a teaching procession, but no teaching profession.

The reaction against the "hire and fire"

¹ Report of the Commission for an Investigation Relative to Opportunities and Methods for Technical and Higher Education in the Commonwealth, Including Report of a Fact-finding Survey of Technical and Higher Education in Massachusetts. George F. Zook, Specialist in Higher Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, and Associated Specialists. (Massachusetts) House Document No. 1700 (1924).

² See: "What is the Matter with Teaching?" *The Delinicator*, October, 1925, and in succeeding months.

³ Cuhberley, Ellwood P. *Public School Administration*, p. 212. Published by the Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts.

FIGURE II

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS SHOULD RECRUIT THEIR QUOTAS FROM THE NATION'S MOST PROMISING YOUTHS



policy of employing teachers has in some places been in the direction of adopting inflexible tenure measures which make it impossible to dismiss teachers who are clearly incompetent.

Neither such measures nor a "hire and fire" policy should govern the employment of teachers. These are the features which should characterize a broadly conceived and intelligently developed program of tenure for teachers.

a. Only graduates of well-equipped teacher training institutions, fully recommended for teaching by these institutions, are allowed to enter teaching even for trial as probationary teachers.

b. All teachers are on probation for an adequate period—two years or more—during which time they must demonstrate that they have become successful teachers.

c. After the probationary period has been passed, all teachers are placed on indefinite tenure during efficiency—that is, they continue to hold their places without annual reelection as long as they render efficient service or until dismissed for just and stated cause.

d. The procedure for terminating indefinite tenure is such that the right of school boards to dismiss inefficient teachers for proved inefficiency is safeguarded while the efficient teacher is given certain safeguards which protect him from the worst of the degrading and respect-destroying evils of the hire and fire policy.¹

6. *Teachers will be selected because they possess the personality and the training necessary for effective teaching.* In some communities the selection and continuance in service of teachers is dependent upon all kinds of irrelevant factors.

Some communities bar married teachers and forbid single teachers to marry. Such a rule cannot govern those employed in a field of work which is to be more than a transient means of earning a livelihood. This rule frequently results in the replacement of experienced teachers of proved ability by inexperienced girls.

Other communities limit teaching appointments to "home-girls." An inbreeding of ideas results which shuts off children and teachers alike from the broadening influence which outside teachers would bring in.

Rules such as these are frequently the result of a wholly wrong conception of why teachers are employed. Teaching positions are created

so that children may be educated. They are not created to furnish a succession of "home-girls" or political favorites an opportunity to feed in turn at a public crib.

It will no longer be necessary to urge this obvious truth when communities seriously face the problem of putting a first-rate teacher in every class-room. Every rule which prevents the selection and continuance in service of efficient teachers will be repealed. The location of the teacher's home, whether she is married or single, and other factors which have little bearing upon her fitness and ability to do a first-rate job of teaching children will be disregarded. School boards, rather than barring outside teachers, will seek to obtain good teachers from other communities. Nothing can do more to raise the general level of teaching effort than a realization that a dignified competition for teachers of first-rate ability is constantly in effect. Communities, rather than closing the lists to married teachers, will welcome them—if they are good teachers. Many communities have already demonstrated that marriage and the first-hand experience of raising children may increase rather than decrease a teacher's efficiency.

Those who train for teaching, and who prove to be capable teachers, will know that their services are in demand whenever they are free to offer them for conducting a great public service.

7. *We shall adopt schedules of compensation for teaching that fully justify capable young men and women in looking forward to this work as a life career.* At the present time only a small percentage of school administrative, supervisory, and teaching positions offer such returns.

Approximately half of the 800,000 teachers of the nation are receiving less than \$1,200 a year at the present time; this is less than \$100 a month, or \$23 a week. Compare two possibilities that are open to a capable high school graduate. He may take a year's training in stenography and typing, if this training has not already been obtained in high school, and within three or four years easily earn \$25 a week. Or he may spend from two to four years beyond high school graduation in a teachers' college or university, during which

¹ Send to the National Education Association for copies of recent reports of its Committee on Teacher Tenure. The 1926 Report contains a carefully selected bibliography of articles concerning the problem of teacher tenure.

time he will earn nothing. Then he may qualify for teaching—a life work which pays on the average less than \$25 a week.

It is true that the teaching positions open to trained people usually offer better salaries than this. The number of positions which pay a professional wage, however, is comparatively small. Of the 800,000 teachers, principals, supervisors, and school superintendents in the

public schools of the country, approximately 175,000 are receiving \$1,800 or more per year, that is \$35 or more a week. At the present time there is one chance in five that a person engaged in public school work is receiving as much as \$35 a week.

At the other extreme are the poorer paid positions of the profession. There are approximately 168,000 one-room schools in the

CHART II

MEDIAN SALARIES PAID ELEMENTARY TEACHERS IN RURAL and URBAN SECTIONS of the UNITED STATES

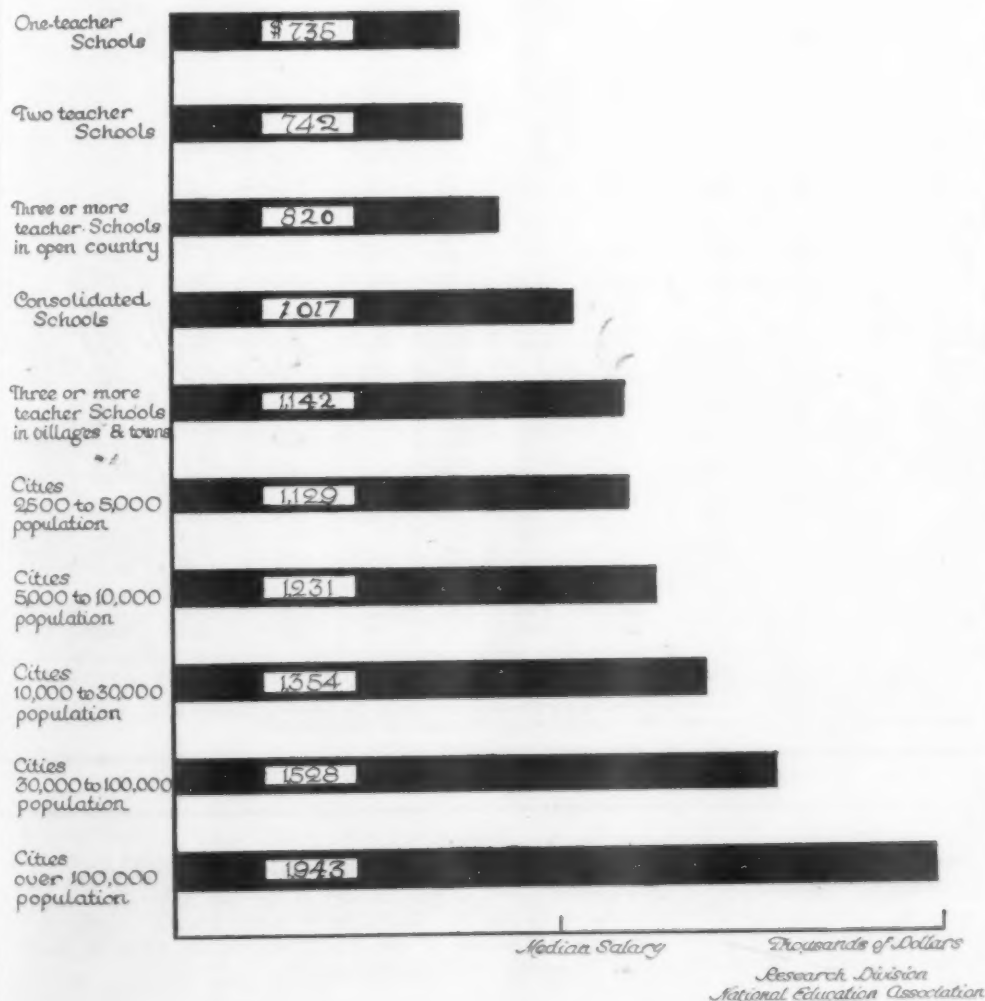


TABLE 1—MEDIAN SALARIES PAID ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY TEACHERS IN FIVE POPULATION GROUPS IN EACH OF 48 STATES, 1925

States	Median salaries paid elementary teachers					Median salaries paid high school teachers				
	Cities over 100,000	Cities 30,000 to 100,000	Cities 10,000 to 30,000	Cities 5,000 to 10,000	Cities 2,500 to 5,000	Cities over 100,000	Cities 30,000 to 100,000	Cities 10,000 to 30,000	Cities 5,000 to 10,000	Cities 2,500 to 5,000
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
United States...	\$1943	\$1528	\$1354	\$1231	\$1129	\$2531	\$2000	\$1738	\$1617	\$1491
Alabama.....	1278	946	871	796	819	1724	1541	1367	1133	(1)
Arizona.....	(2)	(2)	1669	1451	1380	(2)	(2)	1967	1831	1796
Arkansas.....	(2)	1033	1149	795	760	(2)	1617	1458	1325	1196
California.....	1922	1905	1666	1562	1494	2401	2456	2381	2222	2300
Colorado.....	2024	1661	1392	1330	1216	2436	2193	1769	1713	1655
Connecticut.....	1578	1720	1476	1253	1186	2154	2105	1824	1554	1465
Delaware.....	1775	(2)	(2)	(2)	950	1950	(2)	(2)	(2)	1330
Florida.....	(2)	667	(1)	852	809	(2)	1263	(1)	1275	1130
Georgia.....	(1)	1014	917	856	788	(1)	1789	1321	1225	1150
Idaho.....	(2)	(2)	(1)	1210	1184	(2)	(2)	(1)	1624	1525
Illinois.....	2387	1442	1193	1064	1100	3026	1876	1676	1521	1619
Indiana.....	1930	1563	1315	1188	1121	2766	2017	1726	1580	1454
Iowa.....	1817	1458	1280	1078	1078	2221	1803	1585	1438	1447
Kansas.....	1684	1627	1240	1155	995	2170	1954	1697	1566	1496
Kentucky.....	1330	1200	907	880	829	1845	1663	1233	1625	1259
Louisiana.....	1531	(1)	1117	(1)	955	2348	(1)	1508	(1)	1189
Maine.....	(2)	1512	1054	959	845	(2)	1822	1357	1280	1335
Maryland.....	1617	(2)	(1)	1250	1123	2288	(2)	(1)	1467	1288
Massachusetts.....	1769	1554	1443	1288	1123	2445	1905	1745	1633	1412
Michigan.....	1922	1544	1286	1271	1268	2619	1977	1797	1704	1593
Minnesota.....	1720	1615	1364	1166	1163	2263	2093	1711	1448	1431
Mississippi.....	(2)	(2)	978	973	909	(2)	(2)	1404	1264	1086
Missouri.....	1877	1551	986	1111	961	2564	1869	1423	1483	1388
Montana.....	(2)	1804	1461	1511	1340	(2)	1831	1775	(1)	1644
Nebraska.....	1883	1627	1219	1202	1110	2151	1925	1692	1610	1531
Nevada.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(1)	1700	(2)	(2)	(2)	(1)	1950
New Hampshire.....	(2)	1527	1160	(1)	971	(2)	2032	1633	(1)	1300
New Jersey.....	1882	1843	1635	1431	1362	3049	2474	2150	1812	1665
New Mexico.....	(2)	(2)	(1)	1308	1297	(2)	(2)	(1)	1692	1600
New York.....	2545	1645	1435	1489	1337	3233	2075	1718	1785	1630
North Carolina.....	(2)	1186	1226	1057	1021	(2)	1528	1569	1329	1332
North Dakota.....	(2)	(2)	1440	1258	1075	(2)	(2)	1800	1519	1471
Ohio.....	1895	1485	1269	1098	1172	2510	2088	1789	1516	1540
Oklahoma.....	(2)	1802	1114	955	968	(2)	2204	1700	1578	1348
Oregon.....	1759	(2)	1186	1203	1146	2043	(2)	1351	1500	1332
Pennsylvania.....	2000	1436	1393	1356	1085	3222	1989	1725	1674	1526
Rhode Island.....	1662	1529	1438	1095	1048	2224	1953	1736	1473	1600
South Carolina.....	(2)	1255	(1)	950	930	(2)	1547	(1)	1067	1055
South Dakota.....	(2)	(2)	1454	1286	1154	(2)	(2)	1914	1679	1494
Tennessee.....	1238	1039	(1)	836	765	1847	1550	(1)	1400	1100
Texas.....	1500	1227	947	921	886	1793	1700	1411	1340	1274
Utah.....	1463	1398	(1)	(1)	1024	1880	1720	(1)	(1)	1500
Vermont.....	(2)	(2)	1168	1160	978	(2)	(2)	1544	1536	1406
Virginia.....	1209	1113	1008	886	953	1839	1529	1371	1250	1267
Washington.....	1812	1817	1450	1293	1267	2177	2212	1759	1604	1536
West Virginia.....	(2)	1383	1174	1016	984	(2)	2033	1862	1367	1438
Wisconsin.....	2401	1483	1312	1226	1160	2600	1955	1758	1615	1576
Wyoming.....	(2)	(2)	1664	1494	1493	(2)	(2)	2025	1786	1650

(1) No data were reported for cities of this size.

(2) There are no cities of this size within this state.

This table is based on replies received from a questionnaire sent out by the Research Division of the National Education Association. A median salary is for practical purposes the same as an average salary.

THE DRIVING force that makes either peace or war is engendered where the young are taught. The teacher, whether mother, priest, or schoolmaster, is the real maker of history; rulers, statesmen, and soldiers do but work out the possibilities of cooperation or conflict the teacher creates . . . the politicians and masses of our time dance on the wires of their early education.—H. G. Wells, *The Salvaging of Civilization*, p. 39.

TEACH.
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TABLE 2—MEDIAN SALARIES PAID ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY PRINCIPALS IN FIVE POPULATION GROUPS IN EACH OF THE 48 STATES, 1925

States	Median salaries paid supervising elementary principals					Median salaries paid high school principals				
	Cities over 100,000	Cities 30,000 to 100,000	Cities 10,000 to 30,000	Cities 5,000 to 10,000	Cities 2,500 to 5,000	Cities over 100,000	Cities 30,000 to 100,000	Cities 10,000 to 30,000	Cities 5,000 to 10,000	Cities 2,500 to 5,000
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
United States...	3265	2484	2140	2116	2057	4675	4003	3322	2728	2300
Alabama.....	2750	1538	1600	1350	2550	3900	3600	2250	1850	1550
Arizona.....	(1)	(1)	2450	2050	2650	(1)	(1)	4100	3300	3700
Arkansas.....	(1)	2950	1875	(2)	(2)	(1)	2800	3700	2100	2000
California.....	3071	2878	2314	2100	2425	4163	4400	4200	4050	4100
Colorado.....	3156	2575	2733	2250	1950	4850	4100	3350	3250	2550
Connecticut.....	2707	2525	2058	2250	1550	3900	4200	3633	2850	2425
Delaware.....	2283	(1)	(1)	(1)	(2)	3600	(1)	(1)	(1)	(2)
Florida.....	(1)	1280	(2)	(2)	1250	(1)	2900	(2)	2950	(2)
Georgia.....	(2)	2200	1633	(2)	(2)	(2)	3050	2100	1700	1850
Idaho.....	(1)	(1)	(2)	2050	(2)	(1)	(1)	(2)	2750	2200
Illinois.....	4800	2417	1833	1417	1950	4700	4075	3600	2550	2650
Indiana.....	2933	2508	1933	(2)	(2)	5250	4300	3075	2450	2042
Iowa.....	2670	2429	1820	1483	1550	4900	3800	3650	2350	2088
Kansas.....	(2)	(2)	1750	1450	1500	3400	4500	3320	3100	2325
Kentucky.....	1988	1825	2050	(2)	(2)	4000	3300	2450	1750	1850
Louisiana.....	2531	(2)	2350	(2)	(2)	4150	(2)	3700	(2)	2725
Maine.....	(1)	2450	(2)	2150	1950	(1)	3650	3200	3025	2325
Maryland.....	2675	(1)	(2)	(2)	(2)	4200	(1)	(2)	4360	2650
Massachusetts.....	2810	2370	2186	2225	(2)	4650	4200	3617	3008	2417
Michigan.....	3618	2163	1650	2250	2050	5593	4000	3350	2850	2400
Minnesota.....	2714	2475	2033	1850	1900	4500	3750	3300	2050	2280
Mississippi.....	(1)	(1)	1400	1650	(2)	(1)	(1)	3300	1650	1850
Missouri.....	3550	2350	1670	2900	(2)	4900	3550	2600	2450	2250
Montana.....	(1)	2231	2050	(2)	(2)	(1)	3900	3100	(2)	2225
Nebraska.....	2675	2475	1750	2275	2250	4100	5250	3300	2900	2475
New Hampshire.....	(1)	2169	(2)	(2)	(2)	(1)	3950	3800	(2)	2750
New Jersey.....	3564	3360	3036	2283	2450	5625	4700	4000	3150	2450
New Mexico.....						(1)	(1)	(2)	2550	2250
New York.....	4687	2555	2017	2113	2850	6294	4100	3200	2450	3075
North Carolina.....	(1)	2500	2050	1850	1750	(1)	3600	3500	2550	2433
North Dakota.....	(1)	(1)	2050	(2)	(2)	(1)	(1)	3050	2450	2250
Ohio.....	2953	2515	2271	1350	2850	4442	3700	3100	2417	2350
Oklahoma.....	(1)	2650	(2)	(2)	2050	(1)	5250	3500	3700	2117
Oregon.....	3240	(1)	1700	2125	(2)	4033	(1)	2750	2650	2175
Pennsylvania.....	3510	2414	2028	2125	1550	5409	4075	3058	2588	2280
Rhode Island.....	3350	2538	1767	1596	(2)	4533	8700	3000	2250	2250
South Carolina.....	(1)	2600	(2)	(2)	(2)	(1)	3100	(2)	1850	1450
South Dakota.....	(1)	(1)	1959	1650	(2)	(1)	(1)	4100	3000	2250
Tennessee.....	2050	2550	(2)	(2)	2250	3600	3300	(2)	(2)	1600
Texas.....	2600	2100	(2)	(2)	1800	3400	3800	2650	2150	2038
Utah.....	2600	3000	(2)	(2)	(2)	3800	3700	(2)	(2)	2650
Vermont.....						(1)	(1)	3200	3050	2800
Virginia.....	2872	1920	1850	2050	(2)	3900	3400	2650	2800	2750
Washington.....	3100	2550	2233	1900	1700	3950	3900	3433	3050	2450
West Virginia.....	(1)	2505	2260	(2)	1950	(1)	3800	3700	2550	2500
Wisconsin.....	4066	2467	2189	1950	2700	5000	4140	3650	2950	2650
Wyoming.....	(1)	(1)	2250	2450	1850	(1)	(1)	3700	3300	2250

- (1) There are no cities of this size within this state.
 (2) No data were reported for cities of this size.

YOU ARE CONDUCTING your schools more successfully than schools have ever before been conducted in a democracy, you are doing your work more skillfully every year, you are making better and better contacts with your communities, you are guiding teachers into ways of greater efficiency. You will eventually get the recognition that you deserve from an appreciative public. But the acme of your success will be attained when we have a science of education adequate to our professional needs.—James E. Russell, "The Scientific Movement in Education," Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1926.

TABLE 3—MEDIAN SALARIES PAID RURAL TEACHERS IN 1924

States	Teachers in—					Principals in—		
	One-teacher schools 1924	Two-teacher schools 1924	Three or more teacher schools in open country 1924	Consolidated schools 1924	Three or more teacher schools in villages and towns 1924	Elementary schools only 1924	Organized high schools only 1924	Schools having both elementary and high school pupils 1924
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
United States.....	\$735	\$742	\$820	\$1,017	\$1,142	\$1,602	\$2,254	\$1,988
Alabama.....	385	425	531	714	724	1,500	1,877	1,394
Arizona.....	1,294	1,325	1,377	1,374	1,476	2,368	2,753	2,327
Arkansas.....	419	552	629	735	717	663	1,338	1,353
California.....	1,286	1,376	1,409	1,504	1,549	2,477	3,151	2,800
Colorado.....	850	1,006	1,050	1,243	1,298	1,932	1,850	2,212
Connecticut.....	1,000	1,140	1,102	1,237	1,288	1,745	2,180	2,083
Delaware.....	776	837			1,108		1,300	1,938
Florida.....	420	559	663	921	819	1,171	1,817	1,775
Georgia.....	372	422	445	528	670	737	1,630	1,464
Idaho.....	916	1,015	1,128	1,191	1,191	1,119	2,067	2,029
Illinois.....	742	863	907	1,025	1,122	2,250	2,584	1,973
Indiana.....	873	916	1,004	1,072	1,148	1,683	1,969	1,860
Iowa.....	713	825	840	1,145	1,185	2,243	2,189	2,251
Kansas.....	722	850	1,029	1,101	1,167	1,532	2,529	2,091
Kentucky.....	531	614	728	747	865	1,000	1,940	1,580
Louisiana.....	646	713	794	939	1,006	1,620	1,974	2,109
Maine.....	599	746	874	1,017	988	1,321	2,013	1,818
Maryland.....	803	1,002	998	1,173	1,170	1,253	2,106	1,770
Massachusetts.....	954	1,097	1,173	1,249	1,221	1,581	2,284	2,063
Michigan.....	824	940	983	1,109	1,054	2,000	2,179	1,884
Minnesota.....	766	911	988	1,181	1,164	1,558	2,378	2,258
Mississippi.....	343	375	478	726	779	1,033	2,125	1,899
Missouri.....	740	709	780	891	1,014	1,026	1,560	1,816
Montana.....	856	1,061	1,052	1,260	1,270	1,920	2,063	2,205
Nebraska.....	774	924	986	1,061	1,130	1,614	1,868	1,836
Nevada.....	1,017	1,250	1,340	1,222	1,615	2,400		
New Hampshire.....	769	973	893	1,006	1,063	1,167	1,912	2,008
New Jersey.....	1,028	1,136	1,178	1,293	1,333	1,784	2,613	2,783
New Mexico.....	762	812	1,040	1,137	1,082	1,475	1,915	1,414
New York.....	884	1,043	1,183	1,264	1,263	1,607	2,273	2,096
North Carolina.....	403	494	595	774	699	612	2,350	1,681
North Dakota.....	732	947	1,067	951	1,198	1,178	2,246	1,912
Ohio.....	900	978	1,064	1,109	1,171	1,480	1,738	1,922
Oklahoma.....	781	900	921	1,008	1,036		1,900	1,774
Oregon.....	911	988	1,079	1,051	1,203	1,580	2,283	2,031
Pennsylvania.....	747	806	840	985	1,089	1,970	1,829	1,970
Rhode Island.....	898	928	1,076	983	1,124	1,180	1,900	1,700
South Carolina.....	432	634	693	880	860	1,613	2,200	1,913
South Dakota.....	856	1,023	1,085	1,205	1,219	1,300	2,258	2,036
Tennessee.....	422	478	578	772	940	1,327	1,752	1,643
Texas.....	605	666	722	877	868	1,050	1,660	1,684
Utah.....	809	866	836	1,106	1,081	1,574	2,028	1,791
Vermont.....	701	763	1,040	947	933	1,050	2,020	2,188
Virginia.....	407	475	600	749	775	1,288	1,774	1,576
Washington.....	1,220	1,089	1,208	1,244	1,309	1,956	2,121	2,355
West Virginia.....	703	770	875	957	1,067	1,195	2,094	1,978
Wisconsin.....	861	1,017	1,229	1,111	1,202	2,137	2,053	2,136
Wyoming.....	817	1,033	1,204	1,171	1,173	1,678	2,224	1,932

Read Table as follows: The average salary paid teachers in one-teacher rural schools in the United States in 1924 was \$735. In the State of Alabama it was \$385. Similarly read the other columns.

Based on data from *Salaries of Rural Teachers and Length of School Term in 1924*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Rural School Leaflet No. 39, January, 1926.

WE BELIEVE that normal schools and other teacher-preparing institutions should immediately recognize their obligations, first, to train teachers for rural schools, and, second, to create among rural people an ever-increasing demand for prepared teachers.—*Selection from Resolution adopted by the Department of Rural Education, National Education Association, 1922.*

nation. Half the teachers in these schools are receiving salaries of less than \$735 per year, or less than \$15 a week.

Such salaries put too heavy a strain upon the missionary spirit. Great numbers of capable young people of vision can be expected to undergo an expensive period of training for a field of work only if that work offers a good chance of reaching a salary somewhat comparable to that promised by other lines of work requiring similar ability and training.

Salaries are so low in all but a small percentage of the teaching positions of the nation that comparatively few men are being recruited. Chart III shows the tendency in this regard in recent decades. Men and women are both needed in the teaching of the nation's children. Unless the salaries available for men teachers are substantially increased, the tendency revealed in the chart is likely to continue.

When the American people take teaching seriously, they will pay salaries throughout the profession which will place it on a par

with other important services. In a small percentage of the positions in the profession, those which require unusual ability and involve the acceptance of the heavier responsibilities will be paid salaries that can compete with the business world in drafting people of the very highest type of ability. They will no longer pay the principal of a school plant costing hundreds of thousands of dollars and housing thousands of the nation's children a smaller salary than that received by the manager of a few hundred workers in a dingy factory across the street.

Many communities have already made definite progress in adopting schedules of compensation for their teachers which indicate they really want good teachers. Approximately all cities over 30,000 in population have adopted definite teacher salary schedules.¹

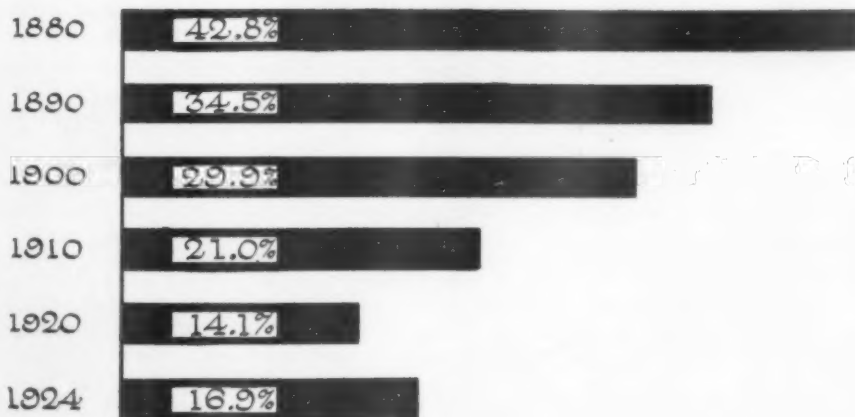
These are some of the characteristics which should mark an intelligently drafted plan for the payment of teachers:²

¹ For number and percentage of cities with salary schedules see: Table 32, page 47, "Public School Salaries in 1924-1925," *Research Bulletin*, Vol. III, Nos. 1 and 2. National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

² For a fuller exposition of these principles see: *Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923*, published by the National Education Association.

CHART III

PERCENTAGE of MEN TEACHERS in OUR ELEMENTARY and SECONDARY SCHOOLS 1880 ~ 1924



Research Division, National Education Assn.

Based on figures of the U.S. Bureau of Education.

(1) Salary schedules should tend to make teaching a profession, by recognizing the value of training and experience, and discouraging the employment of teachers with less than the accepted minimum of training.

(2) Salary schedules should serve to secure and retain competent and desirable people as teachers by:

(a) Establishing minimum salaries that will provide a desirable standard of living.

(b) Assuring a reasonable rate of progress from the established minimum salary to the maximum provided in the schedule.

(c) Promising a career in teaching through the maximum salaries provided.

(d) Making adjustments to cost of living and living conditions.

(3) Salary schedules should assure a maximum of service and professional growth from all teachers by:

(a) Arrangement of minimum salaries, maximum salaries, and the number and size of increases so that they are a constant urge to the teacher to render his best service and improve his training and preparation.

(b) Provision for financial recognition of elements increasing teachers' professional efficiency.

A wholly new attitude toward the payment of teachers has recently been adopted by several cities. They have definitely rejected the fallacy that salaries are paid to benefit teachers—that it is the teacher's welfare that is at stake when salary schedules are drafted. Rather, they have set up the principle that it is the

child's welfare that is involved in the payment of teachers' salaries. When salary schedules are determined, the future of the nation's children is also determined.

When this fact becomes clearly defined in public consciousness, action similar to that which recently took place in Chicago is the result. In this city a committee of 100 citizens aided by a sub-committee of laymen, including experts in economics, bankers, and government officials, conducted an investigation as to teachers' salaries. After two years' study a report was prepared. These principles were set up:

1. A board should establish a schedule without waiting for employees to ask for increases.

2. Salaries are paid to obtain service, not to please employees. Salaries should be fixed at such figures as will encourage people now in the service, as well as prospective candidates, to a high degree of professional preparation.

3. The salary schedule for all should be based upon a good living wage, for a married man with a family, to secure the quality of service the city requires.

With these principles as a starting point the citizens' committee obtained a number of intelligent estimates of a living wage for a professional man in Chicago. Four experts in economics also prepared budgets. Guided by these figures the committee submitted estimates as to a living wage for a professional worker in that city. These results are given in Table 4.

Guided by the figures of Table 4, the following salary schedule was proposed for Chi-

TABLE 4—YEARLY LIVING WAGE FOR PROFESSIONAL MAN AND FAMILY—CHICAGO, ILL.

	Average of 26 budgets	Average of four budgets made by experts in economics	Committee's recommen- dation
Rent and heat	\$1,079	\$1,110	\$1,000
Electricity, gas, telephone	103	115	125
Food, ice, milk	905	742	900
Replacement of furniture and equipment	120	90	100
Laundry and domestic help (occasional)	182	275	200
Clothing and its care	577	871	600
Newspapers, books, periodicals	45	45	50
Church, charity, public spirit	101	134	240
Clubs, organizations, social expense	71	86	75
Amusements, theater, opera	69	84	75
Transportation	90	86	90
Vacation	183	235	200
Health, doctor, dentist, medicines, sports	101	82	75
Insurance premiums: Life, fire, liability	206	261	170
Conventions, subscriptions	47	44	50
Saving for investment, home owning	457	457	457
Provisions for higher education for children	123	197	270
Other items	272	48	150
Total annual income	\$4,827	\$4,905	\$4,730

cago.¹ These maxima were to be reached after a number of years of service:

TEACHERS' SALARY SCHEDULE PROPOSED FOR CHICAGO

	Maximum
Elementary teachers.....	\$3250
Assistant to principals.....	3500
Junior high teachers.....	4100
High school teachers.....	4100
Elementary principals.....	6250
Junior high school principals.....	6500
Senior high school principals.....	7500
Instructor in normal college.....	5700
President of normal college.....	8000

8. *When we take teaching seriously, definite guards will be set up to prevent the admission into the profession of unqualified teachers and to prevent the continuance in the work of incompetent teachers.* The best method of barring unqualified teachers is to establish a plan for the certification of all teachers through the state department of education. We have reached the place where it is illegal anywhere in the United States to pay public funds for the services of a teacher, unless he possesses a teaching certificate. In many states, however, these certificates may be so easily obtained that they have little significance. They do not protect children from unqualified teachers. These are the practices of the states which today have adequate plans for the certification of teachers:

(a) The authority for issuing all certificates is placed in the state department of education. No one who has not met the minimum standards for qualification as a teacher can obtain a certificate to teach in any school room in the state. In 1898 but 3 states had accepted this principle. By 1919, 26 states had adopted this plan of certification. Since that time, a number of additional states have also centralized the authority for granting teaching certificates.

(b) The minimum standards necessary for qualifying as a teacher are gradually raised. This gives teachers already in service, who have less than the minimum amount of training considered desirable, an opportunity to obtain this training without losing their positions. It gives sufficient warning to prospective candidates for teaching certificates, so that they may obtain the training prerequisite for obtaining such certificates.

(c) Low grade, or temporary, certificates are no longer issued. These are certificates issued for a temporary period, usually one year at a time, to those who have less than the minimum amount of training; that is, something less than graduation from a standard teacher training institution, one which gives at least two years of professional training beyond graduation from high school.

(d) The old system of examination as a basis for issuing teaching certificates is done away with. It is recognized that a well-equipped teacher training institution is better able to testify as to the qualifications of a person for teaching, after it has had him under observation for several years, than is an examining board which gives an examination to a group who are prepared for the same by a short period of intensive "cramming."

(e) Something more than the minimum certificate is required for admission to positions which involve more than average responsibility and training. In order to be certificated for positions as supervisors, principals and superintendents, candidates must give evidence of having had an appropriate period of training, and the particular type of training and experience which fits them for these positions.

To guard against the employment of teachers rendered incompetent by advanced age, approximately half of the states of the union have adopted some definite plan for the retirement of teachers upon reaching superannuation. The map on page 188 shows that all but these states have adopted some plan for the automatic retirement of their teachers upon reaching superannuation: Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Mississippi, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Mexico, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Wyoming.²

The principles that should govern the drafting of a sound teacher retirement system have been carefully worked out.³ A teacher retirement system is nothing more than a co-operative plan of insurance, the cost of which is partly paid for by the teachers and partly by the state. It protects children from the employment of teachers after old age has rendered them incapable of effective service. These are the reasons why one state after

¹ For a more detailed statement of the facts in Chicago's unique method of arriving at a basis of teachers' salaries see the following references:

a. *Bulletin of the Department of Elementary School Principals*, Vol V, No. 1, October, 1925, pp. 35-36.
Published by the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

b. *The American School Board Journal*, December, 1925, p. 90. Published by the Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

A similar plan of procedure was recently adopted in New York City, when an investigation of teachers' salaries was recently reported by a committee of public spirited citizens.

² A few local communities in these states have adopted plans for retiring teachers.

³ For a full statement of these principles and other facts about teacher retirement systems see: "Efficient Teaching and Retirement Legislation," *Research Bulletin*, National Education Association, May, 1926.

another has considered it wise public policy to enact a law providing for the retirement of teachers:

1. *A sound teacher retirement law protects school children from teachers rendered incompetent by advanced age because:*

a. It sets up a plan whereby every teacher upon attaining old age and infirmity will have had some provision made for his retirement.

b. It frees school boards from the obligation of continuing to employ teachers formerly satisfactory, but who are now rendered incompetent by old age.

c. It removes the necessity for teachers to continue in service after their effectiveness has been seriously reduced by advanced age, or other disability.

2. *A sound teacher retirement law tends to attract capable young people into the teaching profession because:*

a. It partly compensates for the lower remuneration that teaching offers during active service.

b. It gives a better guarantee of promotion within the profession.

c. It increases the dignity of the teaching profession by keeping its ranks free of those incapacitated by old age.

3. *A sound teacher retirement system tends to keep capable teachers in the classroom, because:*

a. It makes it unnecessary for capable people to seek other employment than teaching in order to provide for their old age.

b. It makes each year of teaching service a step toward independence in old age.

4. *A sound teacher retirement system increases the efficiency of the teacher in the classroom because:*

a. It lengthens the period of teaching efficiency by relieving the teacher's mind of the fear of a destitute old age.

b. It makes it possible for a teacher to invest in study, training, and travel, without endangering the provision made for his later years.

c. It improves the morale of a teaching force by keeping open the paths of promotion.

d. It increases the child's respect for the teacher and thereby makes his work more effective.

5. *A sound teacher retirement system in the long run means a substantial saving to the general public because:*

a. It makes possible the replacement of superannuated teachers, who receive the maximum salaries, by younger teachers who begin at a smaller salary.

b. It protects the public from the waste of

an expensive school plant manned by superannuated teachers.

c. It guarantees the public a definite and valuable return for its share of the cost.

d. It prevents the enactment of ill-considered and costly "pension" systems.

e. Its cost to the general public is small when compared with the benefits received.

6. *The adoption of a sound teacher retirement system is in accord with the best thought of the day because:*

a. Private industry has already recognized retirement plans as essential to good business.

b. A retirement plan has already been put in effect in most important public services.

c. The public in general contributes billions of dollars each year for the support of insurance companies that offer protection for the future.

9. *When the American people come to take teaching seriously, they will take a positive and constructive attitude towards the efforts of teachers to improve their efficiency while in service.* School boards will encourage teachers to take out leaves of absence for obtaining additional training for their work, rather than requiring them to resign when such a step is contemplated. A number of cities have already adopted definite plans whereby teachers, after a given period of service, usually from seven to ten years, may obtain a leave of absence and receive part of their salary while engaged in an approved program of study designed to increase their effectiveness in the classroom. Other cities have adopted schemes for the payment of part of the expenses involved in attendance at summer school.

Some enlightened school boards have organized extension classes at times and in places where teachers may conveniently attend. The instruction received in these classes is definitely designed to aid teachers in the solution of their teaching problems and to improve the general efficiency of their work.

Communities which make provisions of the type described take teaching seriously. They recognize that effective teaching calls for the constant training of teachers on the job. The training received in teacher training institutions is but preliminary. It must be followed up throughout a teacher's career by work designed to keep him alive and in touch with the best work that is being done in the profession, and with the significant movements of our developing civilization.

Selected References for Further Study

BUCKINGHAM, B. R., *Supply and Demand in Teacher Training*, Ohio State University, Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, Vol. II, No. 4, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. March 15, 1926.

While this study is limited to the State of Ohio, it presents a method of attack that should serve as a basis for similar studies in other states. Compares number of "new" teachers needed each year with yearly number of graduates from teacher-training institutions, the number of graduates who taught, and the supply of trained teachers from other states.

COOK, KATHERINE M., *State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1921, No. 22. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1921.

Presents detailed information as to agencies which issue certificates, methods of securing certificates, scholarship requirements for teachers' certificates, provisions for renewing low-grade certificate, reciprocal relations among states, fees and minimum age requirements, and state laws and regulations governing teachers' certificates. Data are now being collected to bring this study up to date.

COOK, KATHERINE M., *Constructive Tendencies in Rural Education*. U. S. Bureau of Education. Bulletin, 1925, No. 25. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. "Salaries of Rural Teachers," pp. 13-16.

Emphasizes need of increased salaries in rural schools in order to attract teachers who will qualify on same basis as those of urban schools. Presents tables showing salary trends.

CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P., *Public School Administration*. New York City, N. Y., Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1916.

See Chapters XIV and XV—The Teaching Corps. Discusses selection of teachers, importance of guarding appointments, fundamental principles of action, and the training of teachers.

ROSIER, JOSEPH, *Report of the Committee on Standards, Requirements, and Credits of*

Teachers in the Service. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, July, 1926.

This report shows that practically all states still certificate some teachers, by the examination method. Laws are being passed, making it possible to certificate on the basis of completion of courses in normal schools and colleges.

SUMMERS, ALEX., *Salaries of Country Teachers in 1923*. U. S. Bureau of Education Rural School Leaflet No. 24, April, 1924. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

Analysis and tabulation of data representing 1864 counties and covering salaries of 191,421 teachers and 12,500 principals in country schools.

WALSH, M. J., *Teaching as a Profession*. New York, Henry Holt Company, 1926, 387 p.

Points out that the legal requirement of certification is recognition of the fact that the public should be protected from the unqualified practitioner. Presents data showing tendency toward centralization of certifying authority.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Research Bulletin, Vol. I, No. 3, *Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923*. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., May, 1923, 115 p.

Presents extensive data as to teachers' salaries and salary trends in 1922-1923; gives provisions of salary schedules in the cities of the United States, 1922-1923; includes illustrations of salary schedules in operation in 1923; and lays down principles and standards involved in the making and administration of Teachers' Salary Schedules.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Research Bulletin, Vol. III, Nos. 1 and 2, January and March, 1925. *Public School Salaries in 1924-1925*. National Education Association, Washington, D. C., 72 p.

Sets forth five reasons for adequate salary schedules; answers the question, have teachers' salaries been increased; gives extensive data as to salaries paid all groups of school employees in 1924-1925; and presents provisions and special features of 1924-1925 salary schedules.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Research Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 5. *The Problem of Teacher Tenure*, Washington, D. C., National Education Association, November, 1924, p. 136-137.

Presents a comprehensive treatment of the tenure problem in the United States; analyzes present and proposed state teacher tenure laws; surveys local tenure regulations; cites teacher tenure provisions in foreign countries; reviews court cases affecting teacher tenure; and includes texts of Teacher Tenure Laws.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, *Teacher Tenure in the United States*. Report of the Committee of One Hundred, July, 1926. Washington, D. C., National Education, 22 p.

Reviews work of National Education Association Tenure Committee and presents an extensive annotated bibliography.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Research Bulletin, Vol. IV, No. 3. *Efficient Teaching and Retirement Legislation*. Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1926, 72 p.

Presents a critical review of the fundamental principles on which retirement systems are based. Tells where state and local retirement laws are in effect and analyzes their major provisions. Gives facts as to cost of operating retirement systems. Includes a directory of the secretaries of state and local retirement systems. States why every teacher and every citizen should be interested in sound teacher retirement legislation and why every state should pass such legislation. A roll call by states shows plans under way affecting retirement legislation. The complete text of a state retirement law is included together with a statement of the main provisions of eleven state retirement laws. Selected, annotated bibliography.

BUT AFTER ALL our schools do more than merely transmit knowledge and training; they are America itself in miniature, where, in a purer air and under wise guidance, a whole life of citizenship is levied experimentally with its social contacts, its recreations, its ethical problems, its political practice, its duties and its rewards. Ideals are developed that shape the whole adult life. Experience is gained that is valuable for all the years of maturity. I would be one of the last people in the world to belittle the importance of the exact knowledge that teachers impart to their pupils—as an engineer I set a high value upon precise information—but knowledge, however exact, is secondary to a trained mind and serves no useful purpose unless it is the servant of an ambitious mind, a sound character, and an idealistic spirit. Social values outrank economic values. Economic gains, even scientific gains, are worse than useless if they accrue to a people unfitted by trained character to use, and not abuse them.—*Herbert Hoover, "Education as a National Asset," Department of Superintendence, Official Report, 1926, page 66.*

A Trained and Understanding Administrative and Supervisory Staff

What are the functions performed in a modern school system? One cannot appreciate the complexity of a modern school system until he begins analyzing its functions and considering the necessary buildings and equipment, and the personnel required to carry out the intricate and important job of training young citizens.

In the discussion of an adequate school plant on pages 199 and 200 of this Bulletin, some of the new and complex functions of the modern school are pointed out and the many and varied needs in the way of sites, buildings, and equipment are listed. Someone has to be responsible for the careful planning which should accompany the building up of the physical equipment of a school system. Provision must be made for the effective and economical operation and upkeep of school buildings. Plans must be made for keeping playgrounds open before and after school and on Saturdays. Supplies, textbooks, and other equipment must be purchased. Engineers, janitors, book-keepers, and clerks must be employed. Courses of study must be developed for all branches from the kindergarten through the high school. Careful methods must be developed for the selection of teachers for the various school units and types of instruction. An adequate plan of supervision and training in service must be developed if instruction is to be kept on a high level. A continuing census must be kept of all children of school age. Attendance laws must be enforced and attendance records kept. Adult education must be cared for through Americanization and evening classes and home teachers. A well rounded program of research must be conducted if the school system is to take advantage of the products of modern thought and scientific discovery. Individual children must be studied, if their needs and aptitudes are to be discovered and given proper consideration. Careful statistical records of all the school's activities must be kept up-to-date.

The management of a modern school system is a difficult and complex task which requires a skilled executive who selects capable

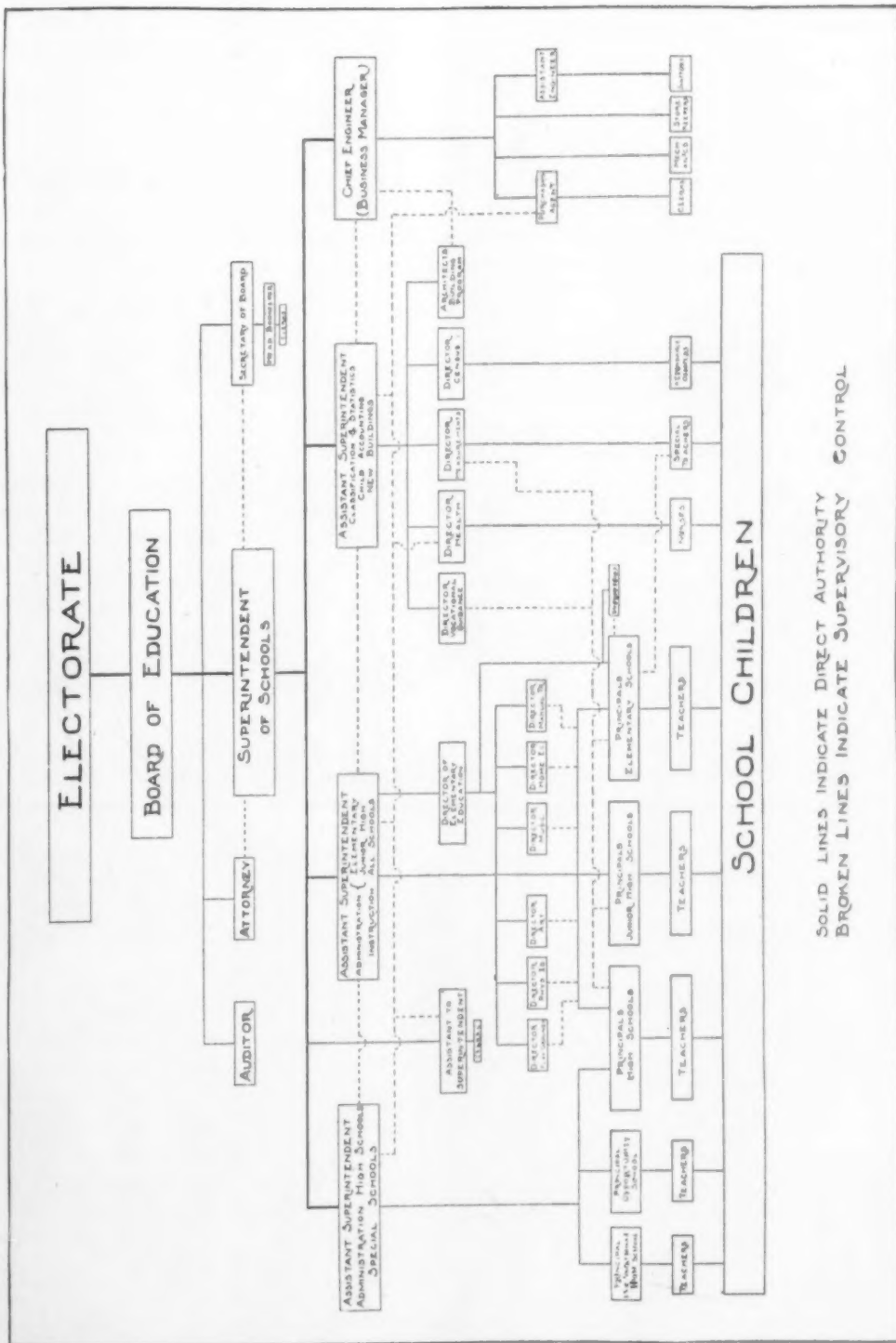
and technically trained assistants to whom he delegates many of the details of administration and supervision.

Chart IV shows the organization of the administrative and supervisory staff of one well-developed school system. Such a complex organization employing a hundred or more executives and supervisors and thousands of teachers calls for a far higher type of executive ability than did the old one-room school.

What salaries do school administrators, directors, and supervisors receive? Table 5 gives the median salaries paid administrative officers, directors and supervisors in cities of five population groups. When one considers the responsibilities which these positions involve, and the native ability and extensive training required to fill them satisfactorily, one is faced with these questions: Are the present salaries of our school administrative and supervisory staffs adequate? Why should they be lower than those of many factory superintendents who are often responsible for fewer people, the administration of smaller budgets, and the production of material goods, rather than the development of citizens, fired with ambition, ideals, and a spirit of service?

In any consideration of a trained and understanding administrative and supervisory staff, we must remember that it is the child's welfare, not the administrator's or the supervisor's welfare that is primarily at issue. When we employ our school administrators and supervisors we are to a large extent determining the kind of instruction our children will receive in the public schools. Whether or not school plants, equipment, and the teaching body render the maximum amount of service depends on the administration. Expert supervision is necessary to secure a high percentage of efficiency in meeting the individual needs of every child of school age. A grave responsibility rests upon the superintendent of schools in those school systems which enrol thousands of children. Like the industrial engineer, he is faced with the problem of rendering maximum service with the resources at his command. Too often demands for increased and additional forms of

CHART IV
ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF A MODERN SCHOOL SYSTEM



service are made on the public school without an accompanying increase in school funds.

These facts face us squarely with these questions:

1. How are the public schools in my city administered?

2. Is the present administration receiving adequate financial and moral support from the community?

For those desiring additional information on the topics briefly discussed in this section, these references will be of interest.

Selected References on School Administration and Supervision

ANDERSEN, W. N. *A Manual for School Officers*. Century Co., 1925.

BURTON, WILLIAM H. *Supervision and the Improvement of Teaching*. Appleton, 1924.

CHICAGO PRINCIPALS' CLUB, Education Committee, Margaret Madden, Chairman, *Supervision*, Bulletin No. 2, 1924. Chicago Principals' Club, Chicago, Illinois.

CUBBERLEY, E. P. *Public School Administration*. Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1916.

CUBBERLEY, E. P. *The Principal and His School*. Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1923.

DEFFENBAUGH, W. S. *Administration of Schools in the Smaller Cities*, Bulletin, 1922, No. 2, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office.

GIST, ARTHUR S. *Elementary School Supervision*. Scribner's, 1926.

HUNTER, FRED M. "The Relation of Supervision to the Attainment of the Major Objectives of Elementary Education." *National Education Association. Addresses and Proceedings*, pp. 908-914. Washington, 1924.

JUDD, CHARLES H. "School Expansion and Personnel," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 23, pp. 495-503, March, 1923.

KYTE, GEORGE C. *Reorganization and Administration of an Elementary School to Meet the Needs of a Community*. University of California, Publications in Education, Vol. II, No. 2, Berkeley, California.

TABLE 5—MEDIAN SALARIES PAID ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICERS, DIRECTORS, AND SUPERVISORS IN CITIES OF FIVE POPULATION GROUPS, IN 1925-26

Officers	Cities over 100,000	Cities 30,000 to 100,000	Cities 10,000 to 30,000	Cities 5,000 to 10,000 ¹	Cities 2,500 to 5,000 ¹
1	2	3	4	5	6
Administrators:					
Superintendent.....	\$9,000	\$6,000	\$4,500	\$3,600	\$3,200
Associate or Asst. Supt.....	5,200	4,000	3,000	2,450	3,600
Secretary of Board.....	4,310	2,500	1,000	420	300
Business Manager.....	5,000	3,400	2,550	2,150	1,620
Supt. of Buildings and Grounds.....	3,800	2,600	1,920	1,800	2,100
Secretary to Superintendent.....	2,100	1,610	1,300	1,080	850
Chief Attendance Officer.....	3,000	1,895	1,200	540	300
Director of Research.....	4,010	2,700	2,025	1,800	2,000
Directors and Supervisors:					
Kindergarten.....	3,000	2,000	1,493	1,475	1,250
Primary Grades.....	3,150	2,500	2,050	1,800	1,800
Intermediate Grades.....	3,340	2,775	2,400	2,050	2,000
Junior High Schools.....	4,000	3,000	2,700	1,800	2,200
High Schools.....	6,000	3,750	3,300	2,600	2,000
Continuation Schools.....	3,100	2,700	1,900	1,625	1,418
Evening Schools.....	3,600	800	400	300	240
Americanization.....	2,650	2,000	352	300	275
Vocational Education.....	3,875	3,175	2,475	2,050	2,000
Manual Training.....	3,600	2,775	2,155	2,000	1,850
Home Economics.....	3,000	2,291	1,705	1,500	1,440
Health.....	3,600	1,825	1,600	1,200	1,500
Physical Education.....	3,500	2,700	2,200	1,800	1,800
Art.....	3,200	2,200	1,800	1,600	1,450
Music.....	3,313	2,500	1,900	1,588	1,440
Penmanship.....	2,810	2,172	1,700	1,500	1,280
Attendance Officers.....	1,950	1,800	855	450	260

¹ Figures for 1924-25.

A Living and Developing Curriculum Adapted to Social and Individual Needs

When a nation shapes its schools, it shapes the thinking of its future citizens. The influence of the school is deep-seated. It deals with plastic children. It fixes in the child's developing nervous system ways of thinking and habits of conduct that will be a part of him throughout life. What the child really learns will more or less completely control the habits and ideals of the future citizen.

The number of topics crowded into the public school curriculum by state legislative enactment shows an increasing faith on the part of the public in the ability of the school to modify habits of action and attitudes of thought. There is not a supporter of a new cause who does not attempt to have it adopted as a subject in the school curriculum. A recent review of legislation prescribing what shall be taught in the schools shows that in the last twenty years there has been a sixty percent increase in the number of subjects prescribed by legislation.¹

The danger of legislative enactments affecting "the freedom of teaching" is suggested by Dean James E. Russell of Teachers College, who writes:

The trend of public opinion in matters educational is part and parcel of the tendency of the times to shape conduct by legal enactment. Whether we like it or not, some school boards will sit in judgment on history texts and some will bar out modern science. The war taught us that German could be eliminated from our schools. Who knows what labor unionists, or chambers of commerce, or Biblical fundamentalists will insist on next? I foresee trouble enough to keep us from stagnation. Once a homogeneous group, bent on having its own way, gets the notion that the schools can be used to promote its particular tenets, that group will surely seek to shape educational procedure. As soon as one group succeeds in influencing school affairs, some other group will rise in opposition and demand to be heard. This is no idle speculation; parties and sects and unions are even now contending for preferment in a way embarrassing to those who look for the larger good.

The danger foreseen is this: Statutory requirements relative to the teaching of particular topics may be ill considered, the result of temporary enthusiasms, the action of propagandists. Thoughtful action, carefully considered in relation to the general welfare and to the public school curriculum as a whole, on the part of lay as well as professional groups will always be helpful. This leads to the question, what are the essential relationships between state legislatures, state boards of education, and the local community?

Those who have given considerable thought to these relationships, in an effort to define them in terms of what is best for the public good, state them as follows:

1. The state legislature shall state only major educational objectives in general terms. Laws should be fundamental and general rather than detailed and specific. In most instances the laws should state ideals to be attained rather than subjects to be taught.
2. The State Board of Education, in conference with and advised by its educational experts, both state and local, should set up, in not too great detail such curricular requirements and time allotments as are deemed essential to the attainment of the major educational objectives fixed by the legislature.

Whether one approves or disapproves of narrow statutory requirements, affecting the elementary school curriculum, the fact cannot be denied, as one reviews the 926 curricular prescriptions on the statute books of the 48 states in 1923, that the people have clearly decreed that they expect the public school to do far more than give training in a few simple skills.

The twentieth century has given us a new conception as to the function of the public schools. Formerly the work of the school was complete when the child had attained the ability to write a legible hand, to read, and to perform simple mathematical calculations.

¹ Flanders, Jesse Knowlton, *Legislative Control of the Elementary Curriculum*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City. 1925, 242 pp.

Today the child acquires the valuable skills known as the three R's and becomes more proficient in them as he applies them in the study of such subjects as hygiene, history, civics, science, music, and art. Through these subjects he comes into possession of habits of thought and action that mold his character for public service.

The child of the old-time school memorized certain facts and acquired a few simple skills. Such an education does not fit a child for modern life. To illustrate: It is not enough that a child be able to read aloud in a halting voice. He must learn to read silently, accurately, and with rapidity. He must acquire the habit of reading. He must be given the ability, insofar as his innate capacity permits, to discriminate between trash and literature. No lower ideals than these should be accepted in the teaching of reading if the foundation for intelligent citizenship is to be laid. And so it is with every subject in the curriculum. The modern school seeks to create an environment made up of real life situations. The new

course of study calls for the mastery of life as it is today and is to be tomorrow.

One of the public school's greatest virtues is its flexibility. The American public school's ability to modify its organization and the content of its curriculum stands out as unique in the history of educational systems. The public school is recognizing that the educational methods which sufficed in the eighteenth century will not do for the twentieth.

It is true that the public school is not achieving its growth without growing pains but these should not be mistaken for organic disease. He who condemns the school for its efforts to adapt its organization, methods, and curriculum content to the needs of an age of rapid change condemns the school for one of its greatest virtues. It is this characteristic that has enabled the school to hold and strengthen its position as a constructive institution. A static school in a dynamic civilization soon loses its influence.

Hundreds of school systems are finding it

FIGURE IV TEACHING SPELLING in 1900



necessary to revise their courses of study because of (1) The rapidity of change in modern life, (2) the complexity of modern life, (3) increases in school attendance and pupil heterogeneity, and (4) advances in educational science and psychology.

The metamorphosis of the old-time curriculum. A new curriculum is emerging with new content, suited more nearly to present-day life needs. It 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. These are some of the striking contrasts between the old and the new curriculum. The old curriculum was handed down by the school superintendent; the new curriculum is being built by all the school forces working in democratic cooperation. The old curriculum was static. The new curriculum continues to grow. The content of the old curriculum was usually selected on the basis of tradition or imitation of what was done in other school systems. The content of the new curriculum is usually selected

on the basis of (1) the needs, abilities, and interests of the particular pupils for whom it is built, (2) results of occupational or job analyses, (3) pooled judgment of thoughtful men and women as to the human abilities and characteristics which are most desirable for adult citizens, and (4) findings of research, as to the best educational practices. The old curriculum finished the child's education. The new curriculum begins the child's education. The old curriculum called for mastery of facts. The new curriculum calls for mastery of life.

Guesswork need no longer be the only basis of selecting what to teach and how to teach. Research concerning what to teach is largely remaking the content and organization of school subjects. Consider one of the simple tool subjects—spelling. Twenty-five years ago, "learn the dictionary" was the objective set up before the child. Today we ask a child to learn those words which are most frequently used in business and social correspondence. Extensive research has shown that 1000 words

FIGURE V TEACHING SPELLING IN 1926



and their repetitions make up considerably more than half of those used in ordinary writing. If the average person can spell the 3000 most common words in the English language, he will seldom find it necessary to use the dictionary.

Figures IV and V contrast the old and the new methods of teaching spelling. Formerly a whole class including both the dullest and brightest lined up together to spell orally words whose distinguishing characteristics were often their difficulty and abstruseness.

Today children are drilled on words commonly used. Time is saved and interest stimulated by having each child compete against his own record, prepare spelling lists of words which he, himself, has missed and which he needs to study.

What is the teacher's part in curriculum building? Under the leadership of specialists, teachers can give and receive help in these seven ways: (1) By reading the best books on the curriculum, (2) by helping to analyze present American life needs, (3) by becoming familiar with the local environment in which pupils are growing up, (4) by evaluating the existing local curriculum, (5) by familiarizing themselves with the best current practice, (6) by studying the abilities, interests, and growth wants of developing children, and (7) by bringing to bear on the problem of curriculum revision the results of their experience as to what is practical and advisable in the way of class-room procedure.

Teachers who share in curriculum building discover that this task is as big as life itself. They gladly seek the aid of specialists, scientific experimentation, and the best books on the subject. Below are listed references which they have found helpful.

References useful to course of study committees. Two short lists are presented here, one dealing with the newer conceptions of education, and the other with general curricular problems:

New Conceptions of Education

CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P., *Changing Conceptions of Education*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1909.

CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P., *An Introduction to the Study of Education*. Chapter XV, The Curriculum and Educational Reorganization, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1925.

DEWEY, JOHN AND EVELYN, *The Schools of Tomorrow*, Dutton, 1915.

DEWEY, JOHN, *Democracy and Education*, Macmillan, 1916.

SUZZALLO, HENRY, *Our Faith in Education*, J. B. Lippincott, 1924.

THE NEW REPUBLIC, Educational Section, "The Elementary School." Vol. 40, No. 519, Part II, November 12, 1924.

General Curricular Problems

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, *Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum*. Third Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1925.

— — —, *The Nation at Work on the Public School Curriculum*, Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, 1926.

— — —, *Keeping Pace with the Advancing Curriculum*, Research Bulletin, Vol. III, Nos. 4 and 5, September and November, 1925, National Education Association.

BOBBITT, FRANKLIN, *The Curriculum*, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1918.

BOBBITT, FRANKLIN, *How to Make a Curriculum*, Houghton, Mifflin, 1924.

BONSER, FREDERICK G., *The Elementary School Curriculum*, Macmillan Co., 1922.

CHARTERS, W. W., *Curriculum Construction*, Macmillan Co., 1923.

McMURRAY, CHARLES A., *How to Organize a Curriculum*, Macmillan, 1923.

An Adequate School Plant

New school functions demand modern school buildings and suitable equipment. When reading, writing, and arithmetic were the only subjects taught in our public schools, a black-board, slate and pencil, and some primers were often the only equipment provided. Today the school's work has merely begun when the child has been given a command of the fundamental processes. By legislative enactment and popular demand the people of the nation have decreed that the public school shall equip children for life in a variety of ways. Each of the modern objectives of school training, to be successfully fulfilled, requires a different type of building, site and equipment than were needed by the schools of yesterday.

Sound physiques and healthful habits of living are products expected from school attendance. In terms of school equipment this requires more than the diluted treatises on anatomy used in the early attempts of the school toward the attainment of the good health objective. Even the modern textbooks on health constitute but a small part of the necessary equipment. Well ventilated, properly heated and lighted classrooms, equipped with desks or tables suited to the needs of

growing children, rooms for health and dental clinics, and gymnasiums—all of these are essentials of a modern school building.

The building should be located on an adequate site. This is requisite if playground activities are to be properly developed. The crowded one and two acre sites of the past, with little more than enough room for the building, should be accepted only under the most unusual circumstances. Such sites are rapidly disappearing. A recent survey of the size of school sites purchased for elementary schools, to accommodate from 800 to 1600 pupils, indicates that the majority are three acres or more, while one-third of the elementary school buildings erected in cities since 1920 have been placed on sites of from 5 to 10 acres.

Sites for junior and senior high schools should be larger than this. The provision of school grounds of twenty and even thirty acres for such schools is becoming the practice more and more. Such sites are necessary if future expansion is to be provided for. The purchase of large school plots when land is cheap requires a smaller public outlay than does the purchase of additions to small plots after land values have risen.

CHART V

SIZE of MODERN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SITES ~ BUILDINGS for 800 PUPILS or MORE



Read chart as follows: Of a total of 51 elementary school sites for buildings purchased since 1920 and accommodating 800 or more pupils, 23.5% were less than 3 acres. Based on data collected by the Research Division of the National Education Association.

Research Division, National Education Assn.

Worthy home membership is another objective of the modern school. In terms of equipment this requires cooking and sewing rooms, laundry rooms, outfitted with sewing machines, washing machines and electric irons. Every type of equipment essential to establishing the highest ideals in home-making should be provided in the courses in household arts in the public schools.

Vocational efficiency is also a modern, educational objective. In terms of equipment this means printing shops, drafting rooms, machine and sheet metal and automobile shops. It means that certain classrooms are equipped with typewriters, adding machines, and comptometers. It means laboratories, equipped with chemicals, scientific apparatus, and biological specimens. Provided with such equipment the child can be given the insight into occupational life necessary for the intelligent choice of a life work. Without such equipment the school loses its touch with real life and follows behind rather than points the way to advancing civilization.

The school can make no greater contribution than by training for the worthy use of that two-edged sword of modern industrialism—leisure time. All signs point toward a continuance of the tendency to shorten the number of working hours a week. For the first time in the world's history the masses of a population have at their disposal considerably more time than is necessary to obtain the necessities of life. How will this time be used? In enervating or energizing pursuits? The school can play an important rôle in determining the answer.

In terms of school equipment this means musical instruments for bands and orchestras, auditoriums with projecting and motion picture apparatus, and stages with curtains and screens. It means a well stocked library with books selected with the capacities, needs and interests of children in mind. It means copies of the paintings of great masters, and artists' materials for children to work with.

If the school is to offer a chance to practice life under conditions that are ideal for acquiring habits and attitudes that make for individual and social efficiency, then the school plant must provide all of the equipment demanded by civilized life on a high level. If

libraries, auditoriums, typing, cooking, and sewing rooms, shops and playgrounds are an important part of the equipment for worthy living, then the school must have these. Otherwise, it becomes an antiquated institution, looking backward rather than forward, driving children through a tread-mill of obsolete subject matter which has little bearing upon present or future life.

Intelligent versus hit-or-miss procedure in obtaining a modern school plant. School systems cannot obtain modern buildings, adequate sites and suitable equipment by hit-or-miss methods. There exist too many examples of the bad result of the old hand-to-mouth policy of securing school plants to recommend such a method. Procedures have been devised and put into practice whereby intelligent, far-sighted methods may become the basis of obtaining school plants. These are some of the characteristics of a modern school building program:

(1) The program is worked out as a unit so that a complete and coordinated series of sites and buildings is obtained.

(2) Future as well as present needs are considered. Attempts are made to predict plant needs that will exist five, ten and twenty years in the future.

(3) Facts, rather than guess-work, become the basis of recommendations. The locations of the homes of all school children are accurately plotted. The rate and the direction of school population growth is known.

Modern school systems seek to develop their school plants by methods similar to those used by telephone, gas and electric light companies, and other public utilities which predict future demands by the most careful procedures.

Essential qualities of a modern school building. Not only must the building program as a whole be scientifically devised, but each individual building must possess certain characteristics if it is to meet modern standards. These nine features should be characteristic of all schools according to a recent report of the Committee on School House Planning of the National Education Association:¹

- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Adaptation to educational needs | 5. Flexibility |
| 2. Safety | 6. Convenience |
| 3. Healthfulness | 7. Durability |
| 4. Expansiveness | 8. Aesthetic fitness |
| | 9. Economy |

¹ National Education Association, *Report of Committee on School House Planning*, Frank Irving Cooper, Chairman, Washington, D. C. 1925. 164 p.

The need for school building research. Money is sometimes wasted because local school boards fail to obtain the information necessary to prevent construction of school buildings that are:

1. Inflammable and unhealthful
2. Ill suited to type of instruction for which they are intended
3. Not placed with reference to future growth
4. Situated on poorly selected sites
5. Financed by wasteful bonding methods
6. Proportioned poorly as to space allotments for different functions.

How much is spent for school buildings and sites? In 1924 the value of all property used for school purposes was \$3,744,780,714, or \$154 for every pupil enrolled. Table 6 shows that the average value of school property per pupil enrolled varies from \$272 in Nevada to \$39 in Georgia and Mississippi. This does not necessarily mean that Nevada has seven times more adequate school property for each child than does Georgia and Mississippi, for such factors as density of population and varying bases for estimating property valuation enter in to reduce the comparability of these figures.

The postponement of school building programs during the war period, the rapid increase in school enrolment, and the enlarged functions of the public schools have necessitated large expenditures for school buildings. In 1922, \$305,940,965 was spent in the United States for school buildings, sites, and new equipment; and in 1924, \$388,469,143.

What progress has been made in replacing the costly one-room school with consolidated graded schools? The one-room school is an effective means of making poor education costly. In 1924, 263,204 school buildings were in use in the United States and of this number 157,034, or approximately 60 percent, were one-room school houses. Table 7 shows that this percentage varies from 87.3 in Nebraska to 12.1 in Utah. The hopeful side of the story is that in 1924 there were 14,232 consolidated schools in the United States, and of this number 1,053 were established in 1923-1924.

A basic consideration. In any consideration of school-house planning and construction, we must realize that it is the child's welfare that is at stake. It is the children who suffer when inflammable, poorly ventilated, inadequately

lighted, and inconveniently located school buildings are constructed. This fact faces one squarely with these questions:

Are the school children in my school district adequately housed? Are the sites adequate?

Does the school building program in my district provide for expansion of activities and growth of the school district?

Do the plans for the new school buildings provide for the least possible waste of space and the greatest possible efficiency?

What progress has been made in my state in replacing the costly one-room school with consolidated, graded schools?

References for Further Study on School Building Programs

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, *Report of Committee on School House Planning*, Frank Irving Cooper, Chairman, Washington, D. C., National Education Association, 1925, 164 p.

Outlines eleven necessary steps in planning and constructing a school building; lists essential qualities of a school site; shows how to determine schedule of rooms, and necessary capacity of rooms and how to detect waste in the plan; discusses problem of illumination, and ways of estimating cost of a school building.

DRESSLER, FLETCHER B., *American School Buildings*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1924, No. 17. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1925.

Discusses such factors as location of a schoolhouse, planning, construction and equipment, lighting, heating, and ventilation.

FOWLKES, JOHN GUY, AND CARLILE, AMOS B., *Bibliography on School Buildings*. University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin, No. 6, March, 1925, Madison, Wisconsin.

Annotated bibliography including books, magazine articles, bulletins, and score cards relating to various types of school buildings.

OAKLAND BOARD OF EDUCATION, *Book of Standards for the Erection of School Buildings*, Oakland, California, May, 1926.

TABLE 6—TOTAL VALUE OF SCHOOL PROPERTY AND AVERAGE VALUE PER PUPIL ENROLLED IN 1924

States	Value of all property used for school purposes, 1924	Average value of school property per pupil enrolled 1924	Index of average value of school property per pupil enrolled 1924
1	2	3	4
United States.....	\$3,744,780,714	\$154	1.00
Alabama.....	32,598,301	54	.35
Arizona.....	12,131,560	164	1.06
Arkansas.....	24,242,357	48	.31
California.....	234,624,580	230	1.49
Colorado.....	43,100,821	174	1.13
Connecticut.....	65,175,224	226	1.47
Delaware.....	5,820,641	150	.97
District of Columbia.....	15,242,000	212	1.38
Florida.....	24,750,084	93	.60
Georgia.....	29,273,605	39	.25
Idaho.....	19,683,692	168	1.09
Illinois.....	259,958,866	198	1.29
Indiana.....	110,099,296	177	1.15
Iowa.....	103,260,106	194	1.26
Kansas.....	72,348,432	170	1.10
Kentucky.....	36,110,583	64	.42
Louisiana.....	32,781,626	84	.55
Maine.....	25,923,465	176	1.14
Maryland.....	28,264,507	110	.71
Massachusetts.....	145,023,851	197	1.28
Michigan.....	191,422,457	233	1.51
Minnesota.....	127,702,557	235	1.53
Mississippi.....	21,793,087	39	.25
Missouri.....	100,440,136	138	.90
Montana.....	27,804,250	236	1.53
Nebraska.....	61,641,188	189	1.23
Nevada.....	4,338,678	272	1.77
New Hampshire.....	14,315,980	193	1.25
New Jersey.....	170,547,849	257	1.67
New Mexico.....	9,074,679	103	.67
New York.....	459,814,079	238	1.55
North Carolina.....	59,768,005	75	.49
North Dakota.....	37,111,668	212	1.38
Ohio.....	171,083,252	143	.93
Oklahoma.....	72,428,093	111	.72
Oregon.....	35,074,302	200	1.30
Pennsylvania.....	331,185,244	184	1.19
Rhode Island.....	18,634,419	176	1.14
South Carolina.....	28,468,832	61	.40
South Dakota.....	31,039,310	191	1.24
Tennessee.....	32,798,942	50	.32
Texas.....	114,323,830	96	.62
Utah.....	21,515,217	165	1.07
Vermont.....	8,620,947	134	.87
Virginia.....	44,683,739	80	.52
Washington.....	61,400,873	194	1.26
West Virginia.....	48,348,747	121	.79
Wisconsin.....	108,815,260	203	1.32
Wyoming.....	10,171,497	197	1.28

Figures in columns 2 and 3 taken from *Statistics of State School Systems, 1923-24*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 42, p. 17.

Read column 4 as follows: The average value of school property per child (\$154), in the U. S. is given the value 1.00. School property in Alabama worth \$54 per child is given the value .35—which means that school property in this state is worth 35% as much per child as in the nation as a whole. School property in Arizona has 6 per cent greater value per child than in the country as a whole. Similarly read index figures for other states.

THERE ARE no greater possibilities of productive activity than in the lives of teachers. It is true that they could remake the nation.—Charles H. Judd.

Includes copies of architects' and engineers' contracts, general contract for erection of schools, affidavit of bidders, and information for bidders. Lists detailed standards for criticism of specifications of elementary, junior high schools, and high school buildings.

STRAYER AND ENGELHARDT, *Standards for School Buildings*. Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

Two publications are available; one for high school and one for elementary school buildings. Gives score cards for scoring buildings and sites according to standards explained in some detail.

TABLE 7—NUMBER OF SCHOOL BUILDINGS BY STATES

States	Number school buildings used in 1924	Consolidated schools		Number one-room school-houses used 1924	Per cent of total school buildings used in 1924 which were one room
		Number established during 1923-24	Total number 1924		
1	2	3	4	5	6
United States.....	263,204	1,053	14,232	157,034	59.65
Alabama.....	6,427	49	455	3,365	52.36
Arizona.....	525	12	36	235	44.76
Arkansas.....	6,622		170	3,800	57.38
California.....	5,400	7	149	1,765	32.69
Colorado.....	2,692		166	1,779	66.08
Connecticut.....	1,468			603	41.08
Delaware.....	420	2	14	267	63.57
District of Columbia.....	157				
Florida.....	2,432		151	945	38.86
Georgia.....	8,033	212	510	4,350	54.15
Idaho.....	1,707	1	46	1,001	58.64
Illinois.....	14,022		123	10,085	71.92
Indiana.....	7,235	138	1,024	3,452	47.71
Iowa.....	11,885		388	9,558	80.42
Kansas.....	9,326	9	172	7,278	78.04
Kentucky.....	7,588	40	344	6,122	80.68
Louisiana.....	3,465		391	1,681	48.51
Maine.....	2,865		38	2,142	74.76
Maryland.....	2,456			1,450	59.04
Massachusetts.....	2,984			755	25.30
Michigan.....	8,700		250	6,558	75.38
Minnesota.....	9,204	13	379	7,520	81.70
Mississippi.....	6,000		1,200	800	13.33
Missouri.....	10,092	15	226		
Montana.....	3,561	6	98	2,481	69.67
Nebraska.....	7,434		98	6,492	87.33
Nevada.....	363		10	253	69.70
New Hampshire.....	1,106		21	701	63.38
New Jersey.....	2,210	4	274	579	26.20
New Mexico.....	1,386			822	60.03
New York.....	11,828	29	433	8,433	71.30
North Carolina.....	7,360	200	691	2,989	40.61
North Dakota.....	5,098	17	472	4,293	84.21
Ohio.....	9,720		1,736	5,631	57.93
Oklahoma.....	6,261	5	440	3,647	58.25
Oregon.....	2,783	8	60	1,648	59.22
Pennsylvania.....	13,875	38	423	8,219	59.24
Rhode Island.....	508	1	5	107	21.06
South Carolina.....	4,594	36	342	2,561	55.75
South Dakota.....	5,319		125	4,630	87.05
Tennessee.....	6,685	80	632	4,026	60.22
Texas.....	12,278	75	788	5,048	41.11
Utah.....	710			86	12.11
Vermont.....	1,443		59	1,126	78.03
Virginia.....	6,409		625	3,440	53.67
Washington.....	3,116	26	337	1,614	51.80
West Virginia.....	7,795	29	204	5,045	64.72
Wisconsin.....	8,277		74	6,472	78.19
Wyoming.....	1,380		53	1,170	84.78

Figures in columns 2, 3, 4, and 5 taken from *Statistics of State School Systems, 1923-24*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 42, p. 16.

NAPOLEON'S PHRASE, 'every career opened to talent' is the motto of the public schools of the future. I believe in the free public training of both the hands and the mind of every child.—Walter Hines Page.

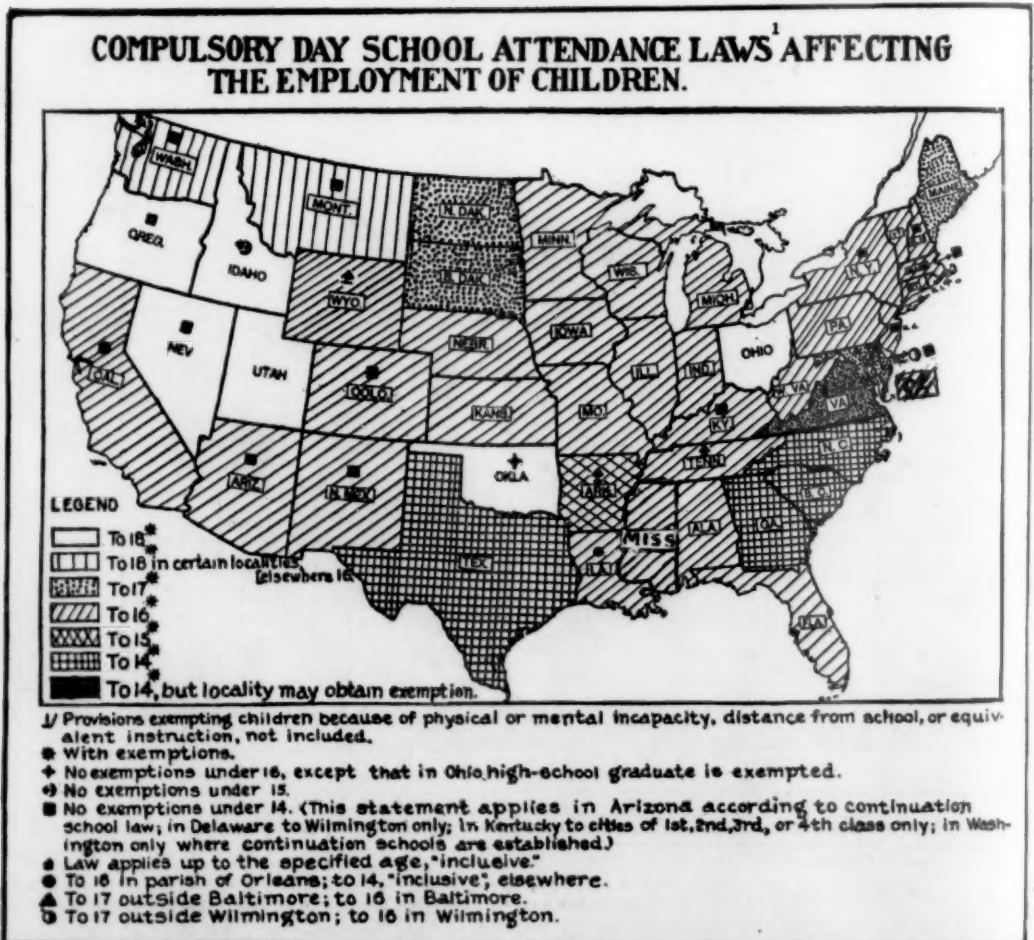
A School Term of Reasonable Length with High Regularity of Attendance

Are school attendance laws adequate and are they enforced? Every state in the union has passed compulsory school attendance laws, requiring all children to attend school full-time until at least 14 years of age. The school law in most states usually allows children above this age to be excused to go to work. Many other exemptions are permitted which weaken the effect of compulsory school attendance provisions. The map on this page shows compulsory day school attendance laws affecting

the employment of children in each state. The map on page 205 shows the compulsory part-time school attendance laws affecting employed children.

Some school attendance laws are inadequate in that the age limit is too low. Others are weak in that they contain provisions legally allowing some children to stay out of school for insufficient reasons. The chief difficulty, however, is that existing school attendance laws are not enforced. According to the 1920

FIGURE VI



The above map is taken from page 29, Children's Bureau Publication No. 114, U. S. Department of Labor, September, 1924. Changes have been made so that the map as here printed includes all legislation up to January 1, 1926.

census 1,437,783 children over seven and under fourteen years of age did not attend school a single day between September 1, 1919 and January 1, 1920.

School attendance for the United States in 1924 was 78.8 percent of the total school enrolment. Year by year school enrolment not only increases, but percentage of attendance to enrolment also increases. Chart VI shows that this percentage increased from 62.3 percent in 1880 to 78.8 percent in 1924.

According to A. B. Hill, state superintendent of schools of Arkansas, non-attendance is still the weakest spot in our school system. Unless we are able to overcome this weakness, we shall have to deal with the problem of illiteracy for years to come. Speaking in refer-

ence to his own state, Superintendent Hill states:

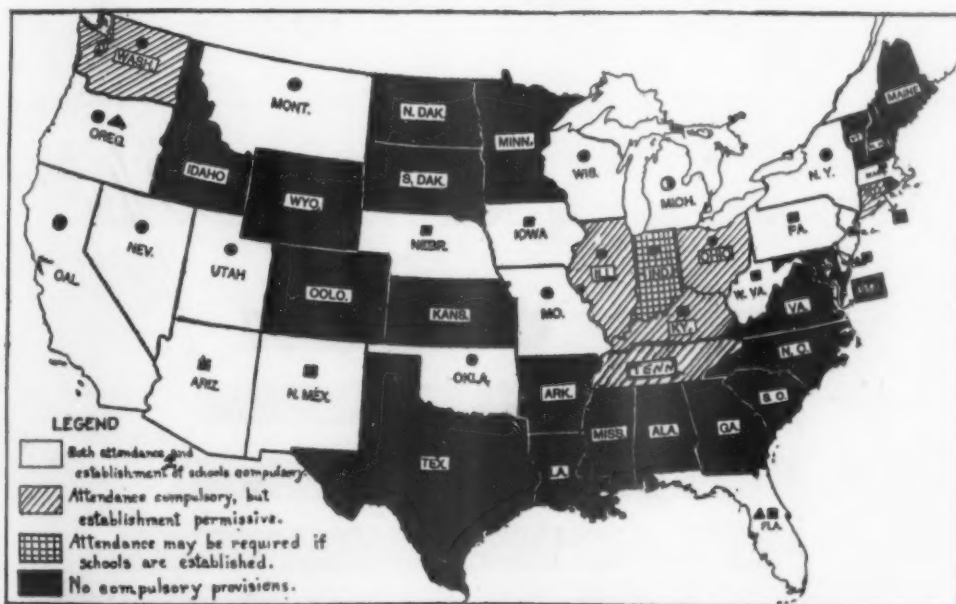
We shall never be able to give an equal educational opportunity to the children of Arkansas, until the people realize that the schools are for all the children, and that all the children must attend.

Educational opportunity afforded children in different states varies not only because of laxity of enforcement of school attendance laws, but also because of variation in length of school term.

Average length of school term in 1924 was 168 days. Chart VII and Table 8 show that in 1924 the schools of the United States were in session more days than during any previous year. The average number of days schools were in session in the several states, varied

FIGURE VII

COMPULSORY PART-TIME SCHOOL ATTENDANCE LAWS* AFFECTING EMPLOYED CHILDREN.



* Evening school laws not included. Exemptions not noted.

▲ Establishment compulsory under certain specified conditions.

■ Attendance required up to 16 years of age.

● Attendance required up to 17 years of age.

● Attendance required up to 18 years of age (in Mo. penalty applies only up to 16; in Ill. attendance required up to 17 beginning Sept. 1, 1923, to 18 beginning Sept. 1, 1925).

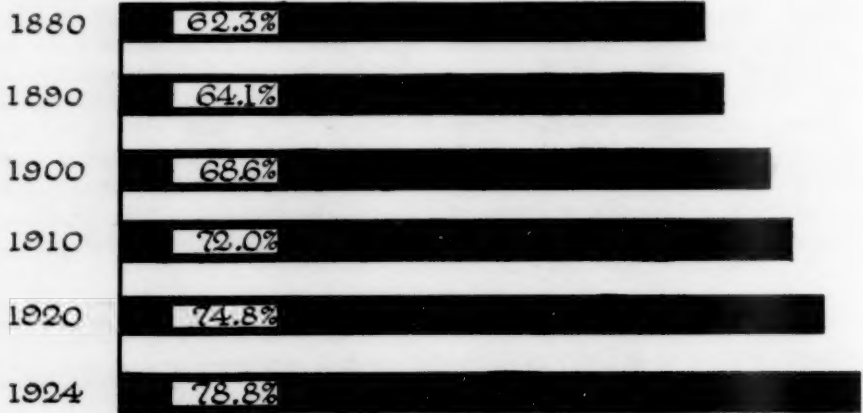
▲ Evening school attendance accepted as substitute.

The above map is taken from page 30, Children's Bureau Publication No. 114, U. S. Department of Labor, September, 1924. Changes have been made so that the map as here printed includes all legislation up to January 1, 1926. In Iowa for districts having less than 12,000 population, part-time schools may be established and after establishment attendance is compulsory.

In New York part-time school law is mandatory for cities or school districts with population of 5,000 or over where 20 minors 14 to 18 are not in full-time school attendance. Any city or school district may establish such schools, and upon establishment, attendance is compulsory.

CHART VI

PERCENTAGE of TOTAL PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLMENT in AVERAGE DAILY ATTENDANCE 1880~1924

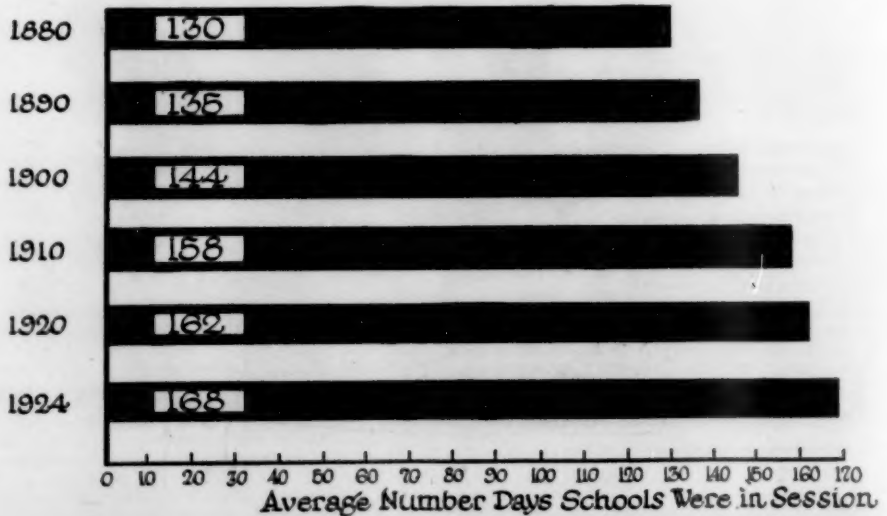


Research Division, National Education Assn.

Based on figures of U.S. Bureau of Education.

CHART VII

AVERAGE LENGTH of SCHOOL TERM 1880~1924



Research Division, National Education Assn.

Based on figures of U.S. Bureau of Education.

from 195 in Rhode Island to 119 in South Carolina.

The indices presented in Columns 8 to 11 in Table 8 show the relation of length of school term in each state to the country as a whole and what this relationship has been since 1880. Some states are lengthening their

school term, as compared with the country as a whole, and some are regressing.

Such facts face us squarely with these questions:

Has my state a law which keeps children in school until they have acquired more than

TABLE 8—AVERAGE LENGTH OF SCHOOL TERM

States	Average number of days schools were in session						Index of average length of school term			
	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1924	1880	1900	1920	1924
<i>I</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>
United States.....	130	135	144	158	162	168	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Alabama.....	81	74	78	117	123	133	.62	.54	.76	.79
Arizona.....	109	126	125	136	163	166	.84	.87	1.01	.99
Arkansas.....	75	78	107	126	135	135		.54	.78	.80
California.....	147	158	166	175	174	181	1.13	1.15	1.07	1.08
Colorado.....	132	144	150	156	168	174	1.02	1.04	1.04	1.04
Connecticut.....	179	183	189	185	184	183	1.38	1.31	1.14	1.09
Delaware.....	158	166	170	173	182	177	1.22	1.18	1.12	1.05
District of Columbia.....	193	178	179	181	178	180	1.48	1.24	1.10	1.07
Florida.....	120	93	106	133	143	143		.65	.82	.85
Georgia.....	65	83	112	144	145	140	.50	.78	.90	.83
Idaho.....	94	70	106	137	173	161	.72	.74	1.07	.96
Illinois.....	150	155	152	171	171	183	1.15	1.06	1.06	1.09
Indiana.....	136	130	156	147	156	172	1.05	1.08	.96	1.02
Iowa.....	148	156	160	172	174	176	1.14	1.11	1.07	1.05
Kansas.....	120	135	126	164	164	175	.92	.88	1.01	1.04
Kentucky.....	102	94	118	125	123	164	.78	.82	.76	.98
Louisiana.....	79	101	120	136	149	152	.61	.83	.92	.90
Maine.....	109	112	141	159	169	176	.84	.98	1.04	1.05
Maryland.....	187	184	183	185	180	185	1.44	1.27	1.11	1.10
Massachusetts.....	177	177	189	186	179	182	1.36	1.31	1.10	1.08
Michigan.....	150	156	164	171	172	178	1.15	1.14	1.06	1.06
Minnesota.....	94	128	169	149	160	179	.72	1.17	.99	1.07
Mississippi.....	75	86	101	123	122	137	.58	.70	.75	.82
Missouri.....	104	129	144	155	163	168	.80	1.00	1.01	1.00
Montana.....	96	143	107	185	166	171	.74	.74	1.02	1.02
Nebraska.....	82	140	135	174	164	173	.63	.94	1.01	1.03
Nevada.....	143	140	154	145	167	179	1.10	1.07	1.03	1.07
New Hampshire.....	105	118	148	164	174	172	.81	1.03	1.07	1.02
New Jersey.....	192	192	186	184	189	188	1.48	1.29	1.17	1.12
New Mexico.....	111	67	97	100	165	172	.85	.67	1.02	1.02
New York.....	179	187	175	188	188	188	1.38	1.22	1.16	1.12
North Carolina.....	50	59	71	102	134	143	.38	.49	.83	.85
North Dakota.....	96	113	156	147	167	165	.74	1.08	1.03	.98
Ohio.....	152	162	165	170	165	177	1.17	1.15	1.02	1.05
Oklahoma.....			95	140	166	164		.66	1.02	.98
Oregon.....	90	118	117	138	152	174	.69	.81	.94	1.04
Pennsylvania.....	133	148	167	170	177	181	1.02	1.16	1.09	1.08
Rhode Island.....	184	188	191	193	182	195	1.42	1.33	1.12	1.16
South Carolina.....	70	70	88	103	110	119	.54	.61	.68	.71
South Dakota.....		145	129	166	167	172		.90	1.03	1.02
Tennessee.....	68	86	96	130	134	148	.52	.67	.83	.88
Texas.....	72	100	108	131	156	136	.55	.75	.96	.81
Utah.....	128	133	151	165	166	169	.98	1.05	1.02	1.01
Vermont.....	126	136	156	160	162	162	.97	1.08	1.00	.96
Virginia.....	113	118	120	140	147	160	.87	.83	.91	.95
Washington.....	91	97	128	172	176	177	.70	.89	1.09	1.05
West Virginia.....	90	97	106	134	139	165	.69	.74	.86	.98
Wisconsin.....	165	159	160	180	175	177	1.27	1.11	1.08	1.05
Wyoming.....	119	120	110	141	152	175	.92	.76	.94	1.04

Figures in columns 2 to 8 from *Statistics of State School Systems, 1923-24*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1925, No. 42, p. 12.

The figure after each state in Column 8 is obtained by dividing each figure in Column 2 by 130. This gives the average school term, 130 days the value of 1; Alabama with an average term of 81 days in 1880, had an index rating of .62, see Column 8. This means that in 1880 the school term of Alabama was 62 per cent as long as that maintained by the country as a whole. In 1924, the school term of Alabama was 79 per cent (see Column 11) of that maintained by the country as a whole. Similarly interpret data in Columns 8-11 for other states.

the rudiments of an education and are really mature enough to go to work?

Has my state a law which requires employed youths under 18 years to attend part-time school?

Are the school attendance laws in my state enforced? The references given below furnish additional data on this subject.

Length of School Term and Attendance

FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. *Yearbook, 1923*. January 1, 1924. Government Printing Office, Washington, January, 1924.

Contains chart prepared by Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, showing "State Compulsory School Attendance Standard Affecting Employment of Minors," January 1, 1924. See insert, pp. 250-51. Brief summarization of the main provisions of state laws making attendance at day, continuation, and evening schools compulsory.

PHILLIPS, FRANK M. *Statistics of State School Systems, 1923-1924*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1925, No. 42. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1926.

Contains statistics on enrolment, attendance, and length of school term, by states, 1923-1924.

PHILLIPS, FRANK M. *Statistics of City School System, 1923-1924*. U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1925, No. 41. Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1926.

Financial and personnel statistics in school systems of cities grouped according to population and states.

ROSS, FRANK ALEXANDER, *School Attendance in 1920*. Census Monographs V, Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., 1924.

An analysis of school attendance in the United States and in the several states, with a discussion of the factors involved.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, *Research Bulletin*, Vol. II, No. 4. "Facts on the Public School for American Education Week." September, 1924. National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

Presents data on increase in school attendance, 1870-1922. Four charts show percent of increase in attendance, 1870 to 1922; increase in high school enrolments, 1890-1922; school enrolment in five states 1920 compared with total U. S. enrolment, 1880; decrease in number of illiterates, 1880-1920. See pp. 103-5.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, *Research Bulletin*, Vol. I, No. 4. "Five Questions for American Education Week." National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C., September, 1923.

Discusses briefly state compulsory school attendance laws and their enforcement. Table 1, p. 259 shows school age required and Table 3, page 261 presents data on attendance and length of school term, by states.

IT IS THE business of education to create within the individual the power and the means of seeing the cosmic world, the biologic world, the social and ethical worlds, in their relations one to the other. It should be the object and result of education that every man and woman should be able to see the relations which exist between those problems which affect the physical body, which affect the social relations, which affect ethic and religious relations as a part of a great life philosophy.—Francis G. Blair, *What Can Education Do To Integrate the Problems of Life?* National Education Association, *Addresses and Proceedings*, 1926.

A Just and Effective Method of Providing School Support

An effective method of providing school support is essential if a state is to maintain efficient schools. The states which today have the highest ranking school systems are those which have made the greatest progress in adopting just and effective methods of paying for their schools. It is one of the first duties of the state to see that a sound plan exists for the financing of public schools throughout the state.

Most state constitutions contain a clause similar to the following, taken from that of Illinois:

"The general assembly shall provide a thorough and efficient system of free schools whereby all children of this state may receive a good common school education."

Education a State Responsibility

The state governments are responsible for providing schools for all children. In practice, however, the state governments have delegated to the local school districts most of the work of fulfilling this duty. This is wise procedure so long as local communities can and do meet the responsibility. When the local district defaults, however, it is clearly the duty of the state to see that facilities are provided whereby *all children may receive a good common school education.*

How Some States Have Failed

Some state governments have failed in this duty. Legislators have forgotten their sworn pledges to support their state constitutions. They have not taken action to guarantee all children a good common school education. The results of this failure are reflected in our figures on illiteracy and non-attendance in school. The last federal census revealed 3,084,733 native-born persons in the United States ten years of age and over, who had had "no schooling whatever." Of this number 1,242,572 were of white parentage. This census lists 1,437,783 children over seven and under fourteen years of age who *had not attended school a single day* during the school

year in which the census was taken. How many million more there were who had attended but a few days is unknown. See Table 9 on page 212.

Why Some Communities Fail to Provide Schools

What is the reason that some local communities have failed to provide adequate school facilities for all children?

State school surveys completed in recent years are unanimous in designating lack of financial support as the principal reason. The taxable wealth in some local communities is so small that it is impossible to pay for facilities necessary to provide every child a good common school education. Provision of such facilities in thousands of local school districts would require a tax higher than the constitutional limit permits or one which is equivalent to confiscation in some cases. Other districts are so rich that first rate schools can be maintained on a low tax rate.

Below are facts revealed by a few state studies. Similar situations have been found in every state where investigation has been made.

In Arkansas some districts have as much as \$2,538 of taxable wealth per child, while others have as little as \$101 of taxable wealth per child. The second district would have to levy a tax 22 times as high as the first to raise a given amount of money per child. A tax rate high enough in the second district to provide a good common school education for all children would be equivalent to confiscation.

In Indiana, districts vary from \$30,207 to \$650 of taxable wealth per child. To raise the same amount of school support the latter district would have to levy taxes at a rate 45 times as high as that necessary in the first district.

The average wealth per child of the school districts in one county in California is \$29,700; in another county, \$4,174. The differences in the individual districts in each county are much greater than this.

In a single county in Colorado, school dis-

tricts vary in wealth per child from \$26,545 to \$617.

In Alabama the wealth per school child enrolled in different counties ranges from \$3,510 to \$827.

In New York the full valuation of real property per pupil varies from \$71,159 to \$1,377. The latter district to provide a reasonable amount of wealth per pupil would have to levy a confiscatory tax rate—53 times as high as that of the first district.

Neither the nation as a whole nor individual states are so poor that they need deny all educational opportunity to thousands of children. School costs today require but a minor fraction of the nation's economic power. Every state in the union is spending for other interests, probably less important to the com-

mon welfare than good schools, sums considerably larger than school expenditures.¹

Uneven distribution, rather than lack of wealth, is primarily responsible for the serious differences in educational opportunity existing in the nation today. Modern economic organization results in the concentration of large amounts of wealth in some communities, while others have little taxable wealth.

Several railroads may converge in one school district. Important manufacturing establishments grow up around these lines. The children who happen to be living in such a district have first rate schools on a low local tax rate.

In an adjoining district there may be no railroad lines. No great industrial concerns are to be found producing articles that collect tribute from all corners of the nation. The

¹ See *Major Issues in School Finance*, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association November, 1926 for detailed figures on this point.

FIGURE VIII

IS EVERY CHILD EDUCATIONAL

I ATTEND A COUNTRY SCHOOL

My school term is 7 months.

My teacher is paid \$755 a year.

My teacher is a high-school graduate

My teacher has taught one year

My school-house has one room.

My school library contains 100 books.



district may be so poor that even an excessively high tax rate fails to provide its children with an acceptable common school education. Yet the children in the poor district will soon be voting citizens, with as much voice in directing public affairs as those of the rich district. As adults they may move to the rich community and stifle progress by nullifying each intelligent ballot by one whose marking is done in ignorance.

The States Face the Facts

Such conditions leave two alternatives open to the states. They can look upon their constitutions as scraps of paper and allow many of their children to grow into illiterate and ignorant adulthood or they can recognize that nothing is more important to a state than the education of its children. They can put into practice the principle that every dollar of wealth in a state, no matter where it is lo-

cated, must pay its just proportion of the cost of educating the children of the state no matter where they happen to live. The majority of the states have definitely accepted the second alternative.

A State School Fund Essential

The state government must aid in the support of local schools if all children are to be guaranteed a common school education. Table 10 shows that many states are at present paying a considerable percentage of the cost of maintaining local schools. The amount available annually from state sources probably should be somewhere between 30 and 60 percent of school expenditures if all children are to be guaranteed a common school education. In the majority of the states, the state contribution to school support is insufficient to accomplish this purpose.

FIGURE IX

ENTITLED to an EQUAL OPPORTUNITY?



I ATTEND A CITY SCHOOL

My school term is 10 months.

My teacher is paid, \$1968 a year.

My teacher is a college graduate.

My teacher has taught five years.

My school-house has 24 rooms.

My school library contains 5000 books.

*Research Division
National Education Assn*

Proper Distribution of State Fund Essential

It is not sufficient merely to establish adequate state school funds. These funds should be used principally to aid districts too poor to maintain reasonable school facilities wholly on their own resources. If this had been done uniformly by all states, the inequalities in school opportunity existing at present would have been remedied.

Many states, however, are still using obsolete methods of distributing state money to the local districts. The amount of state money a district receives is in some states based upon the value of its taxable wealth. Plainly, the distribution of a fund on such a basis will do little to assist the poorer districts to maintain good schools.

Some of the states distribute state money on the basis of the number of children living in a district; others according to the number of children enrolled; still others according to the number of children attending school.

Experience clearly shows that no one of these plans achieves the desired result. Under any of these plans the rich districts often receive as much or more per child in school as the poor districts. The state money is spread over such a large territory that districts too poor to provide good schools on their own resources receive but little aid.

The charts on pages 214 and 215 reveal some typical results which have been obtained in the past. Chart VIII shows that Arkansas, a state now giving considerable attention to this problem, had one county with \$3,151 of taxable wealth per child which received more money from the state than another county with but \$598 of wealth per child.

Chart IX shows a similar result in New York state under a former plan which has recently been revised.

Chart X shows the result obtained under the revised New York plan after it increased the size and improved the method of distributing its state school fund so as to "apply the oil

TABLE 9—ILLITERACY AND NON-SCHOOL ATTENDANCE BY STATES—1920 FEDERAL CENSUS

States	Number of illiterates with "No schooling whatever"		Number of children 7 to 14 years of age not attending school	States	Number of illiterates with "No schooling whatever"		Number of children 7 to 14 years of age not attending school
	Native- Born	White Native-Born			Native- Born	White Native-Born	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
United States....	3,084,733	1,242,572	1,437,783	Montana.....	1,154	1,067	5,513
Alabama.....	276,084	65,394	84,240	Nebraska.....	3,916	3,360	11,683
Arizona.....	3,571	3,233	10,300	Nevada.....	173	157	815
Arkansas.....	120,656	41,411	56,215	New Hampshire..	2,006	1,973	3,614
California.....	10,326	8,747	23,740	New Jersey.....	15,606	9,696	21,737
Colorado.....	9,243	8,624	7,825	New Mexico.....	25,747	25,519	7,601
Connecticut....	4,005	2,927	9,599	New York.....	33,438	28,406	80,240
Delaware.....	7,127	2,427	1,371	North Carolina..	238,518	104,844	59,850
Dist. of Col....	8,693	640	2,703	North Dakota....	1,323	1,307	8,835
Florida.....	68,808	13,169	25,452	Ohio.....	46,441	33,726	28,990
Georgia.....	327,911	66,796	108,220	Oklahoma.....	44,623	30,418	50,560
Idaho.....	958	914	3,096	Oregon.....	2,079	1,990	5,250
Illinois.....	41,383	30,907	45,752	Pennsylvania....	53,515	38,870	68,498
Indiana.....	34,405	27,929	19,732	Rhode Island....	3,094	2,255	3,446
Iowa.....	9,558	8,275	16,174	South Carolina..	220,164	38,742	40,640
Kansas.....	11,407	7,179	13,943	South Dakota....	1,525	1,490	6,343
Kentucky.....	152,754	112,206	44,414	Tennessee.....	181,341	101,809	57,559
Louisiana.....	288,687	81,957	74,258	Texas.....	182,696	80,643	126,746
Maine.....	8,460	8,396	5,735	Utah.....	984	925	3,346
Maryland.....	50,772	15,368	14,588	Vermont.....	3,641	3,613	2,839
Massachusetts..	10,345	7,780	19,010	Virginia.....	192,797	70,475	58,241
Michigan.....	16,375	14,172	24,324	Washington.....	2,624	2,379	9,069
Minnesota.....	6,196	5,955	20,553	West Virginia...	54,837	44,324	26,146
Mississippi.....	228,055	22,242	65,242	Wisconsin.....	10,631	10,449	20,494
Missouri.....	65,594	47,066	31,331	Wyoming.....	487	421	1,911

Read table as follows: In 1920, the last year for which figures are available, there were 276,084 native-born illiterates in Alabama. Of this number 65,394 were native-born white illiterates. In this state there were 84,240 children between the ages of 7 and 14 who had not attended school during the year the census was taken. Similarly read data for other states.

Calculations based on U. S. Bureau of Census figures.

where the squeak is." The New York plan has these features:

1. A local school district in order to receive school money from the state must raise for school purposes as much money as it can by levying a reasonable tax on taxable property.
2. If the school money raised by this local school tax is less than \$43 per pupil,¹ the state contributes enough to make up this amount per pupil.

These are some of the results obtained under the New York plan for distributing state school funds:

1. Every district by levying a reasonable tax rate can be assured of \$43 per pupil. This is less than enough to conduct a first rate school, but it is far better than the much smaller amount which the poorer districts can raise if left wholly to their own resources. It is contemplated that eventually New York state will

have a state fund sufficient to guarantee \$70 per pupil, which at present is considered the minimum amount necessary for the conduct of an acceptable school in that state.

2. The amount of state aid given a district is in proportion to its need as measured by the amount of taxable wealth per child.

3. A district by levying more than the required minimum tax can raise additional funds and provide a first rate school.

4. A local district to receive money from the state school fund must make a reasonable effort on its own resources—that is, must levy at least a specified minimum tax upon the taxable property possessed.

Maryland, Massachusetts, California and a number of other states have made decided progress in recent years in adopting methods of distributing their state funds so as to guarantee all children a common school education. Some 18 states are making investigations which

¹ By "pupil" is meant "weighted pupil," but for the purposes of this discussion this fact can be disregarded.

TABLE 10—CONTRIBUTION OF STATES TO PUBLIC SCHOOL TOTAL RECEIPTS—1923-1924

States	Total Receipts from		Percent of total receipts from state sources	States	Total Receipts from		Percent of total receipts from state sources
	State sources	All sources			State sources	All sources	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
United States...	\$268,607,668 ¹	\$1,958,528,872	13.71				
Alabama.....	5,065,658	14,408,765	35.16	Montana.....	1,049,552	\$12,327,276	8.51
Arizona.....	1,935,505	8,478,585	22.83	Nebraska.....	1,397,818	24,484,982	5.71
Arkansas.....	2,802,501	9,958,912	28.14	Nevada.....	422,253	2,119,191	19.93
California.....	19,238,340	111,951,654	17.18	New Hampshire..	711,419	6,376,778	11.16
				New Jersey.....	15,214,404	80,501,913	18.90
Colorado.....	1,037,013	22,493,275	4.61	New Mexico.....	587,573	4,480,736	13.11
Connecticut....	1,736,857	25,926,988	6.70	New York.....	40,177,555	271,182,064	14.82
Delaware.....	2,235,703	3,124,613	71.55	North Carolina..	6,800,463	34,603,597	19.91
Dist. of Col....	3,035,861	7,633,230	39.77	North Dakota....	4,286,341	23,720,180	18.07
Florida.....	547,601	13,740,474	3.99	Ohio.....	3,741,485	130,111,645	2.88
Georgia.....	4,367,540	16,232,518	26.91	Oklahoma.....	2,645,927	28,790,446	9.19
Idaho.....	862,563	10,807,362	7.98	Oregon.....	2,512,174	18,134,352	13.85
Illinois.....	8,382,627	125,078,750	6.70	Pennsylvania....	26,369,018	170,086,771	15.50
Indiana.....	111,374	72,374,269	.15	Rhode Island....	430,598	9,115,272	4.72
Iowa.....	2,076,948	44,936,417	4.62	South Carolina..	2,908,040	13,433,874	21.65
Kansas.....	739,694	42,313,395	1.75	South Dakota....	1,974,882	18,741,543	10.54
Kentucky.....	5,352,631	21,703,203	24.66	Tennessee.....	3,832,483	18,612,781	20.59
Louisiana.....	4,257,705	21,556,530	19.75	Texas.....	21,211,370	53,450,922	39.68
Maine.....	2,692,101	10,427,278	25.82	Utah.....	3,657,413	9,811,280	37.28
Maryland.....	3,345,168	21,286,531	15.71	Vermont.....	634,730	4,300,452	14.76
Massachusetts..	6,737,420	68,512,048	9.83	Virginia.....	5,583,717	23,287,805	23.98
Michigan.....	12,220,547	103,289,297	11.83	Washington.....	7,675,544	29,970,690	25.61
Minnesota.....	9,985,997	58,602,179	17.04	West Virginia...	2,025,177	22,224,795	9.11
Mississippi.....	3,813,916	10,419,064	36.61	Wisconsin.....	3,837,729	49,568,665	7.74
Missouri.....	4,315,432	46,624,170	9.26	Wyoming.....	1,933,298	7,211,355	26.81

Read table as follows: In Alabama the total receipts from all sources in 1923-24 was \$14,408,765 (Column 3). Of this amount \$5,065,658 (Column 2), or 35.16 percent (Column 4), was obtained from the state sources. Similarly read data for other states.

Calculation based on figures of United States Bureau of Education.

¹ Some receipts were not segregated as to source. It is probable that the amounts given in column 2 in some instances would be somewhat increased if figures giving a complete distribution were available.

will point the way to the most effective use of their schools funds in achieving a similar result.¹

The findings of these investigations will be the basis of legislation to be proposed in a number of the state legislatures during the next few years. Such legislation should have the support of all citizens.

How Progress May Be Made

The degree of progress already made toward guaranteeing all children a common school education varies in different states. The future action required in order to achieve this result will differ in each state. The general direction of the legislation which is necessary in most states, however, in order to provide educational opportunity may be outlined.

First, it will be essential to increase substantially the amount of money which goes to the support of the schools from the state government. This may be done by increasing the amount of the state tax on property; but in most states a preferable procedure will be to obtain the additional state money by new forms of taxation—forms of taxation which are more effective and more just under modern conditions.² The new sources of revenue should be used to supplement the income from the property tax. Tangible property should be less and less important as a source of state revenue so that it may be free for use as a source of revenue for local taxation.

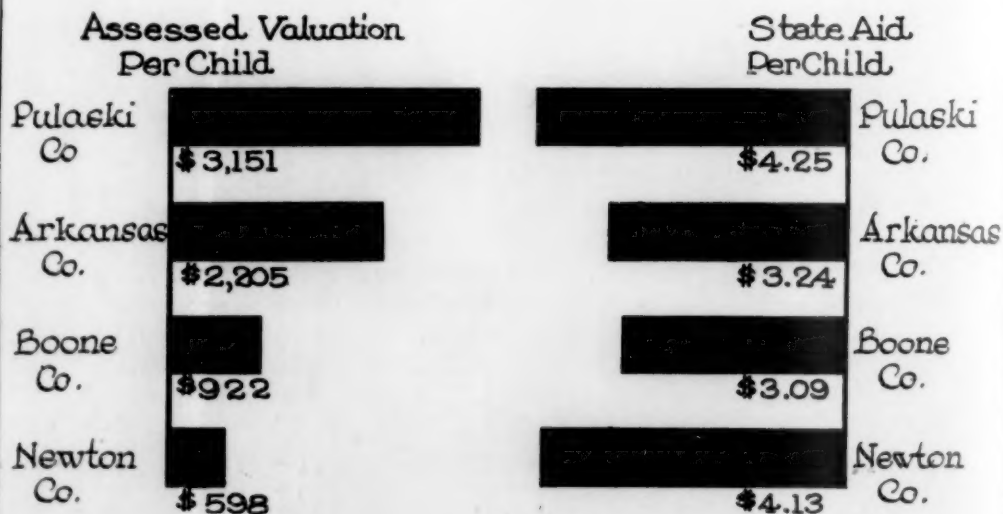
Taxes on incomes, inheritances, and corporations are being used more and more by the states as sources of state revenue. These taxes

¹ Communicate with your State Department of Education and with your State Education Association to find out if such a study is now being conducted and request a copy of the results when completed.

² For a comprehensive and authoritative discussion of this whole question, see Seligman, Edwin R. A.: *Essays in Taxation*. The Macmillan Company. See, particularly Chapter XX, "The Next Step in Tax Reform."

CHART VIII

ABILITY TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS AND STATE AID RECEIVED IN FOUR SELECTED COUNTIES OF ARKANSAS



Data from Fletcher Harper Swift, and others, *Studies in Public School Finance - The South*, University of Minnesota.

are recommended by the great majority of tax experts. They are just taxes. The tax paid under these forms of taxation is more nearly in proportion to the ability to pay than is the tax on tangible property. The amount paid under these taxes is also in reasonable agreement with the benefit received. Taxes to be just should stand the test of one or both of these criteria. Severance, occupation, and luxury taxes have also been adopted by a number of states as sources of state revenue, and probably could be used with benefit by the others.

Those states which are willing to accept the fact that times have changed—that a tax on tangible property, under modern conditions, touches but a part of the wealth of a state, and that tremendous stores of wealth now exist in intangible form which should be made to pay their just share of educating the children of the nation—will find it comparatively easy to obtain additional revenue.

Progress along the lines outlined will in most states involve revision of the whole machinery of taxation, particularly in the direction of increased supervision of local taxation procedure by the state tax commission.

Second, it will be necessary to revise in most states the methods of distributing state school money.¹ This revision should be along these lines:

1. The state should determine the minimum amount of money per pupil necessary, in each type of school district, to the provision of an acceptable educational opportunity for all children.

2. The state should require all local districts to make a reasonable effort to support their schools on their own resources by specifying a reasonable school tax rate which must be in effect in a local district before it can receive state money.

3. The amount of state money received by

¹ For more detailed discussions on this whole question the following are good references: (1) Cubberley, E. P., *An Introduction to the Study of Education*, Houghton Mifflin Company. See particularly, Chapter XXII, "Financing Public Education;" (2) Mort, Paul R., *State Support for Public Schools*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

CHART IX

ABILITY TO SUPPORT SCHOOLS & STATE AID RECEIVED IN FOUR NEW YORK DISTRICTS (OLD PLAN)



Research Division
National Education Association

Read chart as follows: The assessed valuation per child enrolled in District A was \$5555; the state aid received per child enrolled in the same district was \$9.61. Similarly read data for other districts.

Data from: Fletcher Harper Swift. *Studies in Public School Finance, The East*, University of Minnesota, p153.

a local district should be in proportion to its needs as indicated by the difference between the amount per pupil which the local tax raises and which the state has determined is necessary to the provision of acceptable school facilities.

4. The plan for distributing state money should not be too rigid. The state school office should have the power to make such adjustments as are necessary to prevent injustice. The plan should be drafted so that it will not encourage the perpetuation of wasteful and ineffective forms of school organization such as the one-room school.

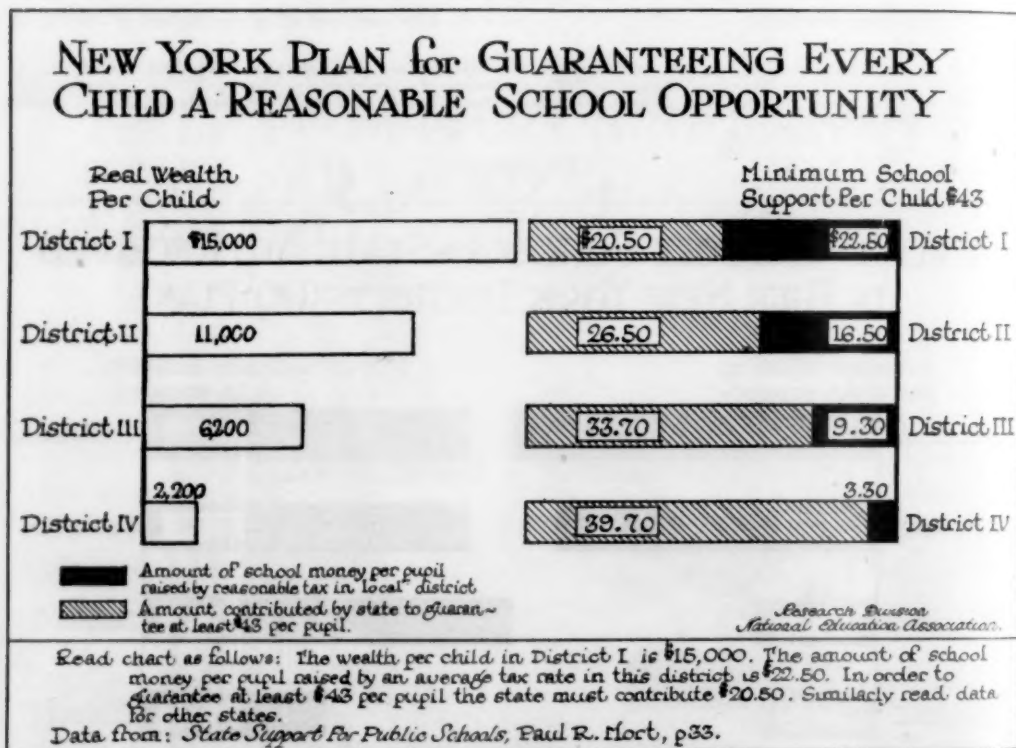
¹ Annotated bibliography of recent studies in the state school finance will be found in *Major Issues in School Finance*, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, November 1926. Also communicate with your State Department of Education for references to helpful investigations.

Material for Further Study

The succeeding references are selected from a large number as being among the less technical discussions of the issues touched upon in the previous paragraphs. A study of the references should give the leaders of groups of teachers or club study groups sufficient background for intelligent inquiry as to the progress made by their states in achieving a just and effective method of providing school support.

In some states it will be found that valuable studies have been completed which, along with the references cited, should furnish an ample working library for a group studying the problems of financing schools in a particular state.¹

CHART X



SCHOOLS ARE the direct reflection of the people who support them—a direct reflection of the spirit and attitude of the community in relation to education, Angelo Patri, "Why Isolate the Teacher?" *Delineator*, April, 1926.

In some states it will be found that no recent studies of the problem of state school support have been made. In such cases it will often be desirable to urge the need of such a study and to offer support to the proper officials in securing the resources for undertaking it.

References on School Finance

CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P., *An Introduction to the Study of Education*, Houghton, Mifflin Company. Chapter XXII, "Financing Public Education."

An excellent discussion of the evolution, present status and desirable directions of development of local and state plans for providing school support.

MORT, PAUL R., *State Support for Public Schools*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1926. 104 pp.

A summarization of recently developed techniques and procedures, designed to be of service to workers in the field of state aid for public schools. Attempt is made in Part I to present fundamental principles of a satisfactory system of state aid. Part II is devoted to techniques of applying such principles. Makes use of New York state data in illustration of techniques.

NORTON, JOHN K., *The Ability of the States to Support Education*, Washington, D. C., National Education Association. 88 pp.

Presents comprehensive data as to wealth and income of each state, and the educational obligations of each state, as measured by the number of children aged 6 to 13 years. Shows the comparative ability of the states to support schools.

PITTENGER, BENJAMIN FLOYD, *An Introduction to Public School Finance*, Boston, Mass., Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1925.

Attempts to summarize the conclusions resulting from the large amount of investigation that has taken place in recent years in the field of school finance.

RESEARCH DIVISION, NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, *Major Issues in School Finance*, Research Bulletin, Vol. IV, No. 5, November, 1926.

Presents data as to the ability of the nation and of the individual states to support education. Compares states as to effort being made to support education. Suggests desirable directions of progress toward better state school finance programs. Contains bibliography of recent surveys of state school finance programs conducted in a number of states.

STRAYER, GEORGE D. AND HAIG, ROBERT H., *The Financing of Education in the State of New York*. Vol. I, *The Educational Finance Inquiry*, New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923.

One of a series of thirteen volumes on school finance issued by The Educational Finance Inquiry Commission.

SWIFT, FLETCHER HARPER, *A Biennial Survey of Public School Finance in the United States, 1920-1922*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1923, No. 47, Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office.

Among the topics discussed in this bulletin are these: State Policies in Public School Finance; A New Conception of State Aid; Reforms in Apportioning State School Funds, and Need for New Sources of Revenue.

EVEN APPROXIMATE equality in education can never be secured throughout a state, until school revenues, and school burdens are equalized. The extent to which school revenues are equalized will depend upon at least three things: first, the equality in ability of the local units which furnish the revenues; second, the comparative effort made by such local units to provide revenues; and, third, the extent to which the state evens out inequalities in ability and effort existing among the local units. Fletcher Harper Swift, *Studies in Public School Finance—The South*. Page 49.

An Effective Form of Organization

Should kindergartens be maintained? How many years should be included in the elementary school course? Should junior high schools be established? Is the platoon type of organization desirable?

The wisdom used in answering such questions as these will to a large degree decide the character of a community's system of public schools. How may a community guarantee that the most intelligent answers will be found to these questions?

If a community wishes to guarantee the effective organization of its school system it first, and above all else, must do two things:

1. Create the right kind of machinery for the control and management of the schools.

2. Provide a situation in which those immediately charged with the control and management of the schools may, without undesirable limitations upon their power, develop the kind of school systems wanted by the people.

Mere governmental machinery alone will not guarantee a community good schools. Active interest by an intelligent citizenry is prerequisite. But the wrong kind of machinery for transmitting into action the will of the people concerning schools will often make it exceedingly difficult for even an intelligent populace to obtain the kind of schools it wants.

A community will seldom have a *better* system of schools than it desires. But, if a community has set up the wrong kind of machinery for transmitting its will into educational action, it may have a *poorer* system of schools than it desires. Many school districts in the United States are at present obtaining poorer schools than they want and deserve, because in the development of their governmental systems the wrong kind of machinery for school control has been set up.

School Control and Management

How may a community create the right kind of machinery for the control and manage-

ment of its schools? A community can provide for the effective control and management of its schools by profiting from the experience that has been gained in the past. There has come to be rather general agreement, among those who have given thought to the problems of school administration, as to how a community should organize for the conduct of public schools.

Practically all school districts in the United States have created school committees or boards of education to act for the people in maintaining public schools.

Should boards of education be elected or appointed? In the great majority of American cities the elective system prevails and is recognized as being the most acceptable in creating school administrative bodies. Cubberley sums up the situation as follows: "In small cities there is no question but that election at large by popular vote is the more desirable method, and even for large cities experience seems to indicate that the results are about equally satisfactory."¹

Some favor the appointment of school board members by the mayor in the larger cities, particularly those of a million people or more. They contend that it is difficult for the voting constituency in a large city to ascertain the character and fitness of school board candidates. When appointment is the method, it is well to still have the results referable to the people. For example, in one large western city, the mayor's school board appointments have to be approved by popular vote at the election following.

With this possible exception, experience has clearly shown the desirability of electing the school board members. The number of members on the board should be small. Five or seven and certainly not over nine members should be the number in all but the very largest cities. The term of office should be more than the average for elected officials, and the

¹ For a detailed discussion and presentation of the facts concerning the constitution of school boards, see the following references:

1. Cubberley, Ellwood P. "Public School Administration." Chapter VIII "Organization of Boards for School Control." Published by the Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Massachusetts.

2. City School Leaflet No. 8, May, 1923, entitled "The City School Board." Published by the U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

number elected in any one year should be considerably less than a majority of the whole number of members.

School boards should be elected at large, not by wards. The ward-elected member too often conceives of his duties in terms of the ward rather than in terms of the city as a whole and will be found sometimes opposing things, which are educationally desirable for the city as a whole, because his own ward is not receiving enough of the benefits to be secured from the given expenditure. The fact that a man lives in a particular ward and has sufficient strength to win a place on the school board from that ward, does not mean that he is better qualified to serve the schools or the city than others who live outside this ward. The ward system of control frequently results in a political school board whose lack of breadth of vision as to the city's school needs is disappointing.

To the parent and taxpayer no elective office is more important than that of school board member. The school board determines the type of school opportunity which children receive. Nearly half of all local taxes are expended for schools. School board elections deserve the attention of every conscientious parent and citizen.

A school board member should be both honest and intelligent. He should have an active interest in public schools and a desire to improve their effectiveness. He should have sufficient vision so that he may offer real help in the formulation of the city's educational policies. He should have sufficient common sense, however, to recognize that it is not his duty actually to put these policies into execution. The policy which the school board member determines should be turned over for execution to technically trained educational experts working full time and having complete training for this type of work. According to one writer, a schoolboard can best perform its duty to the school and the taxpayers by:

- (1) Hiring the best professional administrator whose services it can command to act as the superintendent of schools;
- (2) by giving him full sway in carrying out the educational policies of the board;
- and (3) by holding him fully responsible for the results accomplished.

The school board which does these things effectively, if it does nothing else, is entitled to the gratitude of the whole community.

Necessity for one executive head. Some school boards have made the serious mistake of dividing the responsibility for the execution of their policies between several administrative heads. Instead of appointing one superintendent of schools, in whom responsibility is centered for the effective carrying out of school policies, they appoint two or more superintendents, coordinate in power, and each responsible for some phase of school administration.

The results are what might be expected. The old saying about "too many cooks" is applicable. A situation is created which too frequently is comparable to that which would result if the board of directors of a business concern appointed several, rather than one, general manager.

In the light of past experience, experts in school administration are rather generally agreed that there should be one chief executive officer to whom all other school employees are responsible. In cities where "business managers" are in more or less complete charge of the business end of the school system, H. P. Smith¹ in an extensive study found that, "regardless of the personnel involved, an educational point of view is frequently lacking in the administration of school business affairs, and there is division of administrative responsibility."

The lack of an educational point of view results in:

- (a) The improper planning and equipping of school buildings in terms of the educational program.
- (b) The hampering of the adequate operation and maintenance of the school plant.
- (c) The purchase of improper supplies, thus handicapping educational activities.

The division of administrative responsibility gives rise to:

- (a) The improper assignment of functions among the administrative officers.
- (b) The shifting of responsibility.
- (c) The conduct of affairs on a purely personal basis.
- (d) Inadequate financial planning and reporting.

¹ Smith, Harry Pearse, *The Business Administration of a City School System*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, New York, 1925, 129 p.

The conclusion is that the board of every school system should unify administrative control in one executive officer whose point of view is primarily educational.

Necessity of Freedom of Action for School Boards

Some school systems have set up machinery of the kind most likely to secure capable school board members. They have elected school board members of vision and honesty. The school board has selected a capable superintendent of schools and advised by him has appointed a capable school staff. Still the schools do not run smoothly. There is a constant quarrel as to what shall, or shall not be done. What is the reason?

Such a condition is usually the result of having placed the school board under the dominance of the municipal government. If the question is one of school finance, the schools have two masters—the school board and the city council. If it is a question of school buildings, two independent bodies must act—the school board and the city board of public works. If it is a matter of issuing bonds for school purposes—two bodies created for different purposes must agree. Even such matters as the purchase of school supplies may be partly under school board control and partly under municipal control.

The results of such a divided organization for school management are fully as bad as might be expected. There is likely to be a constant wrangle. Personal and political influences enter in.

Municipal officials are anxious to perpetuate themselves in power. The public schools offer a tempting opportunity to build up political patronage when the appointment of teachers and principals can be dictated. Political strength may be gained if the awarding of contracts for school buildings can be influenced. An opportunity for such political interference in school affairs comes regularly each year, when under a hydra-headed system of school organization, the school budget is fixed by municipal officials.

This opportunity may be effectively used either to cripple the educational program of the school board or to gain the assent of the school board to proposals offered by municipal

officials designed to further their political interests. When lowered school efficiency results, recriminations begin. The mayor of the city and other city officials hold the school board responsible. The school board blames the municipal officials. The whole issue becomes confused. It is often difficult for a citizen to fix the blame in his own mind. But the real sufferers in the whole situation are the children.

If such conditions were necessary, they could be tolerated. But they are not. The fact that boards of education have been set up as separate governing bodies is a recognition of the desirability of separating the work of maintaining the schools from that of conducting the municipal government. The work of the board of education differs essentially from that of the municipal government. Such functions as the control of the police force and the fire department cannot be successfully combined with the work which boards of education were created to perform. The paving of a street, the proper organization of the police or fire department is an entirely different job from educating a child. The responsibility for such diverse public functions should be clearly divided and wholly separate.

School boards have been set up by the people for the specific purpose of running the schools. They should be given full power to exercise the function for which they were created. No purpose can be accomplished by placing half of the responsibility for conducting the schools in the hands of municipal officials already charged with duties of a different nature.

The usual reasons advanced against the creation of school boards with complete independence of action—except for the limitations of state law and the will of the people expressed through the ballot box—are not valid.

Some have contended that to give school boards power to fix their own budgets will result in extravagance. This contention is unfounded in fact. Available studies indicate that fiscally independent school boards spend slightly less per pupil than those dependent on city councils for their funds.¹

Scientific investigations thus far reported point to the conclusion that the schools are

¹ See Research Bulletin, of the National Education Association, *Current Facts on City School Costs*, Vol. II, Nos. 1 and 2, January and March, 1924, p. 29.

most effectively managed when the responsibility for their conduct is not divided. There is no sound reason why a school board or committee, elected at large by the people of a school district, should be subservient to the municipal government in school affairs.

When involvement in city politics is not a necessary condition of membership on the board, it is possible to get a high type of public-spirited citizen to serve on the school board. The time that he devotes to the public service in serving as a school board member need not be dissipated in wrangles with municipal officials, but can be used for a better purpose—that of judging whether the schools are effectively conducted by the school officials he appoints—the superintendent and his staff, the principals and the teachers. Decisions on school matters are less likely to be based upon political considerations. Under such a situation the children are the gainers.

The School Board Journal recently quoted a newspaper editorial which pointed out the reputation for intelligence, integrity and ability enjoyed by a local school board. This Journal editorially comments as follows:

The tribute paid to the men and women who serve the schools of America in an administrative capacity is not only well deserved but practically applies with equal force to all communities. It would be rare indeed to find a higher type of men on a board of aldermen than are usually found on a board of education. The public is less discriminating in its choice of a city council personnel than it is of a school board membership.

It is probably safe to say that among the deliberative bodies, none brings to the service of the public greater loyalty and a better equipment for the task to be performed, than is brought by the modern board of education.

The truth of these statements will not be doubted by those familiar with the past records for honesty and efficiency of school boards. The corresponding history of the municipal governments of some cities need not be dwelt upon.

It appears safe to say that school efficiency throughout the nation would be increased, if all, instead of a part of our school boards, were unlimited in their power to develop the kind of schools wanted by the people.

References as to School Organization

CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *Public School Administration*. Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1922, p. 85-129.

Shows that the tendency is toward a small board—five or seven members—elected at large for relatively long terms, with few or no standing committees. Points out that experience shows that the legislative functions of the board and executive functions of the experts of the department should be clearly differentiated. Points out the disadvantages of city control.

DEFFENBAUGH, W. S. *Administration of Schools in the Smaller Cities*. U. S. Bureau of Education, 1922, No. 2. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office.

These leaflets furnish information regarding the size of boards of education, methods of education, and other facts relating to boards of education in cities of more than 30,000 population and in smaller cities.

MCGAUGHY, J. R. *The Fiscal Administration of City School Systems*. Volume V of the Educational Finance Inquiry. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1924.

This study accurately describes significant differences in fiscal practices in city school systems, classifying these systems on the basis of relative independence from general municipal authorities.

MENDENHALL, EDGAR. *A Rural School Board Measuring Stick*. Department of Rural Education, Kansas State Teachers College, Pittsburg, Kansas, 1925.

Presents a scale for measuring the traits and qualifications of school board members.

SMITH, HARRY PEARSE. *The Business Administration of a City School System*. Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City, 1925, 129 p.

RESEARCH BULLETIN, January and March, 1924, National Education Association, Washington, D. C.

An Interested, Intelligent and Supporting Public

Do schools need public "good will"?—The school as a public institution needs the continuous interest of the people. Home, school, and community are three factors that must be reckoned with in the education of the child. The relationship between schools and public has been compared to a business partnership in which the people are stockholders, school administrators and teachers are the business managers and employees, and the product is changes in boys and girls. In any business partnership those stockholders who know the details of the business can best appreciate the difficulties of management and recognize the skill and effort which go into the production of the finished article. Because of their understanding, they are able to give that intelligent support and encouragement that makes it possible for executives and employees to render their best service. What is true of a factory is far more true of a public school where the product is not material but spiritual.

Parents and teachers must read the same blue-print.—When two "shifts" of workmen are employed in building a house they work from a common blue-print. Each "shift" knows the entire plan, notes what the workers have done the preceding hour, and takes up the work exactly where they left off. This close relationship is maintained even though the building materials are mortar, brick, stone, and wood, and mistakes can be corrected by tearing down and rebuilding. In the building of children's attitudes, habits, and ideals, parents and teachers seldom have a common plan—too frequently each takes little cognizance of the other's work. If either group makes a mistake in their "building" it is difficult to tear down and rebuild, for attitudes, habits, and ideals result from changes in the nervous systems of growing boys and girls.

It is essential that teachers understand the ambitions which parents have for their children. The teachers' acquaintance with parents makes possible a more intelligent understanding of the children's potentialities and needs.

"Interpreting the schools to the public" is a common phase; it is equally important, how-

ever, that the public be interpreted to the schools. Each must understand and appreciate the other's point of view. The teacher may become so engrossed with the work inside his classroom that he loses touch with community life. He may have been reared in the city and be unfamiliar with the problems of rural life; or he may have come from another section of the country where different social traditions and customs prevail. He may have gained a large share of his information from books and lack the knowledge that comes from contact with practical life situations. As the teacher learns more of the conditions which prevail in the community and in the homes from which his pupils come, he knows better what to expect from them and in what ways he can help them.

It is equally essential that parents know what the schools are attempting to do, what they need, and what values they plan to return to society.

Understanding forestalls criticism.—If parents come to know teachers in a sympathetic way, the criticism of outsiders will be fairly met by parents. The same will be true of tales carried home by the children. Parents who *know* are in a position to set children right in their judgment of work and management. This makes the teacher's task much easier. Frequently people criticize the schools because they are entirely ignorant of what the schools are attempting to do. School administrators and teachers too often take it for granted that the public understands the real objectives and philosophy back of modern education. Many parents visualize the schools of today as they were thirty or forty years ago. Many parents also visualize the modern American public school in terms of the school which they attended in the "old country." Is it any wonder then that parents frequently question the purposes, the efficiency, and the results of the American educational system? Our future educational progress depends largely upon the understanding which the American public has of its school system and the recognition which it gives its teachers.

The position of teachers.—Washington Irving pointed out the failings of the teachers of his day. His attitude was justified then. It cannot be defended today. Other writers, however, have done equal harm in picturing the teacher as a prim, precise personality, inclined to didactic opinions, severe, unsociable, and austere. Such caricatures defame the intelligent, gracious, and public-spirited teachers who predominate in our present-day classrooms. The question of social and professional recognition of teachers is not a matter of sentiment. It has a far-reaching effect in attracting an adequate supply of capable young people to our teacher-training institutions. It also conditions the kind of teaching done in our classrooms. Personal pride in one's calling and the feeling that one's services are appreciated are among the most potent incentives to efficient effort.

The child is the loser when his teacher is not given due social and professional recognition by his parents.

Who runs the schools?—If the public desires the schools to continue to render the service they have been giving, and to accept the larger responsibilities which should be met in the future, larger financial resources will be necessary. This means that the public must have a fuller understanding of the public school—the institution which it created and is supporting. Teachers and administrators of public school systems, dependent upon public taxation for support and confronted with increasing demands for additional service, must take their patrons into their full confidence. The community has a right to understand the why and wherefore of their children's education. They have a right to know why changes are made. When policies are changed and expenditure of money called for, the community is most affected, and it should be given adequate explanations. Improvement in school conditions requires the approval and support of strong public opinion. School officers work more effectively when they know that the public has faith in them. Interpretation of the school to the public enables it to get a greater return in public confidence and secures a better appreciation of its work. The result is that every proposed change in method of instruction is not branded as a "new-fangled piece of worthlessness."

Much of the criticism will pass away when people see and know the schools; and the teachers see and know the community needs. Newspapers are coming more and more to the support of the public school, and their support is the publicity medium most effective for school progress.

The new school-and-home organization movement.—The Congress of Parents and Teachers has branches in forty-seven states, in the District of Columbia, and in the Territory of Hawaii. The membership in these branches, together with the local associations in Alaska and the unorganized groups in the state of Nevada, totals about one million. Chart XI shows the rapid growth during the past fifteen years of the Congress of Parents and Teachers.

Its two great objectives as outlined in the organization's National bylaws are these:

1. To promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of women and children.
2. To bring into closer relation the home and the school, that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child, and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education.

The Congress of Parents and Teachers offers opportunity to bring parents and teachers of the nation into one organization with common ideals and a common purpose—the welfare of the children of America. Parent-Teacher meetings offer parents opportunity to become acquainted with their children's school, its teachers, and its work. Such meetings give the teacher greater knowledge of the child's home environment and of the parents' viewpoint. The Parent-Teacher organization gives promise of an education carried on as a unit in the home, school, and community.

Parents and teachers are discovering that their work is easier and pleasanter and achieves larger results when it is done co-operatively. The following letter copied from the *Lawton School Record*, a Philadelphia grade-school magazine, offers ten definite suggestions by which parents can aid their children's progress in school.

Ten suggestions for parents from a city school superintendent.—Philadelphia parents recently received this letter from their super-

intendent of schools. The points made are suggestive as means by which parents everywhere can aid in their children's school progress.

DEAR FRIENDS:

You are all anxious to have your children succeed in school. School work is the most important business of the children in your care. Careful home training, good health, religious instruction, and a thorough education are the best insurance for the future success and happiness of your children. Be sure that they have all these at whatever sacrifice. The progress of your children in school will be greatly aided:

1. If you will insist upon punctuality and regularity at school, and give no excuses, except for the most urgent reasons.

2. If you will read carefully all notices and reports from school, and through the principal and teacher keep in touch with the work of your children.

3. If you will encourage your children to strengthen their weak points as revealed by their report cards.

4. If you will insist that the older children, who have assignments of homework, set aside a definite period for study each day.

5. If you will lend your cooperation in the care of school books and other school property entrusted to your children.

6. If you will withhold judgment regarding reports of happenings at school until you have heard both sides; and then never criticize the teacher in the presence of the children.

7. If you will insist upon obedience at home and respect, for parents, elders, teachers and all officers of the law.

8. If you will know the character of the companions of your children and ascertain the nature of the entertainments which your children attend before permitting them to attend.

9. If you will see to it that the progress of your children in school is not hindered by the fatigue resulting from insufficient rest or late evening parties.

10. If you will arrange regular home duties, or "chores," for your children so that they may acquire habits of work, ideas of service for others, and a sense of responsibility.

The progress of civilization depends upon the spiritual, moral, physical and mental improvement of each generation. It is my earnest hope and belief that your children will contribute toward making the next generation a still better one than the generation of which we are now a part.

Yours sincerely,

EDWIN C. BROOME,
*Superintendent of Schools,
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.*

How can the layman know what is going on in the school?—Visit the schools frequently. Know the children's teachers. Ask

questions of teachers, principals, trustees, or school board members. Invite principals and superintendents frequently to address luncheon clubs, chambers of commerce, and similar organizations. Organize parent-teacher groups to study school problems. Secure and read official reports, relative to the work of the schools, issued by local and state school departments. Question those who are in charge of the schools.

Selected references on the home and the school.—The following articles will be of interest to those who are seeking to bring about a closer cooperation between the home and the school.

Home and School Cooperation

BRIM, O. G. *Educational Progress and Parents.* Rural School Leaflet, No. 15, U. S. Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., May, 1923. 8 p.

Discusses the problem of acquainting school patrons with modern tendencies in education and changes in the school curriculum.

CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *The Principal and His School.* Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1923. p. 534-559.

Discusses the principal's work in building up school support, time to organize a parent-teacher association, and the need for constructive programs of work.

JOHNSON, CHARLES H. AND OTHERS, *The Modern High School.* New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1914. Chapters XII and XIII.

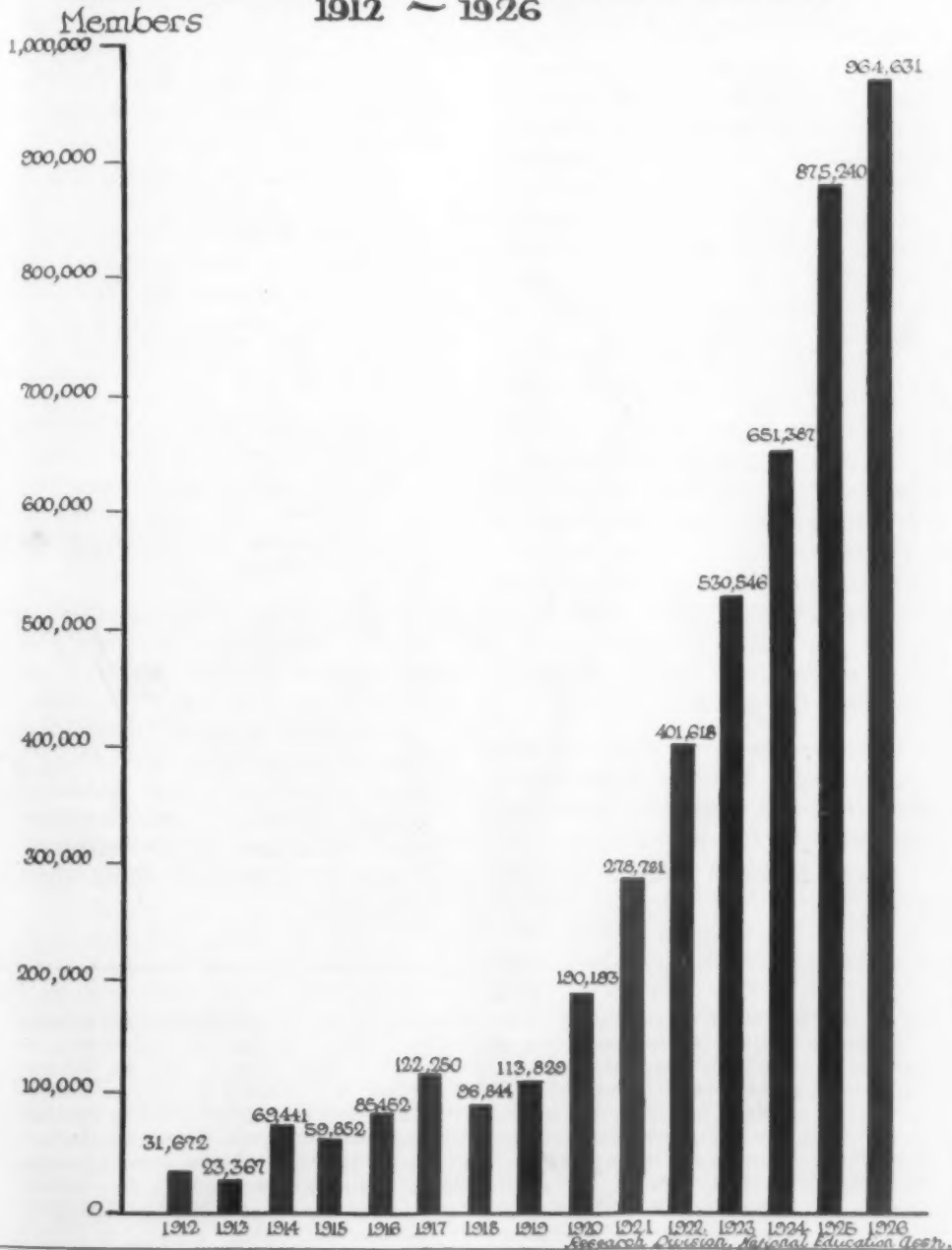
Describes the home and school association as the high school's right arm. Suggests that this association should include *all the school's voluntary cooperative agencies*, such as women's and mothers' clubs, citizens' leagues, and other patriotic and religious orders.

LOMBARD, ELLEN C. *Recent Development of Parent-teacher Associations.* U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 5, 1923. Washington, D. C. Government Printing Office. 12 p.

Shows growth and progress of the Association.

CHART XI

GROWTH in MEMBERSHIP of the NATIONAL CONGRESS of PARENTS and TEACHERS 1912 ~ 1926



LOMBARD, ELLEN C., AND BITTNER, WALTON S. *How Home and School Work Together*, U. S. Bureau of Education, Home Education Circular, No. 3, 1923. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office.

Give suggestions for unifying the work of the home and the school.

MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, *Worth-While Patrons' Meetings*, State Department of Education, Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 6, March, 1925. Baltimore, Maryland, 98 p.

A bulletin, prepared by the county supervisors of elementary schools in Maryland and designed to meet the need of parent-teacher organizations for practical and worth-while programs of study. Many topics concerned with the child's school and home environment are outlined.

MARYLAND STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, *School Publicity*, Maryland School Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 3, November, 1923. State Department of Education, Baltimore, Maryland, p. 95.

The chapters "The Principal's Responsibility as a Publicity Agent," pp. 45-59; and the "Parent-Teacher Association as a Means of Publicity," pp. 60-68, contain many practical suggestions.

MEYER, H. D. *The Parent-Teacher Association*, Extension Bulletin, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. December, 1922. 95 p.

Provides suggestive subjects for programs.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS, *Its History, Organization and Program of Service, Organization Handbook, Pre-school Circles—How to Organize, Rural Parent Teacher Associations, College Parent-Teacher Associations—How to Organize, A Program of Work for Local Parent-Teacher Organizations, Program Planning—Why-How, Ten Program Outlines for Grade School Parent-Teacher Organizations*.

These leaflets give information as to organization and purposes of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers and offer suggestions for work in local branches. They may be obtained free from Secretary of National Congress of Parents and Teachers, 1201 Sixteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C.

School and Society, "Parents and the Schools," Vol. XXII, No. 561, September 26, 1925.

Fourteen suggestions to parents for starting the school year right, offered by the United Parents' Associations of Greater New York Schools.

STEVENSON, P. R. *Campaign Publicity for Schools*, Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, No. 5. The Ohio State University Press, Columbus, Ohio. 1926. 59 p.

Compilation of methods which have been tried and found useful in procuring better school conditions through publicity programs. Contains detailed illustrative material and suggestions for organizing and conducting campaigns for better school support.

WE HAVE STRUGGLED over that long dusty stretch of our national journey, and perceive that we have not in the least arrived at the destination which was our aim—namely, an educated citizenry. The road makes one of its unexpected turns before us, and we find ourselves looking down another long stretch. We now see that "making the masses literate" does not at all mean "educating the people." We have only succeeded in forcing upon the young of our race, quite universally, the tools by which modern education may be obtained. A whole new conception of what education is, what mass education must be, opens before us, daunting, discouraging, difficult . . . infinitely inspiring to courageous souls.—Dorothy Canfield Fisher, "Adult Education as the Next Battle in our Democracy's Fight for Existence," *National Education Association, Addresses and Proceedings*, 1926.

Growth of Teachers in Service¹

Only teachers who are eager to improve can hold their places in a modern school. This means training on the job; for teacher training institutions at best do not turn out a finished product. The beginning teacher comes to his task with no small portion of his training yet to be obtained. The novice and the journeyman teacher must strive to become master teachers. Teachers are eager to make themselves more effective. Understanding modern life and interpreting it to growing boys and girls offers so great a challenge and opportunity for service that most teachers are eager to make themselves more efficient. Summer school courses, study groups, and teachers' meetings are the chief means of training in service besides supervision and the slow process of experience through the "trial and error" method.

What do summer schools offer? Teachers attend summer school not merely because it offers a change of environment and contact with books, but because it offers opportunity to:

1. Come in contact with people interested in the same work
2. Meet educational and lay leaders
3. Learn the newer trends in education
4. Re-acquire the student's point of view
5. Observe new methods of teaching
6. Gain inner power to carry on and equip themselves for larger service.

Summer schools are offering all these opportunities and many more. The foremost educational leaders of the world are employed to help thousands of executives, administrators, and teachers to add "refreshment to their pails" which in the beginning were only partly filled or had been drained by the constant out-go of the teacher's personality as he relives courses of study and interprets life to immature minds during the school term.

During the summer of 1926, 217,220 teachers attended summer school. Table 11 reports summer school attendance in 482 institutions. It shows that 27.2 per cent of the nation's teachers devoted their vacation to this form of professional improvement.

Mobilization of the Teaching Corps Through Teachers' Meetings

Why have faculty meetings? These meetings are essential to a modern school, since its function is not merely teaching subjects, but developing socially efficient citizens. This means that the child must be trained in such matters as moral character, care of the body, skill in earning a living, willingness to be of service to others, ability to perform the duties of citizenship, and appreciation of music, literature, and art. The school administrator and his staff must have in mind the good of each child and that of the social group of which he forms a part. The work of each teacher and of each department must contribute to the total development. Faculty meetings offer opportunity to discuss the inter-relation between teachers with respect to particular duties.

The constant revision of the curriculum, due to the rapidity of the change in modern life and its complexity, means that every member in the teaching staff must be kept informed. Curriculum construction and revision is today one of the major educational problems. Thousands of teachers are helping to solve it—every teacher must have a sympathetic understanding of the changes adopted. This requires frequent meetings of the whole teaching body and of particular groups.

Advances in educational science and psychology and the results of educational research cannot be disregarded in the modern classroom. Findings of educational research are coming to be as significant for teachers as medical research is for physicians. The progressive administrator brings these to the attention of his teachers through faculty meetings.

The right kind of faculty meetings serve these purposes:

1. The best ideas in the force are mobilized for the benefit of all the children.
2. Esprit de corps is created or heightened. Attitudes are equalized; teachers are helped in getting a better perspective of their work; and a spirit of common interest is promoted. Teachers

¹This section of the Handbook has been prepared in response to the many requests from principals and teachers for material suitable for lay and professional study groups.

TABLE 11—SUMMER SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN 1926

States and other units	Number of teaching positions in public elementary and secondary schools in 1925-26 ¹	Total number of summer schools ²	Number of summer schools reporting	Summer School Enrollment		Percent of teaching positions in states represented by enrolment in courses in education	Relative rank of Col. 7
				All courses	Courses in education		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Continental U. S.	799,969	661	482	311,480	217,220	27.2	
Alabama	15,580	14	7	5,736	4,302	27.6	21
Arizona	2,610	2	2	975	873	33.4	13
Arkansas	14,146	5	3	1,918	1,639	11.6	44
California	34,002	23	14	8,402	5,883	17.3	38
Colorado	8,938	8	7	7,236*	5,563*	62.2	1
Connecticut	8,785	4	2	168	22	.3	49
Delaware	1,389	1	1	291	272	19.6	34
District of Columbia	2,792	7	3	1,300	140	5.0	48
Florida	9,090	2	2	1,419	1,231	13.5	39
Georgia	19,102	15	9	4,208	2,347	12.3	42
Idaho	4,249	8	6	1,443	1,296	30.5	17
Illinois	46,723	30	28	24,536*	15,145*	32.4	15
Indiana	18,919	29	24	12,512	10,524	55.6	3
Iowa	27,878	25	13	8,613	6,059	21.7	27
Kansas	18,277	18	15	10,245*	7,048*	38.6	10
Kentucky	12,455	12	10	6,254	5,486	44.0	6
Louisiana	11,184	8	4	2,461	2,059	18.4	36
Maine	6,234	8	6	1,520	1,304	20.9	31
Maryland	7,504	9	6	2,045	1,548	20.6	32
Massachusetts	25,618	18	12	6,906	3,183	12.4	41
Michigan	30,510	17	15	12,110	8,161	26.7	22
Minnesota	20,018	12	10	7,160	3,789	18.9	35
Mississippi	14,608	8	7	1,992	1,570	10.7	45
Missouri	24,611	24	15	9,772	7,458	30.3	19
Montana	5,699	6	5	1,388	1,162	20.4	33
Nebraska	14,076	14	12	8,570	5,718	40.6	7
Nevada	774	1	1	145	139	18.0	37
New Hampshire	3,006	3	3	520	376	12.5	40
New Jersey	21,693	11	8	2,210	1,375	6.3	47
New Mexico	2,987	5	4	1,144	1,034	34.6	11
New York	69,206	38	27	31,676	15,978	23.1	26
North Carolina	23,149	17	13	10,267*	7,862*	34.0	12
North Dakota	8,267	8	8	4,634	4,297	52.0	4
Ohio	40,111	31	25	15,438*	10,091*	25.2	25
Oklahoma	18,935	14	12	15,165	11,223	59.3	2
Oregon	7,480	8	6	3,797	2,381	31.8	16
Pennsylvania	53,779	47	39	20,885	16,280	30.3	18
Rhode Island	3,132	2	2	474	369	11.8	43
South Carolina	11,312	7	5	3,933	2,868	25.4	24
South Dakota	8,545	10	9	2,968	2,378	27.8	20
Tennessee	16,637	19	13	8,548	7,615	45.8	5
Texas	39,005	45	26	12,901*	8,429*	21.6	28
Utah	4,330	3	1	595	395	9.1	46
Vermont	2,838	3	1	815	603	21.2	30
Virginia	17,479	15	11	5,968	4,455	25.5	23
Washington	9,959	9	7	5,390	3,873	38.9	9
West Virginia	11,860	13	9	4,256	3,874	32.7	14
Wisconsin	17,500	15	13	9,771	6,903	39.4	8
Wyoming	2,988	1	1	800	640	21.4	29

READ table as follows: In Alabama there were 15,580 teaching positions in public elementary and secondary schools in 1925-1926. In this state 14 institutions conduct summer schools. It was possible to obtain a report from 7 of these institutions as to summer school enrolment in 1926. These 7 institutions reported a total summer school enrolment of 5736. Of this total 4302 were enrolled in teacher training or education courses. In Alabama the ratio of enrolment in education courses, in the 7 summer schools reporting, to teaching positions in the state is 27.6 percent. This percent gives Alabama a rank of 21 among the states of the union in this regard.

In interpreting the figures of this table it should be kept in mind that reports from some states were incomplete. All institutions listed in the educational directory were given two opportunities to report. Some failed to do so.

Consequently the position of some states is lower than it would have been had all institutions reported. The significance of this factor in reducing any state's rank may be roughly estimated by comparing the figures in columns 3 and 4.

¹The figures as to number of teaching positions in 1926 are estimated, assuming that the percent increase was the same within each state between 1924 and 1926 as between 1922 and 1924. In states where there was a decrease between 1922 and 1924 the 1924 figure was used.

²As listed in the *Education Directory for 1926*. U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin, 1926, No. 1.

³Indicates that in the state one or more institutions having two summer sessions reported only for the first session. If a complete report had been obtainable the enrolment in this state would be somewhat greater.

need to have lessons "all together" just as children do.

3. Information and direction are given which aid teachers in placing their work on a higher plane.

4. The need for professional advancement is constantly kept before teachers.

5. Teachers are helped in understanding the program as planned. Cooperation is brought about as well as common aims, and common standards of judgment.

6. An appreciation of those educational problems which have state and national significance is developed.

Characteristics of a good faculty meeting.

There should be two kinds of teachers' meetings, the general meeting intended for all; and the special meeting, which usually includes only the teachers of one or more specific grades or subjects. This latter type of meeting provides opportunity for discussion of points that are of special interest only to those directly concerned. These are among the characteristics of good meetings of both types:

1. Teachers feel that the meeting is an opportunity, not a requirement.

2. The meeting is carefully planned. The administrator sets the situation so as to insure the development of his teachers.

3. The meeting has a definite purpose.

4. Important issues of general interest to all teachers are discussed rather than administrative details and announcements that can usually better be covered in a typewritten or mimeographed notice or bulletin.

5. Items are taken up in proper order and sequence. The meeting is conducted as though it were a business proposition. All trivial and irrelevant matter is avoided in order that the meeting may not be unduly prolonged.

6. Each meeting renders constructive cumulative service so that there is unity in the year's program, and something definite accomplished by the end of the year.

7. The discussion, for the most part, concerns matters of common interest to all those present. This means that there should be careful planning to decide what topics belong to the general meeting, and what to the special meeting. In the general meeting educational problems of state and national as well as local interest will be discussed.

8. Many teachers take an active part. They feel free to ask questions and to discuss their work and their problems. Two or three teachers are not permitted to do all the talking. Sometimes the teacher who has the most self-confidence has the fewest ideas. The extent of teacher participation is the real test of a good group meeting.

9. A record of proceedings is kept and filed. This shows what was said, what action was taken, and acts as a check to show if any vital points are omitted.

10. General good spirit prevails—something is accomplished in promoting unity and cooperation throughout the school.

11. It is interesting to the teachers. The school administrator who forces his teachers to suffer martyrdom in long-drawn-out, dry-as-dust meetings is violating the principles of sound pedagogy.

12. When general rules are presented, each teacher is provided with a copy of points to be discussed.

13. Due notice is given when the meeting is not held at a regularly specified time and place.

14. It begins on time, and, as far as possible, adjourns on time.

These characteristics apply particularly to a good group meeting:

1. It is based as far as possible on the teachers' own needs. It is an opportunity for cooperative drive on these needs.

2. The group is small enough so that fraternity and participation are possible.

3. The principal, supervisor, or superintendent who leads the meeting does not forget that it is a teachers' meeting.

4. The weaker teachers profit from the stronger.

5. The wide variation between teachers in native ability and in training and their resulting difference in needs are kept in mind in planning the meeting.

6. The subject to be discussed is announced several days in advance, in order that teachers may have an opportunity to prepare themselves for taking an active part in the discussion, or to talk on any phase of the matter in which they may be especially interested.

What types of meetings do teachers generally dislike? Teachers begrudge the time that faculty meetings take and look upon them as an unnecessary waste of energy when they are of the bulletin-board type, the grievance-day type, the grumbling type, the lecture-by-the-principal type, or the routine-business type.¹

What the teacher has a right to expect from teachers' meetings. These are among the outcomes which the teacher has a right to expect from teachers' meetings:

1. Better understanding of the particular problems of his school building and of the school system

2. A general rather than merely a specialized interest in the school—that is, an interest in affairs outside his own department

3. The best ideas that the most competent teach-

¹ See Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The Principal and His School*, Houghton, Mifflin, 1923. "Objectionable types of meeting" are discussed on pages 514-516.

ers in the system have to give on the solution of particular problems

4. Enlarged outlook and increased technical preparation

5. Familiarity with the best educational progress elsewhere

6. Definite suggestions for professional study and advancement, such as carefully selected reading courses

7. Clearer insight into those professional problems, the solution of which will tend to elevate the character and advance the interests of the teaching profession¹

8. Inspiration for greater effort

9. Feeling of satisfaction that comes from sharing in the democratic administration of a school system.

What happens when teachers take part in group meetings, dealing with such topics as course of study revision? Experience shows that teachers not only receive, but also give help when they are made members of course of study committees. A superintendent of schools lists these fourteen outcomes of teacher participation in curriculum building which were mutually beneficial to the individual teacher and to the school system:

1. Courses of study embodying the latest research

2. Emergence of leaders among the classroom teachers

3. Direct improvement in teaching

4. A staff more interested in current educational thought

5. More general reading done by the staff

6. Greater joy in teaching

7. Requests by teachers for supervision

8. Appreciation and better use of good equipment and libraries

9. Better insight into the aims and purposes of education

10. Appreciation on part of supervisory staff of contributions which teachers can make in the improvement of policies

11. Better spirit of co-operation between teachers and administrators

12. Teachers and principals stimulated to increased professional study

13. Entire educational staff can better interpret the schools to the public

14. Quickened interest on the part of the public in the schools.—Jesse H. Newlon "Outcomes of our Curriculum Program." *Addresses and Proceedings of National Education Association* 1925, P. 302-3.

¹ Among these problems are the following: The recruiting of the nation's most promising young people for the profession, certification requirements, training of teachers in service, teacher retirement allowances, and indefinite tenure.

Suitable Topics for Teachers' Meetings

Each school administrator in planning his faculty meetings will select those topics of most immediate interest to the largest number of his teachers, or which in his judgment are of most vital concern to the welfare of the school. These are among the topics which have been the subjects for discussion recently by many faculty groups:

1. Careful analysis of the course of study—its strength and weakness and revision

2. Moral or character education—how can it be developed through the regular school subjects, ways of teaching subjects so that they contribute to character development, classroom procedure and extra-curricular activities in relation to character development, and review of efforts for character development in other school systems

3. Well-organized and well-taught demonstration lessons involving subject-matter from the course of study, followed by a critique and free discussion

4. Discussion of results of standard tests

5. Remedial work following the giving of standardized tests

6. Classification of pupils

7. Promotion of pupils, involving age-grade problems

8. Review of outstanding professional books and magazine articles

9. Discussion of ways and means of bringing to parents and patrons a thorough understanding of the objectives and problems of the school

10. Professional problems such as retirement allowances, tenure, work of state and national organizations, professional ethics, salaries, and the recruiting of the profession.

Professional meetings at the B. F. Day Elementary School, Seattle, Washington. Under the leadership of the principal the teachers have for several years met as a building group and discussed some professional problem at each meeting. These are among the topics discussed: (1) The junior high school, (2) practical teaching of democracy to elementary school pupils, (3) how to plan and give drill, (4) interpretation of standardized tests, (5) correlation of subjects, (6) advantages and disadvantages of the semi-departmental school, (7) the teacher as a student, (8) study of texts, their contents and arrangement of material, and (9) the securing of home co-operation by sending home pupils' papers.

Outline of a high school teachers' meeting in Mandan, North Dakota.—"The marking system" was a question selected for discussion by the faculty of the Mandan high school. The following outline was prepared by the principal and distributed in advance to all teachers. It is illustrative of the type of preparation for a faculty meeting which repays a principal many times for the time and thought required:

The Marking System

The next regular meeting of the teachers will be held Tuesday afternoon, Oct. 6, at four o'clock in room 6, Senior High School.

Will you kindly give careful thought to this outline and be ready to offer suggestions, criticisms, or additions. The references given below are available and may be had by seeing the clerk at the office. A rather complete bibliography is also available.

I. Aims and Purposes of the Marking System:

- (1) To show both pupil and parent the achievement of the pupil as shown in terms of the declared purpose of the course.
- (2) To provide a permanent record of the pupil's achievement.
- (3) To provide a basis for promotion.

II. Underlying Principles:

- (1) The marking system should be as objective as possible.
- (2) Marks should have a uniform meaning to all teachers in the school.
- (3) Marks should be readily understood.
- (4) A marking system should require only a reasonable amount of teachers' time.
- (5) No more marks should be used than can be distinguished by a great number of teachers.

Reports:

The Reliability of Teachers' Marks—Mr. Jerome N. Ristey

The Probable Distribution—Mr. Sam J. Aandahl

What Do We Mark in English—Miss Glenna Mae Travis

Problems for general discussion:

1. The above outline and reports
2. How to tabulate distributions
3. What steps shall we use
4. What traits of character shall we mark
5. What weights or penalties shall we give for certain types of errors.

Problem:

Bearing in mind that worth to the pupil should be the keynote of a conference, what replies would you suggest for the pupil who expresses disappointment concerning his marks?

Bibliography:

Strayer and Englehart—*The Class-room Teacher*, p. 165-166

Parker—*Methods of Teaching High Schools*, p. 500-510
 Wilkinson—*Rural School Management*, p. 289-307

A Plan for the "Entire Profession at Work on its Problems"

Better teaching of boys and girls comes as the result of larger inspiration and better training on the part of teachers. The following plan of the National Education Association enlists all educational forces in the study of professional problems:

The Plan in Brief

1. Regular meetings of the staff in every elementary and high school, public and private, normal school, and college
2. Regular meetings of city and county associations
3. Annual meetings of district, state, and regional organizations
4. Annual meetings of the National Education Association, its departments, and allied co-operative organizations
5. Biennial meetings of the World Federation of Education Associations.

The first essential of the above plan is that every principal arrange for regular meetings of his staff to consider local, state, and national issues; then local associations build their programs on what has been accomplished in the smaller groups; and state and national associations carry the high spots of the achievements of local groups into their programs.

The principal's responsibility in promoting professional study. The principal, by virtue of his position, is the professional leader of his school. Upon his vision, sympathetic understanding of the needs of his staff, and his leadership depends the growth of teachers in service through staff meetings.

Helps for principals in planning teachers' meetings. School principals may find these suggestions helpful in carrying out the above plan for getting "the entire profession at work on its problems": (1) Make the state and national journals the basis of study and discussion, (2) Send for Research Bulletins of the National Education Association,¹ (3) Review the topics suggested in this Handbook, (4) Write the secretary of the State Association for suggestions, (5) Call on the local

¹ See list of Research Bulletins of the National Education Association on page 233.

teachers college, and (6) Call on the Research Division of the National Education Association.

What the National Education Association offers study groups. The Research Bulletin, The Journal, the Yearbook of the Department of Superintendence, the Bulletin and Yearbook of the Elementary School Principals, and Committee Reports of the National Education Association are published to promote the cause of education. These and other publications of the Association are already used by hundreds of study groups.

This handbook designed to help in a well-planned study of major educational issues. School faculties, parent-teacher groups, women's clubs, and civic organizations are interested in meeting the needs of the public schools. Too often, however, they are unfamiliar with what these needs are. They are willing to study the problem of securing the essentials of an efficient public school system, but frequently accurate and timely data are not available in a usable form for study. This handbook has been designed to meet the needs of

legislative committees dealing with education, and lay and teacher study groups.

By using the handbook as a tentative outline, and making necessary adaptations, the local principal or study group leader can organize a series of meetings in which problems vital to the public school will be discussed. If more than an elementary knowledge of these topics is desired, the selected references at the end of each section should be assigned in advance to particular members of the study group and reported upon for the benefit of the whole.

The Bulletin presents standards of best practice relative to eight factors essential to an effective school system. Local groups will find it of interest to compare their own schools with these standards. If weak spots in the local system are revealed, they will indicate the points which deserve further study and toward which greater effort should be directed.

When teachers and public-spirited laymen join in the study of major educational issues, the result will be better schools for our boys and girls—the final objective of all activity centering around the public school.

A GOOD MANY people think that the greatest business of a superintendent of schools is to get money for the financial support of the schools or to establish and manage an efficient administrative routine. In fact, many superintendents and teachers seem to believe with a lot of sincerity that these are the true "reasons for being" of the Superintendent's Office.

I have a conviction that the greatest thing a superintendent can do for his school system is to open the doors of opportunity to the talent within the teaching staff for its own growth and development and to place the responsibility for progress upon the teachers themselves. A teaching body properly supported and properly guided naturally develops its own leadership and undertakes a program of progress. Such teaching bodies always have within their ranks large elements of leadership which easily and quickly show themselves and come to the front.

The first step is always manifested by some general scheme of organization. The organization first seeks to express itself by sharing in policy making, making itself felt in the general operation of the school system and becoming a factor in the civic life of the community. The evidence of professional consciousness next manifests itself in a desire to do something for its own members.—Fred M. Hunter, *Superintendent's Bulletin*, April 16, 1925, Oakland Public Schools.

Research Bulletins Previously Issued

Facts on the Cost of Public Education and What They Mean. Bulletin 1, June, 1922. 68 pp. (Out of Print.)

Facts for American Education Week. Bulletin 2, November, 1922. 40 pp. Price per copy, 25 cents.

Facts on State Educational Needs. Vol. I, No. 1, January, 1923. 64 pp. (Out of print.)

Can the Nation Afford to Educate Its Children? Vol. I, No. 2, March, 1923. 72 pp. Price per copy, 25 cents.

Teachers' Salaries and Salary Trends in 1923. Vol. I, No. 3, May, 1923. 116 pp. Price per single copy, \$1.00.

Five Questions for American Education Week. Vol. I, No. 4, September, 1923. 56 pp. (Out of print.)

Facts on the Public School Curriculum. Vol. I, No. 5, November, 1923. 48 pp. (Out of print.)

Current Facts on City School Costs. Vol. II, Nos. 1 and 2, January and March, 1924. 64 pp. (Out of print.)

Teachers' Retirement Allowances. Vol. II, No. 3, May, 1924. 32 pp. Price per copy, 25 cents.

Facts on the Public School for American Education Week. Vol. II, No. 4, September, 1924. 40 pp. (Out of print.)

The Problem of Teacher Tenure. Vol. II, No. 5, November, 1924. 40 pp. Price per copy, 25 cents.

Public School Salaries in 1924-1925. Vol. III, Nos. 1 and 2, January and March, 1925. 72 pp. Price per copy, 50 cents.

Taking Stock of the Schools. Vol. III, No. 3, May, 1925. 32 pp. Price per copy, 25 cents.

Keeping Pace With the Advancing Curriculum. Vol. III, Nos. 4 and 5, September and November, 1925. 96 pp. Price per copy, 50 cents.

The Ability of the States to Support Education. Vol. IV, Nos. 1 and 2, January and March, 1926. 96 pp. Price per copy, 50 cents.

Efficient Teaching and Retirement Legislation. Vol. IV, No. 3, May, 1926. 72 pp. Price per copy, 25 cents.

NO CONQUEROR can make the multitude different from what it is; no statesman can carry the world's affairs beyond the ideas and capacities of the generation of adults with which he deals; but teachers—I use the word in the widest sense—can do more than either conqueror or statesman; they can *create a new vision* and liberate the latent powers of our kind.—*H. G. Wells.*

YOU MAY OFFER the people Utopian dreams and a quick climb up the ladder of civilization, and they may believe you. But only centuries of education have been able thus far to give results.—*Arthur Brisbane.*

AS WE REFLECT upon the course of history, we cannot fail to appreciate how little we owe to governments and how much to education and to the methods and achievements of scientific inquiry.

If we have any assurance for the future, it lies in education, in the dissemination of correct information, in availing ourselves of the investigations of science in the formation of a sound public opinion which must rest on a broad, liberal culture.—*Charles Evans Hughes.*