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Statutory Status of Six Professions

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FOREWORD

DURING RECENT YEARS the Committee on Tenure has been actively at work along two major lines. First, thru the investigation of cases of unfair dismissal and thru advice to state legislative groups the Committee has exerted a wholesome influence upon current problems. Second, thru the publication of various studies the Committee has attempted to facilitate discussion of conditions affecting teacher employment. The present bulletin is a part of the second general type of activity.

It is interesting to note in this report the extent to which professions, with the exception of teaching, are licensed and regulated by selected members of each profession. The licensing of teachers is generally lodged in lay hands, which makes a profound difference in attitudes and results. Attention should be called to the fact that licensing in most professions is for life, whereas in a number of instances, teachers' licenses are for a limited period of time. Recently there has been a movement in a number of states to get away from life licensing of teachers and to substitute therefor a five-year certification plan. This tendency is contrary to the trend in most other professions and is viewed by many teachers as destructive to tenure and seniority rights.

In some states teachers' licenses may be revoked without specific provisions for a hearing, presence of counsel for the teachers, and a right to introduce evidence and to appeal to the courts. The tendency in most professions is to erect legal safeguards similar to the best tenure procedure, to prevent improper revocation of licenses.

Teaching differs fundamentally from the other professions dealt with in this report in that teachers are public employees who can be effectively driven out of the profession by dismissal from position, as well as by revocation of license. Members of other professions can be driven out of their profession only by cancellation of their licenses. In order to give teachers the professional security and continuance in their profession, enjoyed by other professions, they need not only sound and well-guarded legal procedure for revocation of licenses but also a like procedure before positions are terminated. In other words, teachers need a dual protection, whereas the other professions considered ordinarily need only a well-guarded protection against improper revocation of licenses.

In the preparation of this report, the Research Division has made a comprehensive and constructive contribution to professional literature. Teachers generally, and the Committee on Tenure in particular, appreciate the fact that original and interesting materials are constantly being made available.

DONALD DUSHANE, *Chairman,*
Committee on Tenure.

Introduction

The purpose of this investigation was to determine what restrictions are put upon admissions to and expulsions from certain professions, as compared with the profession of teaching. The laws governing teachers are reported herein, but only as one section of the study. No more emphasis has been given to it than to the other sections of the report dealing with the certification and the revocation of certificates of five other professions, namely, architecture, public accountancy, law, medicine, and nursing.¹

The study should provide evidence for comparison on several points. Questions which might be asked are:

1. Is the professional preparation required in each of these six professions sufficiently equivalent so that all six professions may be considered as being in the same occupational classification? Unless this question is answerable in the affirmative, a comparison would be impossible. The finding is not first in importance but must be considered first for the sake of logic.

2. Are there dominating forces which have influenced standards in the various professions and which may constitute "leads" for the other professions to follow?

3. Are some states more careful in the selection and maintenance of professional personnel than others, regardless of the type of occupation? Or, is the regulation of some profession or professions more stringent than for other professions even in the same state? Has the centralization of authority for certification influenced standards?

4. Are provisions for safeguarding the rights of members equally protective in the several professions? Are provisions for expulsion from the professions by revocation of license a threat by which the profession is kept in line, or are the provisions for expulsion employed only as a last resort when all else has failed to keep the professional personnel on a high level?

Procedure and Limitations of Study

Since these six professions are regulated by laws enacted by state legislatures, state statutes were examined for each profession. Altho further regulations based upon the authority of state boards amplify the provisions of the state codes, these board rules were not included in the present study. The analysis of regulations governing each of the six professions is based upon state statutes. It is possible that board rules and practice may differ from the

written law, especially if the statute gives the power of regulations to the state boards with authority to make and enforce rules such as become necessary from time to time. Since compilation of such state board resolutions would have been a prolonged task, the present study is limited to the basic regulations included in the legislative enactments.

Plan of Report

The investigation is reported in three parts. Part I surveys the provisions for admission to the professions of architecture, public accountancy, law, medicine, nursing, and teaching. The agency authorized to regulate the profession, the prerequisites for license, and the possibility of moving from state to state are the topics discussed for each profession. Part II deals with revocation of licenses in each profession. The provisions for protecting the individual's rights and the causes to be considered legitimate bases for revocation show both great similarities and some differences among the professions. Part III presents a tabulation of the cases of revocation reported as actually tried in each state. These data indicate the application of the legal principles set down in Part II and have a considerable, tho indirect, relationship with Part I on admission requirements.

Definition of Terms

The terms "license" and "certificate" are used interchangeably in this report. In a few states, especially in the teaching profession, some distinction is drawn between the terms. For example, certificates may refer only to state-granted credentials, whereas license is used to refer to a permission to teach granted by the county authorities. Such a distinction occurs rarely and is not based upon an essential difference. Therefore, no distinction is made in this report between the two terms. Architects may be registered instead of licensed. The distinction has not been carried thru this study. Non-resident physicians may be endorsed rather than licensed—it is a minor point. Certificate, registration, endorsement, and license are used in this study as the official permission to practice—no more, no less. Finer

¹ While the selection of these professional groups for study was somewhat arbitrary, two criteria were kept in mind: (1) to include representatives of four great areas of human activity—the arts, business, law, and medicine; and (2) to include professions which were licensed by most of the states and subject to a considerable body of statutory regulation.

distinctions may be of interest to the members of the several professions, but are not pertinent to the approach of the present study.

The five professions discussed in the report—architecture, public accountancy, law, medicine, and nursing—need little definition. Accountants, as the term is used herein, refers to public accountants, not bookkeepers or accountants in private business. The section on law refers to “lawyers” with the intention of including all kinds of persons practicing law. In most states there is no distinction between types of lawyers. The regulatory statutes and Supreme Court rules usually designate their reference to attorneys and counselors-at-law. The distinction between attorneys and counselors which obtains in England is not common in the United States. Strictly speaking, an attorney is one appointed by another to act in his place in a legal matter or proceeding, or in a private matter, or for a certain purpose. Therein resides the basis for the term “power of attorney” which may be administered by persons not legal practitioners. A counsel is a person retained by a client to plead his cause in a court of judicature. A counselor-at-law is an officer in the Supreme Court of the United States and in some other courts who is retained by a party in a cause to conduct the same on its trial in his behalf. An attorney-at-law is an officer in a court of justice who is employed by a party in a cause to manage the same for him. A lawyer is any person who, for fee or reward, prosecutes or defends causes in courts of record or other judicial tribunals of the United States or of any of the states, or whose business it is to give legal advice in relation to any cause or matter whatever. Since “lawyer” appeared to be the more general term, and since the regulations of the profession did not make any distinction among the various terms above defined,² the designation of lawyer was used in this report.

Compulsion behind Certification Laws

State laws providing for licensing of professional practitioners are of two kinds: compulsory and non-compulsory. All lawyers, teachers, and physicians must secure a license before they practice their professions. These laws are compulsory in every state. Laws providing for registration of architects, accountants, and

nurses are not always compulsory. That is to say, architects, accountants, and nurses may in some states practice without certification, provided they do not pose as licensed practitioners. For example, the law in these states reads so that a person may do the things an architect usually does without violating the law unless he uses the title “architect.” Other states regulate the right to practice architecture regardless of the use of the title; these are compulsory. The two kinds of laws, at first glance, appear very different as the former does not require a license of every person practicing architecture. However, the difference is not as great as it would seem since other state statutes provide further limitations. The building administration may require that plans for buildings over a designated low cost or size be signed by an “architect” which would mean that, in order to submit plans, the person must be a licensed architect. This indirectly widens the group for which license is required so as to include almost all persons doing architectural work. Other such building requirements working together with the architectural regulations eradicate most of the differences between the compulsory and the non-compulsory laws.

Similar to non-compulsory architectural laws are those regulating accountants and nurses. Some states allow a person to practice nursing without a license so long as he does not call himself a registered nurse, or use the letters “R. N.” after his name. There are also practical nurses and hospital attendants who are not often licensed. One law may require the licensing of the registered nurses (R. N.’s), the practical nurses (P. N.’s), and the trained assistants (T. A.’s); it definitely classifies each type of person giving the service and requires licenses of each class. Another law may require that no person may call himself an “R. N.” without a license. The ordinary non-compulsory nurse practice act, therefore, does not differ greatly from the compulsory act, since both amount virtually to the same thing in practical application. However, Maine and New Hampshire require registration only for public health nurses.

No law prohibits any person’s practicing a profession without a license unless the restric-

² New Jersey is the only state retaining the English distinction between attorney and counselor. In New Jersey a license for counselor requires a special examination. The applicant must have resided and practiced as an attorney for three years in the state.

tion be for the public welfare, as in medicine. Illinois, Oklahoma, and Tennessee passed accountancy laws which were held to be unconstitutional in that they restricted the practice of accountancy to C. P. A.'s.

The accountancy laws were held to be unjustifiable by police power in that the public welfare was not promoted by such legislation. C. P. A. laws, therefore, are constitutional so far as they require all *public* accountants to be licensed. Some laws permit accountants to do public accountancy work without a license so long as they do not use the title or initials signifying that they are certified public accountants.

Centralization of Licensing Agencies

Altho most states license each profession thru a separate examining board, a few states have centralized some or all of the licensing agencies under the direction of a single administra-

tive head. In California, Idaho, Illinois, Massachusetts, New York, Utah, and Washington, regulations for many occupations and professions requiring license for practice have been segregated under a single head who directs the administration of the regulations thru committees or boards responsible to him, each committee or board dealing with a single occupation. In the District of Columbia there is a Commission on Licensure which administers the examining boards in the medical field; other professions are regulated by independent boards.

Only in New York state are teachers included under the control of the centralized agency; in Illinois teachers are affected indirectly thru the normal school board. In all other states, teachers are certificated by the educational agent or agencies—separate from the agencies created to license all or some of the other professions.

I. Legal Regulations for Admission to the Professions

In this part of the report each profession is discussed in reference to statutory regulations for licensing. The regulating agencies empowered to grant the licenses, personal educational and experiential standards required for obtaining the licenses, and reciprocal provisions whereby licentiates may move from state to state, are the topics covered under each of the six professions. Brief reference is also made to the work of the national professional organizations having exerted influence upon the standards of each profession.

Accountants

Some states restrict their accountancy legislation to certified public accountants; other states include all public accountants; in still others, the law refers to both as different classes of accountants. The main features of the accountancy legislation described in this section have not been classified according to such fine distinctions.¹

State Boards of Accountancy

Appointment and qualifications—Most state agencies regulating the profession of the certified public accountant are independent state agencies.² Membership in state boards of accountancy is from three to five persons appointed by the governor for a term of from one to five years. In every case, at least the majority of the board members are themselves public accountants registered in the state. Fifteen states set a minimum experience qualification of eligibility to appointment on the state board of accountancy. Alabama, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Vermont require that one or two attorneys in good standing be appointed on the board. These stipulations comprise the qualifications required in typical states.

Eleven states have further requirements. Illinois, Kentucky, and Massachusetts forbid board members from being connected in any way with any school of accountancy; Kentucky requires the board members to have been state residents for at least one year; the board mem-

bers in Louisiana, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee are chosen from geographical areas of the state; Idaho appoints the board members from recommendations made by the state society of accountants; and Mississippi requires that the board members be members of the state society.

In Maryland, one board member must be an economist recommended by the president of Johns Hopkins University. In Ohio, board members must meet only two requirements: they must be skilled in knowledge and practice of accountancy and not more than two may belong to the same political party. In South Dakota, the board of accountancy consists of the superintendent of banks, the executive accountant, and the insurance examiners. In Vermont, the auditor of accounts, the state treasurer, and the commissioner of banking and insurance comprise the board of accountancy.

Finances of state boards of accountancy—At least nine states do not compensate their board members. Other states pay from \$5 to \$10 a day for the days spent in state board business. The expenses of the board are met by the fees collected. Fees for examination are usually \$25, altho Kansas and Maryland charge only \$10. The annual renewal fee runs from \$1 to \$10. Fees for out-of-state registration are usually the same as for the resident applicants altho several states double the amount.

Personal Qualifications Required for Certification

All states stipulate that the applicant must be a citizen of the United States or have declared his intention of becoming naturalized. If the latter, the license is revoked if naturalization is not completed within a specified time in some states: six years in Florida and Michigan, two years in Hawaii, eight years in New York.

The general requirements for certification apply to residents of the state, and four states (Indiana, Maine, Minnesota, and Montana) require that the applicant be a resident for at least one year before applying for certification.

Several states require certified public accountants to put up a bond and take an oath

¹ For example, Oklahoma distinguishes between and examines separately "commercial accountants" and "municipal accountants" but, when certified, both types are called "certified public accountants." Such details have seemed irrelevant to the present study.

² See Introduction for description of regulating agencies in California, Idaho, New York, Massachusetts, Utah, and Washington. In these states the board of accountancy is under the supervision of a general state department.

as to the faithful and honest performance of their profession.

Educational Requirements

All states except Washington have requirements for education. In most states the requirements are written in the law; in sixteen states they are board rules but have the authority of law. The usual requirement is high-school graduation. Some states require high-school education, not necessarily graduation, and others permit the substitution of an academic examination or equivalent education or experience in commercial work.

In New York state the educational requirements were raised as of January 1, 1938, to include, after high school, college or a school of accountancy. This state is the first to raise its educational requirements above high school. Other states give credit for formal education in accountancy, but merely as a substitute for the experience requirement.

Experience Requirements

All states except Delaware, Montana, and Washington require experience in accountancy before the applicant is eligible for the examination which will certify him as a C. P. A. or P. A. In two states and Hawaii the period of a certain type of experience required is five years; in three states it is four years; in twenty-two states and the District of Columbia it is three years; in thirteen states and Puerto Rico it is two years; in three states it is only one year. Accountancy college graduation receives credit as a substitute for the entire experience requirement in six states; credit for one year's experience in five states; credit for two years' experience in four states; and three years' experience in two states.

It is obvious that experience credentials have been the earlier requisite for the accountancy certification, and that as schools of accountancy developed the educational credits have been gradually accepted as substitutes. It is probable that experience will decrease in importance, and formal education in accountancy increase in its acceptance as is indicated by the new law in New York.

Few states specify the type of experience required, as for example, Tennessee which requires two years' experience as assistant or one

year as principal, or three years as chief bookkeeper. Mississippi requires two years' experience in public accountancy or five years in bookkeeping.

Reciprocity Arrangements

In thirty-one states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico, non-resident certified public accountants may be registered without examination provided the standards of the original licensing states are equivalent or higher. In nineteen states, Alaska, and Hawaii, the non-resident applicant must meet personal requirements regardless of the statutory standards of his home state. In twenty-four states and Puerto Rico the provisions are operative only when the other state grants the same concessions to their accountants.

Several states specify an experience period (of from three to ten years) which may be substituted for certain other requirements; Hawaii requires a twelve-month residence.

Florida makes provisions for a ninety-day permit, apparently so that non-resident accountants may do work in Florida, but does not provide in the accountancy law for the permanent certification of non-resident accountants. The North Carolina law reads that non-residents may practice by registering their certificate from another state with the North Carolina state board. A recommendation from the home state board as to character of the non-resident applicant is required in Vermont.

Provisions for reciprocal certification of public accountants are brief and simple, usually not very explicit or definite. The widespread work of the Board of Examiners of the American Institute of Accountants facilitates the interstate practice of the members of their profession, and makes almost unnecessary regulations by individual states.

The American Institute of Accountants

During 1936 the American Society of Certified Public Accountants merged with the American Institute of Accountants. The Institute works for the advancement of professional standards thru such means as a committee on professional ethics, a board of examiners which prepares examinations, a bureau of information, library facilities, and publications.³ The Institute examinations have been adopted in forty-four states and territories.

³ Carey, John L., secretary. *A Year's Work of the American Institute of Accountants, 1936-1937*. New York: the Institute, 1937. 34 p.

Some state boards grade their own papers, but the Institute offers to do so and does for thirty-two states and territories. The purpose of this system of national examinations is to make the examinations uniform over the country.

Architects

Laws have been enacted requiring architects to be registered or licensed in all states and territories except Alaska, Arkansas, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Missouri, Nevada, New Hampshire, Vermont, and Wyoming. In at least five of these states, architects are active in the attempt to pass laws which would screen out those not competent professionally or fit morally to be included in their professional group. The earliest legislation of this sort was passed in Illinois in 1897. Only nineteen states had passed such laws up to 1920; but eleven states enacted architectural registration laws between 1920 and 1930; and nine, since 1930. The latest enactment was in 1937 (Texas).

In eight states and two territories the regulating board examines and certifies engineers as well as architects; surveyors are included in six of the laws regulating architects and engineers.⁴

State Architectural Boards

Appointment and qualifications—In Indiana the regulation of architects is under the jurisdiction of the Administrative Building Council; in Wisconsin the board members are appointed by the Industrial Commission. The members of all other state architectural boards are appointed by the governor, and operate as independent governmental agencies except in those states where various professions are segregated under one regulating agency, as for example, the Department of Law Enforcement in Idaho.⁵ The state board usually consists of five or six members, altho in three states there are only three members on the board.⁶ California has two district boards, five members on each, serving the two major geographical districts of the state. The term of office ranges from two to seven years.

Qualifications for eligibility to appointment on the state architectural boards indicate that

non-professional people are not appointed to regulate the profession. In every case, the board members must belong to the profession of architecture, engineering, or surveying; in most cases a definite number of years' experience in the profession is specified as a requirement, usually ten years, under the theory that only an experienced professional architect could see the problems and be capable of judging the professional attainments of those seeking registration. In addition to professional experience, citizenship, residence in the state, practice of architecture in the state, age, and geographical location are designated as requirements in the various laws.

Alabama includes on its state architectural board the dean of the College of Mines of the state university, besides six representative architects and engineers meeting certain requirements. Idaho requires that one member be on the faculty of the agriculture or engineering department of the state university and that one other member be a sanitarian. Illinois also includes a member of the faculty of the state university; two members of the South Carolina board must be professors of architecture or engineering in a university controlled by the state. Kentucky requires that the dean of the state university school of engineering (or architecture if such is later established) serve on the state board. The new Texas law reads: "No more than one member . . . shall be a stockholder or owner of any interest in, nor be a member of the faculty, or board of trustees, or other governing board of, nor be an officer of, any school or college which teaches architecture."

*Finances of regulating agency*⁷—The expenses of the board are met by fees collected for examinations, licenses, and renewal of licenses. Application fees usually amount to \$25 per person payable either in advance of the examination, or part before the examination and the rest when the certificate is granted. Seldom is all of the fee returned in case of rejection, even when all of it is paid in advance. Occasionally the law requires that a portion of the fee be returned. Annual renewal fees range from \$1 in Illinois and Rhode

⁴ Architects, engineers, and surveyors: Arizona, Michigan, Minnesota, Virginia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. Architects and engineers: Nebraska, South Dakota, Tennessee, and Wisconsin.

⁵ See Introduction for discussion of the regulating agencies in California, Idaho, Illinois, New York, Utah, and Washington.

⁶ In those states where engineers and surveyors are included with architects for registration by the same board, the board is usually larger to provide for several representatives of each profession.

⁷ Information on this feature was not obtained from seventeen states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico.

Island to \$10 in about ten states, and \$25 in Indiana. If the applicant fails the examination he is usually eligible for reexamination without further fee at a subsequent examination sometime during a specified interval, as after six months, after one year, or before two years.

At least fourteen states forbid compensation for board members, altho their expenses incurred in attending to the state board business are met by the board. At least seventeen states prescribe a per diem compensation which is \$5, \$10, or \$15 a day for the days actually spent in the state board business, this in addition to the ordinary expenses of the member. At least ten states keep their funds in a separate account; three states keep only a contingent fund, turning over the remainder to the general fund of the state treasury. The Virginia law stipulates that surplus funds, over and above expenses of the board, go to the permanent school fund; Florida sets aside the surplus funds for an architectural course at the University of Florida; Colorado uses the surplus to buy technical books for the board members.

Types of Examination for Registration

Examinations for registration as an architect are of two kinds. The so-called junior examination is prescribed for admission to practice; the senior examination is designed for experienced architects who have been in practice for many years and who wish to extend their practice to another state. In ten states and two territories no provision is made for a senior examination. In those states giving the senior examination, ten years' experience is usually the requisite. In New Jersey, seven years' experience or three years after graduation from an acceptable architectural school admits a candidate to the senior examination. The South Dakota stipulation reads "satisfactory record as principal^a or two years' experience after graduation from an architectural course." Tennessee requires "obvious ability" and age thirty years. The senior examination is usually oral, consisting of an hour or more of general discussion and questioning of the applicant as to his practice and methods, with the submission of plans, specifications, sketches, and photographs of his work.

Qualifications for Admission to Practice

Requisites for the junior examination, which is written and may be supplemented by oral questioning, are more definite and detailed in the statutes. Most states specify that the applicant must be a citizen or have declared his intention to become a citizen; be at least 21 years of age (25 in Arizona, Minnesota, Nebraska, New York, and Pennsylvania); and be of good moral character. The educational requirements vary from state to state and none at all is required by Alabama, Arizona, Colorado, District of Columbia, Florida, Hawaii, Mississippi, Montana, New Mexico, Texas, Utah, Virginia, and Washington.^b Those states which set educational requirements usually mention graduation from high school, some add that mathematics, history, and languages must be included in the high-school curriculum studied. Idaho and New York require two years of college. Wisconsin requires graduation from a four-year college course. On the other hand, Louisiana and Tennessee require only grammar school education. An examination in academic subjects may be substituted for the educational requirements in some states. Graduation from a college of architecture is required in California, Indiana, Michigan, New York, North Carolina, and Puerto Rico, but in each of these laws provision is made for the substitution of an "equivalent." For example, if the applicant is not a graduate, California will accept each year of architectural education as one of the ten years' experience required.

Twelve states, the District of Columbia, and two territories do not require experience before the junior examination. In seven laws the experience requirement is lowered for those showing professional education; in six laws the professional education is accepted as an equivalent substitution, year for year, of experience required. Arizona, which does not require any professional education, allows the eight years' experience requisite to be lowered by substitution of education up to five years of training followed by three years' experience. Idaho allows graduation from an approved college of architecture to be substituted in lieu of other

^a A principal in architecture is one experienced in full control of an architect's office, with responsible charge of employees and work executed under his own name as architect. Ten years' experience as principal is usually required of applicants for the senior examination.

^b In Arizona, Montana, New Mexico, and Virginia, architectural education may be substituted for part or all of the experience requirement.

education and experience requirements, but requires three years' experience if the applicant has merely met the high-school, mathematics, history, and languages requirements. In New Mexico, four years' experience is required but four years of teaching or study of architecture is accepted in lieu thereof. South Dakota requires six years' experience for high-school graduates, but requires graduates from approved colleges of architecture to submit only two years' experience.

There are several reasons for the diversity among educational and experiential requirements in the laws regulating admission to the practice of architecture. One reason is that the laws are comparatively new; perhaps a stronger reason is that formal professional education in this country is comparatively new. There are only forty architectural schools listed in the Patterson directory,¹⁰ and only California, Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio have more than one or two schools within their state boundaries. The formal education in the profession has not yet become widespread enough to make professional education a universal requirement.

Furthermore, each law must contain what is known as the "grandfather clause" to provide for those in practice at the time of the passage of the act. Since professional education in architecture is so recently developed many of the practitioners have not attended architectural courses but have gained their technical training thru employment in an architect's office. These practitioners are ordinarily able architects and should not be prevented from registration when the law is enacted. Therefore, the statutory regulation of admission to the practice of architecture gives more emphasis to experience than formal professional education. Laws are revised from time to time to raise their requirements and the American Institute of Architects, a restricted professional organization, fosters higher standards as is evidenced thru the publication of a model law annotated with the Institute's principles concerning various features of registration.¹¹ The Institute recommends that all registration laws require "graduation from an accredited high school and not less than a four-year course in an approved technical college of architecture,

with graduation therefrom, plus three years of diversified practical experience in the offices of legally qualified architects." None of the existing architectural laws meets this standard as all six states and Puerto Rico, which are the only ones requiring graduation from an architectural college, allow the substitution of "equivalents."

Registration of Non-Resident Architects

Architects, especially those with a fine reputation, have frequent occasion to cross state lines to do work in other states. It is not uncommon for an architect from New York, Boston, Chicago, or other metropolitan centers to be called across the continent for a particular kind of work for which he is renowned. This practice makes the profession more highly nationalized than many others. It makes necessary the provision in state laws for evaluating and accepting architects from other states. Temporary licenses are permitted in fourteen states and Hawaii but serve such a limited purpose that permanent registration of non-resident architects has become a problem. Most laws grant the examining board the power to make rules and regulations concerning the acceptance of non-resident architects. In some laws the power of the examining board is qualified by such provisos as the following: if the state from which the architect comes has equivalent requirements for registration, or if the other state grants similar courtesies to architects from the home state. These provisions are vague and place too little emphasis upon the merit of the individual architect. Furthermore, nine states do not register their architects at all, and these then would be barred from practice in the states which register non-resident practitioners on the basis of equivalent standards.

The majority of the states grant registration to architects from other states when they have been duly licensed by examination in their home state and the record of practice, character, and preliminary requirements are equivalent. In addition, Colorado, the District of Columbia, and Washington have an age requirement for non-resident applicants. Arizona and Hawaii stipulate that the applicant's record of practice, character, and examination in

¹⁰ Patterson, Homer L., editor. *Patterson's American Educational Directory*. Vol. 33. Chicago: American Educational Co. 1936. p. 703-704.

¹¹ American Institute of Architects. "Recommended Provisions for Registration Laws for Architects." Document No. 279. Washington, D. C.: the Institute. (No date.)

his own state be "adjudged satisfactory," a regulation which gives discretionary power to the board. In Tennessee, applicants from states having equal requirements are registered only after a personal appearance before the board. In Texas and Washington, the other state must have equal and reciprocal requirements before the applicant is registered. In West Virginia, reciprocity appears to be the main basis upon which non-resident applicants are accepted or rejected.

In most of these states the board will consider the applicant's record of experience as a principal in lieu of possible credit for making up a deficiency if the home state examination is not adjudged equivalent, or the deficiencies may be made up in one of several other ways: the applicant may be required to submit additional evidence or appear in person with exhibits for questioning, or pass an examination equal to the deficiencies. If the examination in the home state is of very much lower standard the applicant may be required to take the full examination or fulfil any or all of the provisions which in the opinion of the board are necessary to prove the applicant's qualifications equal to the standards of the state in which registration is sought.

Lack of Distinction between Resident and Non-Resident Applicants

There is no distinction made between non-resident applicants with and without state credentials in Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, and New York. The principle involved is that architects from outside the state must meet certain requirements regardless of registration in the home state. Alabama, Florida, and Mississippi will register non-resident architects provided they meet any of the following requirements: (a) registration in good standing in any state; (b) American Institute of Architects membership in good standing; (c) graduate of approved college of architecture with (specified) experience. In Alabama this experience may be no more than one year in an office of a reputable architect, but in Florida and Mississippi the experience must be at least two years as a principal. Florida adds that architects of long experience as a principal in states having no registration laws will also be accepted; however, proof of ability is required in any case in Florida.

New York registers non-resident architects if they have had ten years of lawful practice

out of the state and appear personally before the board for a practical examination, the character of which is determined by the board. It would appear that the lack of distinction between architects from states with registration laws and those from states without registration laws may tend to keep the standards low in some states and higher in another such as New York.

Registration of Non-Resident Architects without Official Credentials

If an architect does not have National Council of Architectural Registration Boards examination credentials or registration by examination in his home state, he has no official records to submit to the state in which he wishes to be registered. Twenty-four states will not register non-resident architects unless they have N.C.A.R.B. records or home state registration by examination. Idaho will accept graduation from an architectural college and three years' experience; New Mexico will accept membership in the American Institute of Architects; South Carolina will accept applicants with ten years' experience and record of high character and integrity; West Virginia also requires ten years' experience in lieu of examination credentials. Colorado requires graduation from an approved college of architecture plus four years' experience and also membership in the American Institute of Architects. The Delaware and Pennsylvania laws read "evidence that applicant is well versed in essential qualifications plus good record of practice and character." Kentucky and South Dakota demand a "record of outstanding practice and character." Ohio will register architects without examination credentials if they are graduates of an approved college of architecture with three years of satisfactory experience, or will provide a partial examination, altho they provide also that exemptions applying to Ohio architects seeking registration in other states will be applied to non-resident applicants in Ohio. In other words, Ohio sets up requirements, then allows exemptions for reciprocity.

National Council of Architectural Registration Boards

To facilitate the interstate practice of architects, the National Council of Architectural Registration Boards was established. This organization, controlled by the various state boards, serves as a clearing-house thru the

standard examinations given by the National Council. State board examinations are rated; when an architect wishes to move from a state with low standards to one with high standards he may apply to the National Council of Architectural Registration Boards; credit is given for whatever examination the candidate has already passed and he is required to make up the deficiency. If a candidate has not been licensed in any state he may take the N.C.A.R.B. junior or senior examination in its entirety depending upon his eligibility for either. Some state boards have substituted these N.C.A.R.B. examination standards for their own resident applicants.

The reception by state boards of the N.C.A.R.B. credentials varies from state to state. In seventeen states no special policy has been laid down and applicants use the N.C.A.R.B. examination in the same manner as a state registration, submitting these N.C.A.R.B. credentials instead of or in addition to their own state records. In thirteen states the board has agreed to accept the N.C.A.R.B. credentials altho customary board action is necessary. In Connecticut, Kentucky, Minnesota, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Virginia, the board action is merely a form, the agreement being that unanimous ballot for approval will be cast immediately upon receipt of the certified record and complete application. Florida, California, and Tennessee are not typical in their acceptance of the N.C.A.R.B. records. California requires a general oral examination in addition to the N.C.A.R.B. records; Florida accepts the N.C.A.R.B. record in lieu of a personal appearance of the applicant where such would otherwise be required, then grants a limited permit to practice. Tennessee waives the personal appearance requirement but otherwise requires the same routine from N.C.A.R.B. applicants as from those applicants who have registered in another state.

Lawyers

The courts have often declared that the power to control the profession of the law is inherent or implied in the powers of the courts. Added to this is the desire of the organized

bar to govern itself. The power of state legislatures has been a debatable point since some courts have definitely repudiated legislation purported to discipline lawyers.¹² In other cases the court has held that a coordinate authority exists between the legislative body and the courts.¹³ Only in a few cases has the court admitted the controlling power in the legislature. The general opinion seems to be that the legislature may fix grounds for admission to the bar and disbarment therefrom, but the courts are not limited to these grounds. Confusion results from this situation. Divergent authorities dictate regulations; court decisions interpret the terms of general statutes; and the fundamental standards are a mixture of statutory provisions and judicial opinions. Herein, at least, the profession of law differs considerably from the other professions considered in this report.

The legislature may prescribe rules but they must be reasonable and should not deprive the courts of their inherent power to prescribe their own rules according to opinions in California, Connecticut, Kansas, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. The legislature has no right to prescribe rules in Illinois, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. The state bar association is self-governing in seventeen states: Alabama, Arkansas, California, Idaho, Kentucky, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Nevada, New Mexico, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Utah, and Washington. New York might be included also from a practical point of view.¹⁴ The Supreme Court of Illinois cooperates with the state and the Chicago bar associations in such a way as to make Illinois practically eligible for inclusion in this list also.

The self-governing plan of regulating lawyers in these seventeen states is a recent development based upon the integrated plan adopted by the American Bar Association.¹⁵ Formerly, and to date in the other states, membership in the bar associations was a voluntary matter. Under the new plan membership is compulsory; it is correlative with admission to practice. The association then is able to regulate

¹² Bradway, J. S. "Moral Turpitude as the Criterion of Offenses That Justify Disbarment." *California Law Review* 24: 9; November 1935.

¹³ Editorial. "Inherent Power of the Courts with Respect to Unlawful Practice of the Law." *United States Law Review* 71: 241; May 1937.

¹⁴ Editorial. *Journal of the American Judicature Society* 19: 77; October 1935.

¹⁵ Rutherford, M. Louise. *The Influence of the American Bar Association on Public Opinion and Legislation*. Philadelphia, 1936. p. 33.

its membership as to admission and expulsion. Undoubtedly, lawyers as a group have achieved self-government to a much greater extent than any other profession.

State Bar Examiners

Most examining agencies consist of five members altho they range from three to fifteen. The term of office is from one to seven years; in nineteen states it is three years; in seven states the members serve at the pleasure of the appointing power. Fourteen states make no provisions for compensating the board members. In twelve states the per diem remuneration is from \$5 to \$25 in addition to expenses. In eight states the compensation is set at an annual figure, from \$100 to \$1500. Examinations last from one to six days and cover "the whole field of law" in two states and specified subjects designated in other states. When itemized, the subjects covered in the examination range from five to thirty-three, averaging nineteen.¹⁶

Personal Characteristics Required for Admission to the Bar

Almost every state requires that applicants for admission to the bar be citizens of the United States or have declared their intention of becoming citizens. Georgia requires that an alien have been a resident of the state two years and have declared his intentions of citizenship. Massachusetts admits to examination aliens who have declared intentions of becoming naturalized but does not permit practice until they are citizens.

Most states require that the applicants be residents of the state or have declared their intention of residing in the state. About half set a resident time requirement from 60 days to one year. West Virginia requires that the applicant be a resident of his county for one year previous to the examination.

Delaware admits to examination applicants eighteen years of age and over; North Carolina names twenty as the minimum age acceptable; all other states require that the candidates be twenty-one or over. Arkansas and Maryland waive the age requirement if the applicant is a graduate of an acceptable law school and meets the other requirements. In Florida the age limitation may be waived by

a circuit court. In Virginia applicants over nineteen will be admitted to the examination but will not be permitted to practice until they are twenty-one. Connecticut and Wisconsin admit to examination those applicants not yet twenty-one but who will reach their twenty-first birthday before the next examination.

Good moral character is mentioned as a requisite for all persons admitted to practice law. In North Carolina, if an application is refused on account of character, the applicant will be barred from the examination for two years. Proof of good moral character varies from state to state. Some laws do not provide any means for verifying character; others rely upon certificates or affidavits from reputable attorneys of the state. In seven states a committee is appointed for the special function of inquiry into the character of applicants for admission to the bar. This committee is usually called "Committee on Character and Fitness." This plan operates in Alabama, Colorado, Illinois, Kentucky, Maryland, New Jersey, and New York. When the Committee on Character and Fitness is satisfied with its findings, it gives to the applicant a certificate signifying his moral fitness for admission to the bar. Such certificate is requisite to the examination on legal knowledge.

Educational Requirements

Arkansas is the only state which makes no general educational requirement of prospective lawyers. Kansas was the first state to raise its requirements to seven years of college (three years' academic work followed by four years of law or four years of academic work with three years of law). Delaware requires a college degree before beginning the study of law or passage of a general educational examination on certain specified subjects conducted by the University of Delaware. Pennsylvania has a similar regulation: a college degree is required before beginning the study of law or passage of a general educational examination independently conducted by the College Board for the State Board of Law Examiners.

The majority of states, however, require only two years of college or its equivalent before law study or before admission to the examination. This requirement meets the recommendations of the American Bar Association.¹⁷ In nine states, however, the educational

¹⁶ This paragraph has been abstracted from the *Handbook of the Association of American Law Schools and Proceedings of the Thirty-fourth Annual Meeting Held at Chicago, December 29, 30, and 31, 1936*. The Association, 1936.

¹⁷ Tewell, J. L. "Admission to the Bar and Disbarment." *Nebraska Law Bulletin* 13: 203; November 1934.

requirement is lower than the American Bar Association recommendation. California, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Dakota require only high-school education or its equivalent before admission to examination, not necessarily before law study.

The American Bar Association recommends at least three years of legal study. Thirty-nine states meet this recommendation. Kentucky, Montana, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia require only two years of legal study; Texas, twenty-seven months. Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, and Mississippi make no requirements regarding the period of legal training.

Some of the thirty-nine states requiring three years of legal study keep their standards higher than others by restricting the school in which the study takes place. Schools approved by the American Bar Association are favored; this or some similar restriction is placed upon legal education of applicants in 21 states: Alabama, Connecticut, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Maine, Minnesota, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. Oregon requires approval of the school by the state supreme court. Alabama requires three years' study in a school approved by the American Bar Association or accepts four years at an unapproved school.

Of the 190 law schools with more than ten students, 94 were approved by the American Bar Association in 1936.¹⁸ Six of these schools require a degree for admission to the study of law. Entrance requirements in other law schools are three years of college in thirty schools, two years of college in 97 law schools. Fifty-seven schools admit students with high-school education only, some of these not even requiring high-school graduation. All law schools except seven give at least a three-year law course. There are no law schools at all in Delaware, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Nevada, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

Admission to the bar on a diploma from law school, without an examination as to the applicant's knowledge of law is permitted in Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Mississippi, South Dakota, West Virginia, and Wisconsin. Nebraska has abolished this custom by repeal effective September 1938; Texas' repeal was ef-

fective July 1937. The tendency is to accept the American Bar Association recommendation that "graduation from a law school should not confer the right of admission to the bar . . . every candidate should be subjected to an examination by public authority to determine his fitness."

Another A. B. A. recommendation is less generally accepted. This is in regard to office study without law school attendance. Only Alabama, Kentucky, New Mexico, Ohio, West Virginia, and Oregon (after July 31, 1940) refuse credit for office study. All other states permit candidates to gain all or part of their legal training in an office. Most states requiring three years of law study accept four years of law study if it is divided between a law school and a law office. The American Bar Association does not approve of admission to practice law on the basis of office study only but does not rule concerning supplementary office study during or after law school attendance. Delaware, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Vermont require law office experience in addition to their requirement of law school study. In New Jersey three years of legal study is required; graduation from law school may be substituted for no more than two of these three years. The other four named states require six months' experience in a law office, part of which may in some cases be interpolated into the law school vacations.

Non-Resident Attorneys

Attorneys, like architects, physicians, and accountants, have occasion to cross state lines. Requirements are set up in all bar acts making possible the transfer of a lawyer from one state to another under certain conditions. In nineteen states and Puerto Rico, non-resident attorneys are admitted without the bar examination provided they meet the qualifications stipulated. In Florida, Hawaii, Idaho, and Texas, non-resident attorneys are admitted only upon examination and must meet certain qualifications before becoming eligible to the examination. In Kansas, non-resident attorneys also are examined but separately from the resident applicants and "in such manner as the board deems proper." In Colorado, District of Columbia, Montana, and New York, an examination may or may not be given depending upon the discretion of the board. An oral examina-

¹⁸ Shafer, Will, editor. *Annual Review of Legal Education for 1936*. Chicago: American Bar Association, 1936. p. 39.

tion may or may not be given in North Dakota and Utah. In Kentucky the non-resident attorney must take the examination if he has practiced less than five years; in Pennsylvania, if his experience is less than eight years. Vermont requires an examination after six months' study in a law office in Vermont unless the non-resident attorney has had more than one year's experience in actual practice. Oregon gives a two-year temporary certificate.

Personal qualifications of age and residence are included in the requirements in California, Connecticut, New York, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. In Missouri, North Dakota, and South Dakota, the non-resident applicants must meet the personal requirements set up for resident applicants. Certificates, affidavits, or recommendations from judges, attorneys, bar associations, business men, and others are variously required as proof of good moral character and high professional standing in twenty-eight states and two territories.

Some practice in law or professional experience is required for non-resident attorneys in forty-five states, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico. New Mexico gives a temporary license for the first year if the applicant has not had seven years' experience. Only Kentucky, Louisiana, Minnesota, and Montana do not require experience, and in three other states a period of professional experience may be replaced by other qualifications. Kentucky requires five years' experience in the highest court of the home state, that the applicant meet the personal qualifications required, and bring certificates from a judge as to professional standing. However, if the applicant has practiced less than five years, he must show the requirements in his own state. If the requirements are less than in Kentucky, the applicant must study two years and take an examination. It appears in the Kentucky law as tho the five years' experience would be accepted to make up the deficiency in those cases where the requirements for admission to the bar in the home state are less than in Kentucky. In Montana the requirement is that the standards in the home state be equivalent or higher than those required in Montana, but if less, the applicant will be accepted provided he has practiced two years. In Minnesota an applicant with less than three years' experience must take the examination.

The question of equivalent standards is not as prominent in the requirements for non-resident

attorneys as in the registration of out-of-state practitioners in some of the other professions. Arkansas, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Illinois, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oregon, Tennessee, and New Jersey are the only states mentioning this requirement specifically. New Jersey requires that the non-resident applicant meet the same educational qualifications as met by resident applicants unless the attorney has been practicing at least ten years. The alternatives in Kentucky and Montana are mentioned above.

National Conference of Bar Examiners

This organization was formed seven years ago as a conferring group of bar examiners. Its original purpose was to bring together representatives of the various state boards for the exchange of ideas and experience. At the beginning the National Conference concentrated on round-table discussions of the subjects of character investigation, methods and content of bar examinations, and the minimizing of the repeater examinees. Recently, the Conference has instituted bar examination clinics where visits are made to state boards during examinations, the members of the National Conference participating in the oral examinations conducted. Gradually emphasis was put upon the character investigations culminating in the Foreign Applicant and Attorney Investigation Service. State boards have individually checked upon the character of local applicants, but they found it difficult to investigate thoroly the character of applicants from out of the state. The National Conference of Bar Examiners initiated and offered to all state boards its service in this connection since thru its nationwide contacts it was able to conduct a particularly thoro and successful investigation. The charge for each individual investigation is \$25 which is generally added to the admission fee or required to be paid directly by the applicant himself. Twenty-three states now subscribe to the character investigation service of the National Conference. The organization collects the information on the applicant's character for the state bar examiners but does not make any recommendation as to whether or not the applicant should be admitted. In this respect the National Conference of Bar Examiners differs from national organizations in other professions such as the National Council of Architectural Registration Boards and the National Board of Medical Examiners.

Nurses

The regulation of the nursing profession differs somewhat from the regulation of the other professions reviewed in this bulletin. The emphasis appears to be upon nursing education, to raise the standards of the schools of nursing.

State Boards of Nurse Examiners

Nurses are not registered in Alaska. Again, altho most states regulate the profession thru an independent government agency, fifteen states place the regulating agency under some other government or professional group. The departments or agencies controlling the state boards of nurse examiners are listed for the following states:

State Department of Public Health—California,
Iowa, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin
Secretary of State—Georgia
Department of Law Enforcement—Idaho
Department of Education and Registration—Illinois
Department of Civil Service and Registration—Massachusetts
State Department of Education—New Hampshire,
New York, and Pennsylvania
Department of Registration—Utah
Director of Licenses—Washington
State Nurses Association—North Carolina

Appointment and qualifications—State boards of nurse examiners are usually composed of from three to seven members whose term of office runs from two to six years. In Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, District of Columbia, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Louisiana, Maryland, New Hampshire, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, South Dakota, Vermont, Virginia, and Wyoming—twenty states and the District of Columbia—the nurses appointed to the board are recommended by the nurses association of the state. In Montana the members must belong to the state association but apparently are not nominated to the state board by the association. In Arkansas, New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Texas there is an age limitation. Residence in the state is usually a requisite; in Montana the board members must have been state residents for at least one year. In Nebraska they must have been residents of their districts for at least three years.

In California the members of the state board are given civil service ratings. In Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Oregon, and South Carolina, each member must be from a different training

school. The Georgia law also reads that no member may be connected with a training school, while the Rhode Island law prescribes that three of the five members must be connected with some training school. In Indiana not more than three of the five members must belong to the same political party. In Nebraska not more than one member may be from each congressional district and in Tennessee the membership of the state board is divided among the geographical divisions of the state.

In thirty-one states, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii, some experience in nursing after graduation is required of board members. In Illinois, Minnesota, Montana, North Dakota, Texas, Vermont, and Wisconsin, some of the board members must have had experience in nursing education. The experience requirements range from two to five years; the majority sets three years.

Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Hawaii, Idaho, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Vermont, and West Virginia require at least one M. D. on the state board of nurse examiners. In Kansas and Massachusetts the M. D. is the secretary of the state board of medical examiners; in South Dakota he is from the state board of health. Most states prescribing that medical members be on the board do not set up qualifications for those members. Idaho, South Carolina, and Tennessee stipulate a certain period of experience which the medical member must have; North Carolina and South Carolina provide for the election of the medical member by the state medical society. Vermont requires that the medical member have experience in nursing education. In Tennessee the medical member must be a member of the state medical society in good standing, must have had hospital experience but not at the time be conducting a training school for nurses.

Several states require other qualifications of certain members of the board. Michigan includes the state health commissioner on the state board; Nebraska and Pennsylvania include the state superintendent of public instruction; North Carolina requires that one member be elected by the state hospital association. South Carolina requires that one member be a hospital superintendent of a nursing school not otherwise represented by the membership of the board.

The requirements for the Wisconsin board are especially definite. This board, which is under the jurisdiction of the state board of health, consists of one public health nurse, one private duty nurse, a director of nursing education, and four registered nurses with three years' experience, two of whom have had experience in administration of nursing education.

Financing state boards of nursing—Members of state boards for the examination of nurses are usually paid from \$5 to \$10 a day for the days which they devote to official business. North Carolina specifies that surplus funds shall be used for the extension of nursing education in the state. Examination fees are usually \$10, altho Louisiana, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, and Texas charge \$15, and Arkansas, California, Massachusetts, Mississippi, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Tennessee charge \$5. Fee for registration of non-resident nurses is the same as for resident applicants or higher. Renewal fee is usually \$1, sometimes \$2. No renewal is prescribed in several states. Legislative appropriations finance nurses' registration or at least supplement the funds taken in as fees in sixteen states.

Personal Characteristics Required for License

The personal characteristics required of prospective nurses are not enumerated in detail in the laws regulating the profession of nursing. Age is specified either as a requirement for license or for entrance to nursing school. If the latter, it is eighteen; the age at which the graduates may be licensed varies from eighteen in Texas and Puerto Rico, nineteen in North Dakota, twenty in five states and Hawaii, to twenty-one in Virginia. The rest of the states set twenty-one as the age required for a nurse's license. Good moral character is mentioned in approximately two-thirds of the laws, but the evidence required is not indicated.

Educational Requirements

The American Nurses' Association recommends that all nursing schools require their students to have completed high school.¹⁰ That is not the case in many states to date. Arizona, California, Florida, Indiana, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Vermont, and Wisconsin state in their statutes

a requirement of general education which is less than high school, and Washington makes no provision at all for general education requisite. The statutes may be of lower standard than the nursing schools maintain of their own volition, however. This is the case in Pennsylvania, for example. The law requires only one year of high school for license; the schools all require four years of high school as an entrance requirement. Therefore, if the same situation prevails widely over other states, the statutory regulations do not present a true picture of the general education possessed by the graduates who appear for license examinations.

Nursing school courses are usually two or three years. Twenty-eight states and Hawaii require three years' professional education; fifteen states require only two years. However, here again the statutory regulation is often less than the requirement of the nursing school and sometimes, as in Arkansas, the board rules a three-year nursing course in spite of the statutory acceptance of two years.

Regulation of Nursing Education

One reason for the apparent discrepancy between statutory regulations and board or nursing school regulations is that almost every law provides for nursing school regulation and inspection by the board or a member of the board or an educational director appointed or employed by the board. Inspecting of nursing schools, advising with the staff of nursing schools, and evaluating the curriculum of nursing schools appear to be principal features required of the board members thru the statutory exposition of their powers and duties. There is probably greater regulation of professional education by the state regulatory board in nursing than in any of the other professions analyzed herein.

The National League of Nursing Education has set up a standard curriculum which has been adopted with modifications to meet state conditions by boards in at least thirty-two states. Altho not required in Iowa, it is recommended. The curriculum to be followed by nursing schools is prescribed by the state board in Delaware, the District of Columbia, Idaho, Indiana, Maine, New Hampshire, North Dakota, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina. Schools are inspected usually once a year; in seven states the inspection is said to

¹⁰ Eldredge, Adda. "Legislation and the Future of Nursing." *Proceedings, Twenty-Ninth Biennial Convention*. New York: American Nurses' Association, 1934. 12 p.

be only occasionally which may mean more or less often than once a year. The statutes in South Carolina do not provide for inspection of schools; in Illinois the inspection is made by board members only at the request of the director of the Department of Education and Registration. The law does not prescribe curriculum standards in Illinois. Nevada does not have any schools of nursing, but keeps a list of accredited schools.

Inspectors or educational directors usually have their duties outlined in the law as follows: ". . . shall be to visit the nurses' training school located in the state . . . and give advice, aid, and encouragement to such schools or student nurses in maintaining high professional ideals, and keep them informed of the progressive methods such as obtain in other states and countries and look over records and ascertain the educational status of such schools and students as prescribed by the board of examiners."

The system for advice, inspection, and regulation of schools of nursing in New York state is handled thru an advisory council. The law reads as follows:

An advisory council shall be appointed by the regents. Such advisory council shall consist of three nurses, three physicians, and three representatives of incorporated hospitals, and members of each of these three groups shall be appointed for terms of one, two, and three years respectively. Nominations to membership upon this council in twice the number of the vacancies to be filled shall annually be made to the department by the New York State Nurses Association and the New York State League of Nursing Education, in agreement between these associations upon the nominees; by the Medical Society of the State of New York, and by the Hospital Conference of New York City or the State Hospital Association, or both. It shall be the duty . . . to advise the department as to courses to be pursued and standards to be maintained in training schools for nurses and for trained attendants, and also as to the rules for the examination of nurses and trained attendants applying for certification, and from time to time to make such recommendations to the department as it shall deem proper for the right enforcement of this article.

Licensing Non-Resident Nurses

Most laws state that the restrictions do not apply to nurses who accompany a patient into the state for a temporary sojourn. If a registered nurse wishes to take up permanent residence in a state in which she is not licensed, she must be registered in the new state. All except Indiana, Nebraska, and Tennessee

specify that the examination will be waived if the nurse meets certain qualifications: in thirty-six states and two territories the proviso is that the other state maintain equivalent standards; in eight states if the non-resident nurse is a graduate of a training school maintaining standards equivalent to those required in the new state. In sixteen states and Hawaii the proviso deals with the personal qualifications of the nurse whose qualifications must be satisfactory regardless of the state's standards. Kansas, Maryland, and West Virginia require recommendations from the home state board concerning the character of the applicant. Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, North Dakota, Ohio, Puerto Rico, South Dakota, and Vermont accept only those nurses from states which reciprocate with them. In Tennessee there is no waiver of examination, but non-resident nurses are eligible for examination if their personal qualifications are satisfactory and they are graduates of a training school of equivalent standards.

In Indiana the law merely states that the board shall have power to make rules but that same shall be conditional on reciprocity. In Nebraska the statutory regulation provides no basis for acceptance of non-resident nurses except that the bureau may modify standards for a specified period relative to licenses of other states. The present bureau rule is to accept non-resident nurses if the home state maintains equivalent standards after the nurse has had one year of experience. This is the only experience requirement discovered.

Physicians

The regulation of the profession of medicine is complicated and confused by a number of kinds of medical practitioners. Some states maintain a regulating agency or examining board for each type of medical practice. This plan is called the multiple system of regulation. Other states separate some systems of medicine and segregate others. For example, in some states an osteopath would be examined by a state board of osteopathy and given a license to practice as a qualified osteopath; in other states, he would be examined by a state board of medical examiners and given a medical license of limited applicability; in still other states the state board of medical examiners would examine the osteopath and give him a license to practice medicine without

any limitation appearing on the license. Most states provide for a separate board to examine osteopaths even if this board is under the control of the medical board; nine states provide for an osteopathic board member on the medical board; in eight states osteopaths are licensed by the medical board as drugless healers (limited licenses).

In eleven states chiropractors are given limited medical licenses by the regular medical board, the other states providing for examinations by a separate board of chiropractic. Five states do not recognize chiropractors who, in order to practice, would have to qualify as regular physicians.

The ramifications of the licensing and regulating of the medical profession in all its branches are too detailed for inclusion in the present report, which will be limited to the regulations for those who qualify to practice medicine and surgery in all its branches—an unlimited licentiate—with only casual mention of osteopaths and chiropractors as the case may necessitate.

State Medical Boards

State boards of examiners in the basic sciences—In addition to the state boards of medical examiners there are in at least twelve states a separate board called the Board of Examiners in the Basic Sciences, which board examines all candidates for all types of licenses for healing (dentists and optometrists excluded). The subjects of the examination usually include gross anatomy, physiology, pathology, chemistry, bacteriology, hygiene, and sometimes others. The certificate from this board signifying the successful passage of its examination is a requisite to the examination for a license to practice any type of medicine in those states having incorporated the plan. These states are Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Oregon, Washington, and Wisconsin. The basic sciences examination by a separate board, composed of educators rather than practicing physicians, was established in several states having the multiple system of medical licensure to avoid unequivalent examinations in the basic sciences. The purpose of the examination by the Board of Examiners in the Basic Sciences is to weed out of the license

examination those applicants who are not sufficiently learned in the sciences which are basic to the profession of the healing arts regardless of the type of its application.

In those states having the basic science laws, requiring all applicants for all types of licenses in the healing arts to pass the same examinations in the basic sciences, statistics are available for the period from 1925 to 1935. Eighty-nine percent of the medical students or graduates passed; 63 percent of the osteopathic applicants passed; 20 percent of the chiropractors passed. Cultists are warned away by the examinations. It is likely that they will flock to other states where they may seek licenses without facing a basic science examination and these other states will be forced to pass similar laws in self-defense. Anticipating the growth of the movement, the Bureau of Legal Medicine and Legislation of the American Medical Association has published a model basic science law.²⁰

Control of state boards of medical examiners—Most state boards of medical examiners are independent state agencies; but in many states they are under the jurisdiction of some larger governmental department. The departments or agencies controlling the state boards of medical examiners are listed for the following states:

Department of Professional and Vocational Standards—California
Commission of Licensure—District of Columbia
Department of Law Enforcement—Idaho
Department of Registration and Education—Illinois
Department of Public Instruction—Pennsylvania
Board of Regents—New York
Division of Professional Registration, Department of Education—Tennessee
Department of Registration—Utah
Director of Licenses—Washington
Department of Health—Kentucky, Florida, Hawaii, Iowa, Mississippi, Missouri, Rhode Island, South Dakota, West Virginia
Civil Service and Registration Department—Massachusetts
Medical Society—Alabama, Arkansas, Maryland, North Carolina

Composition of state boards of medical examiners—Some medical practice acts do not mention that the board members are to be chosen in consideration of their system of practice. Other acts stipulate the proportion or membership among each of the systems of medicine to be represented on the board. In

²⁰ Holloway, J. W., Jr. "Qualifications in Basic Science." *American Medical Association Bulletin* 31: 166-72; November 1936.

Arkansas, there are three separate boards working together to license physicians: the Homeopathic State Medical Board, the Eclectic State Medical Board, and the State Board of the Arkansas Medical Society. In Connecticut there are two boards: one is composed of members chosen by the governor from recommendations made by the Connecticut Medical Society; the other is chosen by the governor from recommendations made by the Connecticut Homeopathic Medical Society. Delaware, District of Columbia, Louisiana, and Maryland have each a situation similar to that in Connecticut.

Arizona, Colorado, Delaware, Indiana, Kentucky, New Jersey, Virginia, and Wisconsin require that an osteopath be included in the board membership; Florida, Kentucky, and Wisconsin include a proportion of allopaths. Kentucky also requires one pharmacist. Michigan and Oklahoma add a physio-medical member to the board. Twelve states stipulate the proportion of board members to be distributed among the "regular," eclectic, and homeopathic schools of medicine. These states are Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Michigan, New Jersey, North Dakota (omits eclectic), Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota (omits eclectic), Tennessee, Vermont, and Wisconsin. The Indiana law requires four members to be from the system having the largest number of practitioners in the state and the other two board members from different systems. Iowa requires that no more than one of the three members belong to the same system. Kansas and Ohio specify that the different systems should be represented on the board in proportion to their numerical strength in the states, respectively. In Texas, no system of medicine may have a majority on the board, and in Missouri the law forbids discrimination against any of the various systems of medicine. The rest of the states (twenty) do not mention the systems of medicine to be represented on the state board of medical examiners.

These board members are appointed from recommendations or nominations of the state medical society or the various medical associations of the different branches of medicine in many states. This procedure is required by law in twelve states: Delaware, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, North Carolina, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Vermont, and Virginia; but the practice is more widespread

than the legal requirements would indicate. Very few states set forth any requisites for eligibility to the board other than a period of professional experience. Thirteen states and Puerto Rico require from three to six years as the general experience requirement; Pennsylvania requires ten years' experience; the other states do not mention any period of experience as a requirement. Arizona requires that the board members have graduated from schools recognized by the American Medical Association. In New Mexico, the board members must meet the requirements of the Board of Regents of the University of New Mexico. Six states—Arizona, Florida, Georgia, Nebraska, Tennessee, and Texas—stipulate that board members may not be in any way connected with medical schools; California, Kentucky, Oklahoma, and Wisconsin forbid "financial interest" in medical schools; while Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Vermont, and Wisconsin mention specifically that no board member may be on the faculty of a medical school. California does not forbid faculty members on the board but stipulates that no more than one board member may be from the same faculty.

Nevada specifies that board members shall be selected without regard for political belief; in Indiana, no more than three of the six members may be of the same political party. In Montana not more than two members of the board may come from the same county; in Alaska, South Carolina, and Virginia, the board members are distributed by congressional or geographic districts.

Finances of state boards of medical examiners—Board members are compensated for their labors by a per diem rate in many states; a few states set an annual compensation; several pay the board members a rate per examination. In Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Mississippi, and Texas, the compensation of the board members depends upon the amount of money taken in thru fees. After all expenses of the board are paid in these states, the surplus funds are divided among the board members, sometimes equally, sometimes in proportion to their labor. Examination fees are usually \$25; in Alabama, \$10; in Montana and New Mexico, \$50. The fees for medical licenses charged non-resident applicants are almost always higher than for residents, in many states as high as \$100; that is, if a non-resident applies

for the license on the basis of a license already granted in another state. If the non-resident applicant wishes to take the regular examination the fee is the same as for residents. The renewal fees range from \$1 to \$5, but several states do not have any provisions for annual renewal of license or registration.

Personal Qualifications Required for License

Citizenship is not stressed so much in the medical practice acts as in the statutes regulating admission to some of the other professions. However, a number of states do mention that the applicant must be a citizen or have declared his intentions of becoming naturalized, and Rhode Island adds that naturalization must be completed within six years or the license is void. The minimum age is 21 but many states do not set a minimum age requirement. This omission may be because the period of professional education is long enough to make very improbable the application for a license to practice medicine earlier than one's majority.

Good moral character is a requisite stipulated in most medical practice acts altho the proof of character is not usually defined explicitly. "Satisfactory evidence" must be produced. Alabama states that the board has a right to refuse a license on the basis of reputation of the applicant; and apparently bases the reputation of the applicant upon references provided thru the application blank. Vermont requires testimonials from two reputable physicians in the same county or town as the applicant. Undoubtedly all application forms require references which are apparently considered sufficient proof of character of the applicant. Oklahoma stipulates that the applicant must present satisfactory evidence that he is not addicted to habitual intemperance or to the habitual use of habit-forming drugs; that he has not been convicted of a felony or any crime involving moral turpitude; has never been guilty of unprofessional conduct; has never had license revoked in any other state; and is not suffering from active tuberculosis or venereal disease.

There is another point, however, bearing upon the character of applicants for license to practice medicine. The laws usually read that the board may refuse to issue a license, or may revoke a license after it has been granted, for certain reasons. Reasons in the two instances are often the same or at least

overlapping. As a matter of fact, many medical practice acts list reasons for refusal of license, including unprofessional conduct; in a later paragraph the law may indicate that licenses may be revoked for the same reasons, and this is amplified by definitions of unprofessional conduct. The emphasis seems to be equally upon the reasons for refusal of license and for revocation of license. Appeal is provided in many cases for hearing of evidence when an applicant is refused a license because of character qualifications.

Educational Requirements for License

Two years' premedical education is the recommendation of the American Medical Association. Most states make this requirement. However, California, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania require only one year premedical education and four states (Massachusetts, Missouri, Nebraska, and Ohio) have to date required high-school graduation only. Massachusetts, in 1937, raised its educational requirements to two years of college but the new law will not affect students who will have matriculated before January 1939. Even in those states having low preliminary educational requirements, the applicants probably more than meet the statutory minimum since most medical schools will not accept students who have less than two years of college work. The statutory requirements for professional education usually state four years (of such-and-such length term) in an approved medical school. A few states specify in the law that an approved school is one which meets the American Medical Association standards. New Mexico and Wisconsin further define American Medical Association standards as Class A or B (not Class C) schools. Hawaii and West Virginia accept only graduates of Class A schools. Some other states may use the American Medical Association ratings in actual practice but so far as the statutory regulations are concerned schools must be approved individually by the state board. Alabama and Georgia define the requirements for faculty, curriculum, laboratory, hospital, and library facilities in terms very nearly the same as those used by the American Medical Association in making their ratings. Pennsylvania has a system of periodic inspections, a ten-point plan of rating, and warnings if the school is below standard.

The American Medical Association has been working for many decades on the problem of accreditation and rating good medical schools, and has discouraged by disapproval many of those which are hopelessly inadequate. This work is so generally accepted that state boards of medical examiners need do little more than accept the A. M. A. ratings.

Massachusetts, in the 1937 law, has provided for the approval of medical schools, the approving authority to consist of the secretary of the board of registration in medicine, the commissioner of education, and the commissioner of public health. To date, Massachusetts has admitted to examination applicants from unapproved schools with a consequently high mortality. Forty-four and one-tenth percent of the total number of applicants in Massachusetts during the period 1931-35 failed the examination; 84 percent of the applicants from unapproved schools failed.²¹

Internship is required in seventeen states, Alaska, and the District of Columbia. Pennsylvania has a system of rotating internship which is highly approved by the American Medical Association. By this system the intern gains a definite amount of experience in each type of medical treatment. Internship is required by some schools before the degree of doctor of medicine is conferred. Massachusetts licenses interns for practice limited to the hospital, under the regulations of the hospital. Such licenses may be revoked at any time.

Kentucky and North Carolina have each a provision in their law, which may have a tendency to lower the standards of the physicians of the state if the provision is permitted to operate on a large scale. These provisions are quoted rather than interpreted:

The board may, whenever in its opinion the conditions of the locality where the applicant resides are such as to render it advisable, make such modifications of the requirements of preceding sections, both as to application for examination and examination for license, as in its judgment the interests of the people living in that locality may demand, and may issue to such applicant a special license, to be entitled a "Limited License" authorizing the holder thereof to practice medicine and surgery within the limits only of the district specifically described therein.—*North Carolina, Section 6616.*

Any person who has completed a premedical course prescribed on the recognized standards of medical schools and who has completed two or more years in a reputable medical school practicing under the recognized standards in this or any

other Commonwealth or state and who has a verified statement to that effect from the dean of the said medical school, shall be permitted to take an examination conducted by the State Board of Health. If the person examined pass the said examination satisfactorily the said board shall grant him or her a limited certificate to practice general medicine in a county or counties of this Commonwealth where it appears to the said board that physicians are needed for a period of five years, or until removal to some other county or counties by the said board or until such certificate shall be revoked as provided in Section 4 hereof. Such limited license shall by said board be renewed at the expiration of five years for five years upon application of the holder thereof to the said board.—*Kentucky, Section 2613-a-2.*

Undoubtedly the working of these provisions may fit local conditions and meet a need not known to those who have no information beyond the wording of the law.

Reciprocal Provisions

Florida, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island do not reciprocate with any states under any conditions; all applicants must meet certain requirements and pass the examination for license regardless of residence.

Statutory provisions in the other states for licensing out-of-state physicians may be classified by three aspects: equivalent standards, personal qualifications of applicants, and reciprocity.

Licenses are granted to non-resident physicians if the home state maintains equivalent standards except in Alaska, Florida, Hawaii, Kentucky, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Montana, New Jersey, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, Puerto Rico, Rhode Island, and West Virginia. Idaho, Minnesota, and New York make provision for examination to make up deficiencies if the standards of the original state are less than in these states, respectively.

Applicants must meet individually the requirements of personal qualifications regardless of the standards of the home state in Alaska, California, District of Columbia, Maryland, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia.

Licensure of non-resident applicants is based, by statute, at least partly on a reciprocal arrangement in Alaska, Alabama, Arkansas, California, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri,

²¹ "Medical License Statistics for 1935." *Journal of the American Medical Association* 106: 1475-93; April 25, 1936.

Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, Ohio, South Dakota, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. The Wisconsin law states that if other states do not reciprocate the applicants must take a practical examination.

In addition to statutory provisions in the above states reciprocal arrangements have been made by the following states so that the qualifications of applicants are accepted: District of Columbia, Indiana, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Mississippi, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oregon, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

Experience in the practice of medicine is required in ten states: Nevada, New Mexico, Texas, and Wisconsin—one year; Delaware, District of Columbia, and Virginia—2 years; Arizona and Connecticut—3 years; New York—10 years under certain circumstances. Internship is sometimes included and sometimes required exclusively of the experience requirement. Substitute by other qualifications is sometimes permitted. Good moral character is a specified requisite in Arizona, Connecticut, Illinois, Utah, and Virginia. In addition, affidavits or credentials of professional standing are required in Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Virginia. Virginia also requires a certificate from the superintendent of public instruction as to preliminary education. Several states attempt to prevent what is called "back door entrance" by stipulating that a non-resident may not be licensed by the reciprocal provisions if he has previously failed the examination in that state (California, District of Columbia, and Washington).

Other special regulations peculiar to certain states may be outlined as follows:

- Alabama—Physician from adjoining states may make calls, but not open office in Alabama, by registering certificate from home state with the judge of the probate court of the county.
- California—The original license must have been obtained within ten years previous to the application. One-year residence in original state or two years' experience anywhere is required.
- Idaho—At least 80 percent grade on the original examination is required.
- Louisiana—If applicant is a graduate of a Class A college.
- Maine—The board may make rules but same must be approved by a justice of the superior court.
- Maryland—Special provisions obtain for reciprocity with the District of Columbia.
- Michigan }
Nevada } Citizenship is a requirement.

Minnesota—At least 75 percent grade on the original examination is required. A practical examination on clinical diagnosis is required.

New York—If applicant has reached a position of conceded eminence and authority in his profession, other requirements are waived.

North Carolina—Proof of graduation from a four-year course.

South Carolina—Board may make rules.

Temporary Licenses

Temporary licenses are granted in Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Hawaii, Indiana, Kansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, South Carolina, and Tennessee. Usually there are specific conditions under which these temporary licenses may be granted. For example, in Delaware a temporary license is granted to out-of-state physicians for a minimum of two weeks, a maximum of four months, at the request of a Delaware physician for substitution practice during the absence or illness of the Delaware physician. In North Carolina the temporary license is issued only to those with five years' experience as a practitioner. In Wisconsin the temporary license is conditional. In fact, in most states where temporary licenses are issued, they are void after the first subsequent examination date and are presumably issued only until the applicant has an opportunity to present his credentials to the board for a permanent license. In Virginia and West Virginia, the law states explicitly that the board has no power to grant temporary licenses but non-resident applicants wishing to secure a license between examination sessions of the board may do so at any time, and if a practical examination is requisite in the individual case such examination will be given.

National Board of Medical Examiners

Like several other professions, the medical group has provided a national board to facilitate interstate practice. The examination credentials of the National Board of Medical Examiners are recognized without further qualification investigation in most states. Only Florida, Idaho, Texas, and Wisconsin do not recognize the N. B. M. E. Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, Maine, Montana, Rhode Island, and Wyoming give a short oral examination only to those with N. B. M. E. credentials. A personal interview is the only other requisite in North Carolina and Maryland. In Pennsylvania the N. B. M. E. record suffices provided the applicant has had a ro-

tating internship as is required of all applicants. In California the applicant must have had one year's residence in some state after obtaining the N. B. M. E. diploma. Idaho requires an examination in medical jurisprudence. Oregon and Washington require an examination in the basic sciences; Connecticut, District of Columbia, Minnesota, and Nebraska accept the N. B. M. E. credentials for the examination in basic sciences.

The National Medical Examinations consist of three parts.²² The first part consists of a written examination in each of the six fundamental medical sciences. Part two of the N. B. M. E. examination is also written and covers medicine, surgery, obstetrics and gynecology, and public health. Five schools require their students to take this part of the N. B. M. E. examination, or parts one and two.²³ Several other schools give students the option of taking the N. B. M. E. examinations or the examinations of the medical school. In one or two other medical schools, N. B. M. E. grades excuse the students from part of the final examination at the end of the four-year course. Part three is a clinical and practical examination. The last part is taken after the medical course and internship have been completed; but medical students may register for part one after the first two years of the medical course.

Teachers

All states require that teachers obtain a license, certificate, or permit before accepting a teaching position in the public schools. The type of teaching position available depends somewhat on the type of teaching license held by the prospective employee. Special certificates are usually required for such special subjects as art, music, home economics, and physical education. Other special certificates are required in some states for teaching exceptional or handicapped children. Such certificates are not included in the present survey. Most states have a multitude of certificates of different kinds for the teachers of normal children in the regular course of study; these various certificates differ one from another in the qualifications requisite, the scope of

teaching positions and types of schools in which they may be used, and the length of period during which they are valid. Since some states have as many as two hundred types of certificates it is impossible in this study to mention requirements for each. Therefore, the present survey is restricted to the minimum requirements for the lowest regular elementary and secondary teaching certificates.

State Boards of Education and Departments

Appointment and qualifications—In most states, the control of the issuance of teaching certificates is in the hands of the state, statutory power being given to the state department of education, the state superintendent, or both.²⁴ In Arkansas, Illinois, and Missouri the state governs the issuance of certificates but county authorities may issue some certificates under the state regulations; the state is the responsible regulating agency, however. In Mississippi the state does not have full control; county authorities issue certificates based upon county examinations but the state governs the examinations and prepares questions therefor. In California and Wisconsin both the state and county authorities govern certification regulations and issue credentials. Massachusetts is the only state giving full power for the issuance of licenses to local town committees. The state of Massachusetts issues certificates only to state-aided high-school teachers and to superintendents of schools in superintendency unions.

In Colorado, Idaho, Kansas, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, New York, and North Dakota certain educational institutions are authorized to grant certificates. In addition, certain large cities are permitted to issue certificates in certain situations. In some states the cities do not invoke the authority legally accorded them. The general tendency over the last few years is to place full authority in the hands of a state agency.

State board of education members are occasionally elected by the voters, but usually appointed by the governor.²⁵ The term in the various states is from two years to an indefinite period. The membership ranges from three to

²² National Board of Medical Examiners of the United States. *Circular of Information*. Bulletin No. 3, Revised January 1, 1937. Philadelphia: the Board, 1937. 8 p.

²³ Rodman, J. S., and Elwood, E. S. "Comments on National Board Examination." *Proceedings of the Annual Congress on Medical Education*. Chicago: American Medical Association, 1936. p. 60-63.

²⁴ Cocking, Walter D., and Peyton, W. W. *Certification of Teachers*. 1930. Table II, p. 32. (Typewritten.) Athens, Ga.: Walter D. Cocking, College of Education, University of Georgia.

²⁵ Reavis, William C., chairman. "School Organization." *Review of Educational Research* 4: 410-12; October 1934. See also: Chambers, M. M. *Some Features of State Educational-Administrative Organization*. Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1936. 283 p.

thirteen persons. In fifteen states, mainly in the West, the qualifications of board members are set down in state constitutions; in many states, however, no legal qualifications are specified. Eight states make requirements as to residence. New Jersey and West Virginia prohibit more than half the membership from belonging to the same political party. In California and New York no salaried educational officer is eligible for appointment and in only a few states must the board members possess certain professional qualifications, to wit: all must be educators or have experience in educational work in Kansas and Oklahoma; in Georgia three-fourths of the board must be experienced educators and in West Virginia, half. In Massachusetts, the board must include one teacher; in Arizona, New Mexico, Virginia, and Washington, one county superintendent; in Arizona, Virginia, and Washington, also one city superintendent; in Arizona and Washington, also one high-school principal.

In many states the state superintendent of public instruction, or the commissioner of education as he is sometimes called, works either under the direction of or in cooperation with the state board of education for the regulation of public education, specifically certification of teachers. The superintendent may be elected by the people, appointed by the governor, or appointed by the state board of education, in the various states. There are many states having no professional qualifications requisite for the appointment or election of their chief state school officer.²⁶ Eleven states have an age and residence requirement, and twenty have a professional qualification requirement. Arkansas, for example, stipulates that the chief state school officer be a practical school man. Maryland requires that he be an experienced and competent educator, a graduate of a standard college or the equivalent, and have had not less than two years of special academic or professional graduate preparation in a standard university, with seven years' experience in teaching or administration. Wyoming requires a person of literary and scientific attainments, versed in the theory, history, and principles of education with practical knowl-

edge of the organization and management of schools, who is a graduate of a standard four-year college or university or has an equivalent education and training, and shall be an experienced educator actively engaged in educational work at the time or within two years of the time of his assuming the duties of his office. These and other requisites may be summarized as follows:

Requiring school experience only: Arkansas, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Tennessee, Vermont, Virginia.

College graduation and school experience: Delaware, Georgia, Iowa, Michigan, West Virginia, Wyoming.

College graduation, school experience, and a teaching certificate: Idaho.

Graduation or certificate: Montana.

College graduation, graduate work, and school experience: Maryland.

Highest grade state certificate only: Nebraska, North Dakota.

Highest grade state certificate and experience: Wisconsin.

Highest grade state certificate, graduation, and experience: Nevada.

A state certificate or highest grade certificate of some state, or graduation: Utah.

The state superintendent is employed on an annual salary; the members of the state boards of education are paid a per diem honorarium in some states; in other states, they are reimbursed for their expenses only.

Personal Qualifications Required for Teaching Licenses

Citizenship or the declaration of intention to become naturalized is required in eighteen states. Two years' residence is required in Florida. An oath of allegiance to the Constitution of the United States and/or to the state constitution is required in nineteen states and the District of Columbia: Arizona, California, Colorado, Georgia, Indiana, Massachusetts, Michigan, Montana, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Vermont, Washington, and West Virginia.²⁷

A certificate from a physician indicating that the applicant is in good health is required in twenty-five states:²⁸ Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Indiana, Maryland,

²⁶ Reavis, William C., *op. cit.*, p. 413-14.

²⁷ In addition, Florida requires the examining board to satisfy itself as to the loyalty of the applicants for certificates, although the law does not prescribe an oath. Other states require the oath or a pledge of loyalty before employment; the above named states are the only ones making the oath or pledge a requisite for the certificate.

²⁸ Summarized from unpublished data of the federal Office of Education.

Minnesota, Missouri,²⁹ Montana, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, Washington, and West Virginia.

A minimum age requirement of eighteen years is set in most states.²⁸ In Alabama, Florida, Maine, and Vermont the age is seventeen; in Rhode Island it is nineteen. In Delaware and Oklahoma it is twenty. College admission age requirements constitute minimum certification age requirements in many states which require college work for certification regardless of their age requirement for certification. However, Wyoming issues certificates to graduates of high-school training departments with no age requirement specified. The District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, and Wisconsin make no age requirement for certification.

Recommendations from educational institutions or other testimonials as to character and professional promise are required in New York, Rhode Island, and California. A specified amount of college work is required in educational institutions of the state in three regulatory codes: nine weeks in Montana and six semester hours in Missouri and Nevada (in these two last named states the requirement must be met before the renewal of the first year's temporary certificate.)

Professional Requisites for Licenses

Course credits or examinations in state school law are required in Montana, Nevada, and New Hampshire; on the United States Constitution in California, Texas, and Wyoming; on the state constitution also in Wyoming; on state government and history in Montana; on the state course of study or the secondary-school program in New Hampshire, Montana, Texas, and Washington.

Other than these special examinations which in some states may be waived on account of college credits, examinations on professional preparation are the exception rather than the rule for certification of teachers. In Alabama, California, Massachusetts, Idaho, and Washington, certification on examination is authorized by law but in actual practice most certificates are issued on credentials. In Arkansas, District of Columbia, Florida, Illinois,

Iowa, Kansas, Mississippi, Missouri, Montana, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming, at least one type of certificate or license is granted on examination. Offsetting these seventeen states and the District of Columbia, are the other twenty-six states in which certification is based entirely on credentials, examinations being unauthorized by statute or board of education regulation. (Maine provides for examination of superintendents only.)

Obviously since college credentials take such an important part in the certification of teachers, the curriculum requirements are often stipulated in detail and certain standards set for the institutions.

Elementary certification requirements—

From one-sixth of a year of post-high-school education to graduation from a four-year course is required in the various states for certification as elementary teacher on the basis of credentials. Mississippi, requiring only one-sixth of a year, has the lowest standards. Arizona, California, Connecticut, Delaware, and Rhode Island require four years of college training. Thirteen states require only one year and twenty states require two years. The latter is the minimum requirement recommended by the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

The fact that certification standards are in a transition stage at present is shown by the fact that several states have raised their standards effective at a date in the near future: Louisiana will require a degree in 1940; North Carolina, which has required two years' preparation, will require three after July 1938; in Oregon the requirements will be two and two-thirds years from January 1939 to January 1941 and three years after January 1941.

In those states permitting certification on the basis of examination no preliminary training is specified as a requisite for the examination in Arkansas, Florida, Mississippi, North Dakota, Tennessee, and Texas. Most of the other states specify high-school graduation or the equivalent. Only Montana requires the same as for certification by credentials (two years of college).

All requirements include that the time spent in professional preparation be in an approved or standard institution; some specify the num-

²⁹ High-school certificates only.

ber of semester hours of academic and of technical education required. Seven states must approve the curriculum; twelve states require a certain number of academic semester hours; twenty-five states set requirements as to the number of technical semester hours. These requirements, however, are usually indefinite and incomplete. Indiana requirements are most definite, as the technical studies and the specific number of semester hours to be devoted to each are prescribed in full for each type of elementary certificate.

Secondary certification requirements—Most states issue a secondary certificate which is valid in high-school grades; some states have a junior high-school certificate which is valid for teaching in Grades VII and VIII; but the senior high-school certificate is necessary in these states for Grade IX upwards.

Post-high-school training necessary for the junior high-school certificate is three years in nine states, two years in fourteen states. The others require four years, as is the most general requirement for the senior high-school or the four-year high-school certificate.

Arizona, California, District of Columbia, and Washington require the fifth-year preparation for the senior high-school certificate. Yet, three states require three years (Alabama, Georgia, and Oklahoma) while Mississippi, Nebraska, and Texas have not raised their statutory requirements for the senior high-school certificate above two years' post-high-school training.

Specification of the number of semester hours required in professional education is more universal for the high-school certificates than for the elementary certificates. The lowest is Connecticut with only eight hours required; the usual requirement is eighteen hours; the highest requirement is in Rhode Island where four hundred class appointment or clock hours in the study of education are required.³⁰

No practice teaching is required in Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Illinois, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Mexico, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Utah. Most of the other states require from two to six hours of practice teaching. In New Jersey, North Dakota, Rhode Island, and Texas, prac-

tice teaching and observation are required but the amount of time allocated to meet the requirement is not designated.

Reciprocity among States

It may be recalled that Florida was the only state specifying the residence requirement as a requisite to issuance of teachers' certificates. All states issue one or more types of certificates upon the basis of credits from colleges or institutions located in other states. Few states issue certificates on the basis of certificates from other states. Those few which do, demand evidence concerning the preparation of the applicant. In Delaware, such a certificate is conditional under any circumstances. Maine and Vermont will issue a license to teachers certificated in other states provided the standards of the other states are as high as the standards of Maine and Vermont, respectively. Iowa, Mississippi, and Virginia have provisions for certifying out-of-state teachers. In Tennessee, also it is permitted but not actually done in practice.

The problem of interstate reciprocity is not so important for teachers as for some other professions, especially since there is not the residence requirement usual in other professions, and state departments of education will certify graduates of out-of-state educational institutions provided these institutions are approved.

Accreditation of Teacher-Training Institutions³¹

State departments of education and other agencies authorized to license teachers do so for the most part on credentials of education in approved liberal arts and teachers colleges. The official accreditation of these teacher-training institutions is a function of the state department of education which leans heavily upon the unofficial accreditation by professional organizations as the regional associations and the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

The regional associations were established to accredit liberal arts colleges and secondary schools. The various associations are as follows: the Middle States and Maryland Association (Delaware, District of Columbia, Maryland, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania); the New England Association (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire,

³⁰ Estimated by the federal Office of Education as the equivalent of 25 semester hours.

³¹ Summarized from reports of the North Central Association and the American Association of Teachers Colleges.

Rhode Island, and Vermont); the North Central Association, which covers twenty states from Indiana west almost to the Rocky Mountains; the Northwest Association (Alaska, California, Idaho, Montana, Oregon, Utah, and Washington); and the Southern Association, including eleven of the southern states. These regional associations accredit and grade liberal arts colleges, junior colleges, and secondary schools. Since 1931 teachers colleges have been graded in the list of liberal arts colleges.

The American Association of Teachers Colleges developed out of the North Central Council of State Normal School Presidents in 1917. In 1923 the American Association of Teachers Colleges adopted a set of standards for grading teachers colleges. These standards have been revised and amended from time to time. The Association cooperates with the regional associations above mentioned for the enforcement of their standards.

The American Association of Teachers Colleges has two committees particularly interested in the certification of teachers. One committee is that on Standards and Surveys; the other is the Committee on Accrediting. These committees work hand in hand to set standards for teacher-training institutions, and thru investigation, to determine how the standards are met. The Association's Committee on Accrediting rates those schools which seek accreditation. The Association's Committee on Standards and Surveys recommends and suggests standards which the schools should meet; but the standards set and the ratings accorded thereon to teachers colleges are unofficial and have no legal status. The Association cannot enforce its standards. The state legislatures or state departments of education set standards for certification of teachers; the link between the state departments of education and the accrediting organizations is unofficial. As a matter of fact, state departments certify graduates of schools which are accredited by the regional associations or the American Association of Teachers Colleges, but it is possible that they approve their own state teachers colleges or normal schools regardless of their accreditation by these associations. One reason for this is that most teachers colleges are state institutions under the supervision of the state departments of education.

Expiration of Teaching Certificates³²

Teaching certificates are of three general types with regard to the length of time for which they are valid. Renewable certificates are good for a definite period and can be renewed for a definite period. Exchangeable certificates may be exchanged for others of higher grades in the same field. Permanent certificates—the third type—are valid for life.

Many states specify that to renew a certificate, or to exchange a certificate for one of a higher grade, or to earn a permanent certificate, the holder must show evidence of professional growth usually called *inservice education* as opposed to *preservice education* required before the teaching experience is begun. Altho the statutes and regulations are not always definite on these points, the following tabulation may be indicative of the general requirements.

Renewable certificates renewed:

<i>On the basis of inservice education</i>	<i>Without inservice education</i>
Arizona	Alabama
Delaware	Florida
Illinois	Georgia
Indiana	Kentucky
Michigan	Massachusetts
South Carolina	Mississippi
Vermont	Nevada
Virginia	Oregon
West Virginia	South Dakota
	Texas
	Washington
	Wyoming

Exchangeable certificates may be exchanged:

<i>On the basis of inservice education</i>	<i>Without inservice education</i>
Arizona	Alabama
Georgia	California
Illinois	Florida
Indiana	Idaho
Maryland	Louisiana
Montana	Nevada
North Dakota	New Mexico
	Oregon
	Tennessee
	Texas

It should be noted that Arizona, Illinois, and Indiana appear in both lists as states requiring inservice training for the renewal or exchange of certificates; that Alabama, Florida, Nevada, Oregon, and Texas appear in the list of states making no inservice training requirements for either the renewal or exchange of certificates.

³² Summarized from: United States Department of the Interior, Office of Education. *Spécial Survey Studies*. Bulletin, 1935, No. 10. National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. 5. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1935. p. 300-307.

The amount of preservice education requisite for a particular type of renewable certificate does not often affect the requirements for renewal; that is, certificates usually can be renewed with or without inservice education regardless of the number of years and type of professional education required for the original license obtained prior to teaching experience. This practice means that certificates based on one year of preservice education are usually as easily renewable as those based on three years of preservice training. However, exchange of a certificate for one of a higher grade is usually related at least indirectly to the preservice training requirements. Sixty-one and one-tenth percent of the kinds of exchangeable certificates issued on less than one year of preservice preparation cannot be exchanged for higher certificates without inservice education; whereas, when exchangeable certificates are issued on three years of preservice preparation, 78.6 percent of the various kinds may be exchanged without inservice training.³³

The permanent or life certificate is frowned upon in some educational circles. When based upon length of experience only, they are said to cause stagnation. Most states require successful teaching experience, with or without inservice education as the requisite for a permanent certificate. The probationary period ranges from 9 months to 15 years, usually from 2 to 5 years. Rhode Island requires a definitely prescribed program of professional growth during the 5-year probationary period. On the other hand, such states as Georgia and South Dakota require 70 and 72 months' experience, respectively, with no professional requirements, and West Virginia requires 15 years' experience with one summer school session or the reading of two professional books.

Not even a probationary period is required in Louisiana, Michigan, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas (also for certain permanent certificates in Colorado, Kansas, Missouri, Mississippi, and New York).

Continuous use or periodic training is required to make the permanent certificate valid in Alabama, Florida, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Nebraska, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, and Wyoming. Florida stipulates that a permanent certificate will expire for incompe-

tency; this must have been included as a proviso to care for unusual cases, since the probationary period of two years and the first certificate valid for five years must make virtually a seven-year probation. Competency should therefore be ascertained before the permanent certificate is granted. In Vermont the permanent certificate expires if the teacher fails to attend summer school every six years. In the other states from three to five years' disuse of the certificate will cause its expiration. Among these eleven states only four provide for reinstatement after fulfilling certain professional requirements.³⁴

Permanent certificates are not issued to classroom teachers in Arizona, Delaware, Maryland, Massachusetts, North Carolina, and Virginia. The maximum length of certificate issued in these states is 3 years in Delaware and Massachusetts; 4 years in Arizona and Maryland; 5 years in North Carolina; and 10 years in Virginia.³⁵

The Division of Territories and Island Possessions directs the educational facilities in Puerto Rico. No teacher is eligible for service who is not a citizen of the United States. For positions as "teachers of English" (elementary teachers who use English as the medium for teaching academic subjects) the applicant must be a graduate of a first-class college or university with an A.B. in education, one semester of practice teaching, and 15 semester hours' credits in elementary-school methods. Normal school graduates are eligible after two years of experience. High-school teachers must have bachelor's degrees with at least 21 semester hours' credits in education, 6 of which should be in high-school methods, and one semester of practice teaching. The academic and professional credentials of applicants are examined by the department of education in Puerto Rico and those applicants who are given teaching positions are accordingly licensed by the department of education.

Citizenship is a requirement also for teaching license in Hawaii. The department of public instruction evaluates the credentials of applicants on the basis of the following requirements: for elementary teachers, graduation from a regular four-year teachers college with a bachelor's degree in education is required plus one year

³³ Stine, Mark E. *State Certification as a Potential Influence on the Education of Teachers in Service*. Doctor's thesis, New York University, 1932. p. 122.

³⁴ Zaugg, Walter S. *Permanent Certification of Teachers*. Doctor's thesis, New York University, 1931. p. 132.

³⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 147.

of graduate work including special work in education; for high-school and intermediate-school teachers, one year of graduate work in teaching subjects in addition to a bachelor's degree including at least eighteen credits in education from an accredited college or university is the requirement.

Summary and Conclusions

State boards in the professions studied are, with the exception of state boards of education, usually composed of technically trained members experienced in the profession in which they are to serve as examiners. This practice is not generally true of the state boards of education. In the other five professions, also, the professional organization has at least some voice in the choice of board members. This procedure is most common in the legal, medical, and nursing professions. Thru the new plan of the integrated bar, the legal profession is becoming the most completely self-governed profession of the six studied; the medical profession should probably be considered second in this regard. The teaching profession is possibly at the other extreme as teachers have comparatively little voice in the regulations which govern them.

Reciprocity or interstate practice of the five professions, other than teaching, is recognized in each case as desirable and procedures to facilitate the mobility of the accountants, architects, lawyers, physicians, and nurses have been evolved on a nationwide basis. Examinations and investigations are conducted by national agencies which serve as a clearing-house for professional people who wish to move from one state to another; at the same time this works toward a more uniform standard of license prerequisites. The accountants, architects, and, to a lesser degree, physicians have carried the nationwide uniform examination procedure to a greater extent than have lawyers and nurses. Mobility of teachers is tacitly if not openly discouraged.

If we should attempt to summarize the outstanding regulations for admissions to each profession in one brief statement it would be necessary to emphasize the following points: high-school education is the most usual educational requirement for certification as a public accountant, but from one to five years' professional experience is also required. Architects are classified as juniors or seniors; the

junior examination, which forms the admission requirement, requires high-school graduation plus several years of experience. Two years of college is the generally accepted requirement for admission to the legal profession and rigid investigation into moral character of the applicant takes a prominent part. Physicians are required to have two years' premedical education, three years' professional education, usually a year's internship, and in certain states to pass an examination in the basic sciences before they are eligible for license examination. High-school graduates are eligible for examination for license as registered nurse; the two or three years of professional preparation usually required includes practical experience.

All five of these professions license their members thru an examination procedure. In a few instances only, are examinations waived and certification granted upon the basis of professional educational credentials. In the teaching profession, fewer personal prerequisites are listed in the statutes; less emphasis is placed upon character investigation or references; certificates are granted more often on credentials than on examinations. Teachers' examinations were at one time more generally used but in recent years have been replaced to a large extent, and more so each year, by prerequisite credentials. This really places the immediate responsibility for certification of teachers upon the educational institutions, except so far as state accreditation of training institutions may exert a limited control.

Few teachers are licensed by city or county authorities; the trend is toward centralization of certification authority in the state board of education. Lawyers, too, are growing away from local certification. Many states have centralized the licensing power in a state bar examining board; in the last decade some states have adopted the integrated bar scheme; but still a few lawyers are licensed by county courts just as a few teachers are licensed by county examinations. All other professions are licensed by state agencies only.

The outstanding fact brought out in the foregoing analysis is that these professions do not differ, one from another, as much as might be expected at first thought. Nurses have the least educational requirements to meet; physicians apparently the most. Other than these

two, there is little difference in formal education requirements among the other four professions.

These six professions are organized, some more so than others; but all are organized to protect the interests of their members. They themselves urge higher standards, rather than discourage the raising of standards merely for personal convenience. This statement is especially true in the fields of law, medicine, and nursing. An important impetus behind the movement to raise standards in the teaching profession is given by the accrediting organizations. The American Medical Association, the American Bar Association, the American Institute of Architects, the American Institute of Accountants, the American Nurses' Association—these are the organizations which have carried on the struggle, sometimes over a long period of years, for professional standing thru high standards of licensure. Obviously these associations could not work without the sanction, the cooperation, and the help of their members.

License laws setting forth the requirements for practice in each of these professions are so written as to attempt to keep out unqualified applicants. That is one prime purpose of setting the qualification standards. If a profession does not exclude unqualified persons, it can have little standing. To achieve and maintain high standards in the profession it is necessary to set up a high level of entrance to the practice of the profession. The investigations of the Committee on Character and Fitness in the legal profession and the examination in the basic sciences in the medical profession are examples. Experience is required of all applicants—hospital training for nurses, internship for physicians, office experience for accountants, architects, and lawyers. These experience requirements are in addition to formal professional training (with a few exceptions of permissive substitution). Teachers are not always required to do practice teaching before the initial license; when required, it is usually for a short period, much less than the experience requirement in the other professions.

Even tho practice teaching is indispensable, greater value may be obtained from the first few years of teaching as a regularly employed

teacher. Teaching licenses are not permanent for inexperienced teachers (with few exceptions); but after from one to fifteen years of experience, most states grant permanent certificates, comparable to the life licenses granted to other professional persons. This "proving ground" requirement of teachers corresponds to the experience requirement in the other professions.

The teaching profession has a requirement which other professions do not have—in-service training. This requirement tends to keep teachers up to date and modern in methods and subjectmatter. It is a phase of professional regulation which might well be initiated by other professions, especially in medicine.

It has been said and is frequently noted in the preamble to license laws that the purpose of the law is to protect the public. An unqualified physician or nurse might injure or cause death thru incompetence. An unqualified architect might injure scores of people if his construction is contrary to architectural principles. An unqualified accountant could disrupt financial records; while a lawyer, if not adequately trained, would be unable to serve his clients and thus might injure the ability of the courts to enforce law and render justice. License laws are enacted, requirements are stipulated as high as the traffic will bear, to exclude the incompetents, to protect the health and the property of the public. Standards for admission to the teaching profession should be even higher—to protect the efficiency of the educational service upon which the perpetuation of all our democratic culture and civilization depends. This protection is even more important than that we wish for our health and property, for we may individually choose the accountant we wish to audit our books; we may individually choose the architect we wish to build our home; we may individually choose the lawyer to plead our cause, the physician to attend our ailments, and the nurse to serve us when sick; but we can seldom choose the teachers for our children. The choice is left ordinarily to our representatives, the schoolboard members and their executives. In order that they may have the best from which to choose, it is desirable that the standards for all be high enough to warrant safety in the education of the oncoming generation.

II. Legal Provisions for Expulsion from Professions and Revocation of Licenses

No provisions for revocation of licenses are included in the Massachusetts regulations for teachers or in the Nebraska regulations for C. P. A.'s. Several states have listed the power of the examining board or governing body to revoke licenses but make no further provision. Other laws stipulate, in the minutest detail, the procedures necessary and the causes considered valid for revocation. While the degree of detail may be to some extent correlative with the type of law preferred in certain states, it seems more obvious that regulations of some professions tend to be written in greater detail than others. For example of the first distinction, it might be mentioned that all the New York state laws are drawn in great detail, while some of the western states have brief and less explicit provisions. In general, however, laws regulating disbarment of lawyers emphasize procedures more than other professions which stress causes more than procedures. The teachers' and the accountants' laws are brief in both procedures and causes. Causes for revocation of physicians' licenses, especially definitions of unprofessional conduct, are probably the most definite and explicit lists among the six professions studied.

Almost all the laws attempt to give legal rights to the licentiate accused of conduct justifying revocation. The six professions are summarized in these respects below—mention being made briefly of the provisions for notification of charges, hearing, appeal of case, and reinstatement. The causes peculiar to each profession are listed together with the number of states subscribing to each.

A summary tabulation of causes which are common in two or more professions is given at the end of this part of the report.

Accountants

Practically all laws for certified public accountants provide penalties for violation of the provisions of the act. These penalties take the form of fines or imprisonment for misrepresenting oneself as a C. P. A. or unlawfully practicing in the profession. Further penalties are provided in some states for conviction of falsifying statements. Florida, Hawaii, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Puerto Rico, South Dakota, and Wis-

consin stipulate fines from a minimum of \$100 to a maximum of \$1000 in the various states or imprisonment from three months to two years. Only Kansas specifies the automatic revocation of license upon conviction, but revocation undoubtedly does follow generally, even tho not expressly stipulated in the laws of the other states. In addition to these provisions, Hawaii, New Mexico, South Dakota, and Wisconsin provide for a fine for negligence or carelessness in professional practice.

The revocation provisions in the profession of public accountancy are not as detailed or definite as in some other professions. There is in some cases merely a brief statement to the effect that the board has the power to revoke for cause. Florida specifies that the board "may promulgate and amend canons of professional ethics and suspend for a period not exceeding two years for violation of same."

Since the statutory provisions are often general and not detailed, many laws do not definitely state the rights of the accused, except that no revocation may take place without a hearing. In Montana the state university may appoint a committee of disinterested persons to conduct a hearing and report thereon.

The advanced notice of intended revocation is twenty days in most states, ten in Illinois, two months in Alaska. In Nebraska, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Washington the notice is required, but the amount of time is not specified. In Texas fifteen days' notice is required if the charges are served on the accused personally, but if mailed twenty days' notice must be given. Kentucky does not provide for advanced notice of revocation, but requires the unanimous vote of the board. The other states rely upon majority vote.

Few states provide for appeal from the state board decision to the courts. This statement does not mean, however, that in the other states no appeal is possible, since no law expressly denies such right of the accused. Georgia, Illinois, Louisiana, Michigan, Mississippi, Rhode Island, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin do make such provision. In Illinois a rehearing may be requested within twenty days—said rehearing to be held by the same or another special committee.

Restoration provisions are included in the laws of Florida (by majority vote), Illinois

(at any time on recommendation of the examining committee), Louisiana, Minnesota (within two years by petition after hearing by the board), Mississippi (at any time), New York (the Regents may reissue a certificate in their discretion after pardon), and Rhode Island (after disqualification has been removed). Other states do not specifically mention the board's authority to reissue a certificate after revocation. The Supreme Court of Alabama ruled as follows in such a case: "The statute clearly confers no authority on the board, either expressly or by necessary implication, to reinstate one whose certificate has been canceled for unprofessional conduct; or to revive and restore to life a certificate so revoked and canceled; and, if such certificate was restored to the petitioner, it would confer no authority on him to practice as a certified public accountant."¹

Connecticut and New York provide for grievance committees. In New York the Committee on Grievances consists of ten members—each a certified public accountant in good standing for at least ten years prior to appointment. The term of office is for five years. The committee serves without compensation. This committee "shall have jurisdiction to hear charges against certified public accountants for any fraud, deceit, or gross negligence in the public practice of accountancy, and the regents may, upon the receipt from the committee of the record, findings and determination of the committee . . . and after due notice and an opportunity to be heard, revoke and annul his certificate . . . or suspend him from practice as a certified public accountant, or reprimand him."²

Only Mississippi restricts the origin of complaints to members of the profession. No mention is made in the other accountancy laws of the proper persons to make charges, thus inferring that any person may complain to the state board concerning the actions of an accountant certified by the board. Mississippi, however, specifies that "three or more persons, qualified to practice as certified public accountants, may prefer charges against any person, practicing as a certified public accountant, for misconduct or/and unprofessional conduct, by filing a sworn bill of complaint with any member of said board with

bond of double the cost." The Mississippi law continues these provisions with the statement that the Mississippi society of certified public accountants may make such a bill of complaint by resolution adopted by its board of governors.

States more often revoke the certificates of public accountants for "good, reasonable, or sufficient cause" than the licenses of other professions. There are fewer specific reasons stipulated in the accountancy laws than in the regulations of other professions and more general provisions. The tabulation below indicates the number of states subscribing to each listed cause for revocation of public accountants' certificates.

Good, reasonable, sufficient cause: 27 states, 2 territories, D. C.
 Unprofessional conduct: 20 states, 1 territory, D. C.
 Conviction of a felony: 12 states
 Misdemeanor involving moral turpitude: 5 states, 1 territory
 Fraud or dishonesty in profession: 9 states, 2 territories
 Fraud in obtaining license³: 7 states, 1 territory
 Incompetency, ignorance, inefficiency: 8 states, 1 territory
 Negligence: 6 states, 1 territory
 For cause: 4 states
 Insanity: 3 states
 Any act or default discreditable to the profession: 3 states
 If certificate of original issue be revoked: 3 states
 Bad moral character: 2 states
 Violating state regulations for profession: 2 states
 Delinquency or dishonorable conduct: 1 territory

Illinois does not list causes for revocation, but merely states that the cause must be included in the notice of hearing. Idaho and Massachusetts do not include causes in the laws regulating accountants.

It should be noted that intemperance and addiction to drugs, mentioned in some of the other professional regulations, are not included in the above list. The scattering of causes in the accountants' list above indicates that few states list many specific reasons for revoking certificates of public accountants, but many rely upon the general statement "good, reasonable, sufficient cause," under which specific situations are more easily absorbed.

Architects

Revocation provisions in almost half the states require thirty days' notice. In Illinois

¹ 123 So. 33, 219 Ala. 632.

² Education Law, Laws of 1909, Chapter 21, as amended in 1929 by Chapter 261, section 1495.

³ For this offense in Illinois there is also a fine not to exceed \$1000, or imprisonment for a maximum of six months, or both.

and South Dakota the notice of charges may be given only ten days before the hearing; in North Carolina, sixty days. No notice is provided for in the laws of Alabama, Connecticut, Louisiana, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin.

Unanimous vote of the board is required in Colorado, Hawaii, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Provisions for suspension and revocation are the same in Illinois, Hawaii, Indiana, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina. The same provisions apply to review of refusal to issue license in Illinois, Indiana, and New Jersey. Thru the same procedure the board may reprimand or suspend for not more than one year in California. In New York the board may revoke, suspend, annul, reprimand, censure, or otherwise discipline architects.

The board itself does not hear the charges in Idaho. Appeal to the courts must be within thirty days in West Virginia, twenty days in Indiana. Few states, however, provide for appeal.

Restoration after revocation of license of architects is provided for in sixteen states. In California and Idaho restoration may take place after one year. In Colorado and Mississippi restoration is said to depend upon proper reasons and a fee of \$10. The fee is \$10 in Florida also. In Michigan the fee is \$5, but restoration depends upon five or more votes of the board. In Minnesota the only provision is for a fee of \$1. Nebraska may restore revoked licenses upon the vote of four or more board members after payment of a \$10 fee. Tennessee also requires four votes, but does not designate a restoration fee. Six months' lapse of time is required in Ohio, Pennsylvania, and South Dakota. In the last named state a four-fifths majority vote of the board is necessary. Restoration in New York and Oregon rests upon the discretion of the board.

New York is said to maintain the most stringent provisions for the discipline of architects. Any person may prefer charges which must be in writing and sworn to by the complainant. Charges must be heard by the board within six months, unless dismissed as trivial, or the board may initiate proceedings in any case. A copy of the charges and notice of the time and place of the hearing must be served upon the accused at least thirty days before the hearing, and where personal service cannot be effected, the board

must publish once a week for four consecutive weeks the notice that charges have been preferred against the accused. These publications must appear in a newspaper published in the county in which the architect last practiced and also be mailed to his last known address. The fourth publication must appear at least thirty days before the hearing. The accused has the right at the hearing to appear personally with counsel and to cross-examine witnesses against him and to produce evidence and witnesses in his defense. The provisions of this law in New York state may be considered stringent by the members of the profession on account of the itemization of causes for discipline, but the other provisions of the law surely give to the accused full justice in the opportunity to be heard.

South Carolina provides: "In judging unethical practice, unprofessional conduct, and incompetence, the Standards will be 'Principles of Professional Practice, and the Canons of Ethics of the American Institute of Architects.'" Undoubtedly other states are guided by these principles even tho the fact is not expressly stated in the law. Causes listed in statutes for revocation of architects' licenses are not numerous. The following tabulation indicates the states subscribing to the various causes:

Incompetency: 31 states, 1 territory, D. C.
 Negligence: 27 states, 1 territory, D. C.
 Fraud or dishonesty in profession: 26 states, D. C.
 Fraud in obtaining license: 24 states, 1 territory, D. C.
 Conviction of a felony: 15 states, D. C.
 Misdemeanor involving moral turpitude: 1 state
 Unprofessional conduct: 10 states, 1 territory
 Intemperance, habitual or excessive: 6 states
 Addiction to drugs: 6 states
 Violation of state regulations for profession*: 5 states, 1 territory
 Proof that the holder of license permitted his seal to be affixed to any plans, specifications, or drawings that were not prepared by him, or under his personal supervision by his regularly employed subordinate: 3 states
 Proof that holder of license is falsely impersonating a practitioner or former practitioner, or is practicing under an assumed, fictitious, or corporate name: 2 states
 Good, reasonable, sufficient cause: 2 states
 Aiding and abetting in the practice of architecture any person not duly authorized to practice architecture under the provisions of the act: 2 states
 Proof that any money, other than prescribed fees, were paid to secure license: 1 state
 Addiction to habits of such character as to render him unfit to practice architecture: 1 state

* For this offense two convictions are specified as cause for revocation of architects' licenses in Illinois and Indiana.

Lawyers

As Arant has pointed out, there are four general types of organizations for the discipline of the bar.⁶ The first is the grievance committee of the voluntary bar association. These committees are limited in authority to investigation and recommendation to the bar association, without the power to subpoena witnesses or require them to give testimony under oath. Since membership in the bar association in these states is voluntary, the organization has limited powers and is therefore not very effective since the lawyers most needing discipline may be outside the membership.

The second type of disciplinary organization obtains also in states wherein the bar association is voluntary. This type consists of committees of the bar association adopted by the courts and endowed with extraordinary powers. Illustration of this setup may be found in Colorado and Illinois. Having wider powers and being responsible to the courts, it is more effective than the first type.

The third type exists in Missouri and has about the same degree of efficiency as the second type. The committees are appointed by the court and have like powers, but are not official committees of the bar association. The distinction between types two and three is not extremely important.

In Tennessee there is even less chance for adequate discipline of the profession since no agency is established to report cases and act thereon. The state supreme court has no superintendence over the lower courts as in Missouri. Therefore, a case must arise in the lower court, and the supreme court has no power over it unless the case is appealed.⁶

Since the institution of the new plan of the integrated bar in some states, a fourth plan for discipline has grown up—a plan which is more efficacious since the organization represents the bar which includes all lawyers licensed to practice in the state. Since the bar does not depend upon voluntary membership, all lawyers in the state are subject to its regulations. In this plan the board of governors of the state bar appoints local administrative committees that may receive complaints, subpoena witnesses, and make investigations. Their proceedings are usually

private. Trivial complaints are dismissed upon preliminary investigation by an official who maintains offices for consultation with complainants. This official is always available, and even when he considers the case unworthy of the attention of the local administrative committee, he is able to give the complainant a feeling of satisfaction in having been heard. When the complaint is well founded, the grievance officer turns over the facts to the local administrative committee which reports to the board of governors. The board may then hold a public or private hearing and administer a private or a public reprimand. When a more severe punishment such as suspension or disbarment seems necessary, the board submits its report and recommendations to the court for review and decision.

Whether or not state supreme courts accept the findings of the board of governors varies with the several states. In Nevada the supreme court has never reversed the recommendations of the board of governors of the state bar. However, during the eight years of the integrated bar in California (to September 20, 1935), the board of governors filed 191 cases with the supreme court. Ninety-one cases were contested. In 46 cases the court followed the recommendation of the board; in 27 cases the court imposed a lesser sentence (often one year suspension instead of recommended revocation).⁷

On account of the confusion of regulatory powers, the examination of applicants for licenses to practice law and the discipline of practitioners are separated to a greater extent than are these two functions in other professions. Rarely in other professions does the discipline of members go directly to the courts without at least an initial hearing by the state board of examiners, the theoretical assumption being that the agency which grants a license has the power to take it away. However, as has been shown in Part I of this report, licenses to practice law are granted more often by the courts than by independent state agencies. In Tennessee, as has been pointed out above, the supreme court cannot administer discipline unless the case is appealed thru the lower courts. In states where the bar is integrated the two

⁶ Arant, H. W.: "Some Observations on the Washington Conference on Disciplinary Procedures." *American Bar Association Journal* 22: 410-12; July 1935.

⁶ Editorial. "Committee Finds Supreme Court of Tennessee Unable To Enforce Missouri Plan of Bar Ethics." *Commerce Law Journal* 40: 78-81; March 1937.

⁷ Turrentine, Lowell. "Bar Discipline." *Michigan Law Review* 34: 200; December 1935.

functions regarding licensure and discipline are handled by separate committees, for purposes of efficiency.

The statutory provisions regarding the discipline of lawyers may be classified into those which hand the matter over to the organized bar or court and those which prescribe a set of standards, violation of any of which calls for disciplinary action. The statutes which list specific offenses usually include conviction of a felony, moral turpitude, unprofessional conduct, and retaining client's money or property unlawfully.

Many bar acts specify that conviction of a felony calls for revocation or disbarment automatically. Acquittal in a criminal court of a serious offense, however, does not mean that disbarment is obviated. Trial by the board of governors, the supreme court, or some other agency of the profession follows acquittal by a criminal court, and even tho disbarment is not automatic as in conviction, disbarment or discipline of some sort usually follows.

A proceeding for disbarment is neither civil nor criminal in the legal terminology, but rather a proceeding *sui generis*, that is, a trial of a member by members of the group. Therefore, the members can make their own rules. Rules may be retroactive, and offenses committed ten years previous to the establishment of the rules have been admitted as adequate cause for disbarment. In Michigan the attempt was made to place a time limitation upon the disbarment statutes. It was proposed that proceedings must be brought within two years of the offense or within one year of discovery, but the law was declared unconstitutional. In the other professions regulations cannot be made retroactive since trial proceedings for revocation of licenses are civil or criminal rather than proceedings *sui generis*.

Disbarred lawyers are frequently reinstated. In the integrated bar the board of governors passes upon petitions for reinstatement. These petitions are usually signed by a large number of members of the bar. In Georgia, altho the bar is not integrated, the law prescribes that the petition be signed by two-thirds of the bar association of the county, and that the petition may not be proposed until after one year has passed and must be approved by the county judge. In Missouri, also, one year's time must elapse; in Kansas, two years. North Carolina

provides for reinstatement on the basis of a hearing of evidence of reformation.

Causes adjudged sufficient for disbarment of lawyers may be itemized in some states, but a tabulation would necessarily be incomplete inasmuch as they are not expressly included in statutes. The canons of ethics of the American Bar Association are not rules of law, but have been made so by adoption as rules of court in several states. Such indefinite statements as in Maine, when a lawyer has become disqualified, indicate that the basis for disbarment is left to the discretion of the court to a large extent. Twenty-three states mention unprofessional conduct as a statutory cause for revoking lawyers' licenses, twelve states mention conviction of a felony; and twenty-four states, misdemeanor involving moral turpitude. Many of the general causes listed for the other professions are mentioned occasionally in the state bar acts of the several states, but such mention is rare, and the list below should be considered incomplete. The number of states subscribing to the causes listed has been omitted from this list to avoid the inference that no other states subscribe to these causes.

- Any conduct prejudicial to the administration of justice.
- Any such single act or crime or vice as may show him to be unfit for the trusts and confidences reposed in him as an attorney.
- Suppressing or attempting to suppress any testimony in any case.
- Tampering with, destroying, secreting, withdrawing, mutilating, altering any record.
- Stirring up (soliciting) litigation.
- Collecting money for a client and refusing to pay it over on demand.
- Failing to pay professional tax.
- Any professional acts which unfit him for association with the fair and honorable members of the profession.
- Wilfully violating oath as attorney.
- Wilful disobedience or violation of an order of the court requiring attorney to do or forbear to act.
- Disbarment by a foreign court.
- Practicing law in cooperation with a disbarred attorney.
- Division of fees with disbarred attorney or person not licensed as attorney.
- Doing any other act to which such a consequence is by law attached.
- Ungentlemanly conduct in the practice of his profession.
- Conduct authorizing or justifying suspension from practice or disbarment.
- Commission of a criminal offense showing professional unfitness.
- Violation of professional ethics.

Corrupting or wilfully and without authority appearing as attorney for a party to an action or proceedings.

Lending name to be used as attorney by another person not licensed as attorney.

Nurses

Provisions for hearing of complaints against registered nurses are not very explicit. In Rhode Island the Director of Public Health is responsible for discipline of nurses; in Wisconsin the Commission on Nursing Education. In Arizona, Louisiana, and Texas hearing goes directly to the courts.

From ten to thirty days' notice is provided in the various state laws; usually it is thirty days. The majority vote of the full board is required in most states; unanimous vote, in Arizona, Missouri, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wyoming.

Appeal is denied in Indiana; appeal to the courts is provided in less than a dozen states; appeal to the state medical board in Ohio is final—there being allowed no court action thereafter. Wisconsin provides for a review for incompetency by the board, after one year, if deemed desirable.

In Connecticut and Montana appeal from the decision of the board regarding the issuance of a license is provided. In Connecticut a board of appeals is composed of three members, one representing each of three medical and hospital associations of the state. This board of appeals reviews the case when decision of the board of nurse examiners aggrieves the applicant for a license. In such a case the applicant must appeal within thirty days. The board of appeals may affirm, modify, or reverse the decision of the board of examiners, and the decision of the board of appeals is final and binding on all parties. In Montana an applicant refused a license may appeal to the Montana State Association of Graduate Nurses at their first annual meeting thereafter. The majority vote of the association after a full hearing is not, however, final. A second appeal may be made within thirty days to the district court. In case of a jury trial the jury consists of three registered nurses and three physicians in active practice.

The laws are silent on the question of restoration; only in one or two states is express

provision made for reinstatement after revocation. Causes in other states follow:

Incompetency: 24 states, D. C.
Fraud or dishonesty in profession: 24 states
Intemperance, habitual or excessive: 21 states, 1 territory
Fraud in obtaining license: 18 states
Unprofessional conduct: 12 states
Immorality: 13 states
Any other act derogatory to the morals or standing of the nursing profession: 19 states
A habit rendering a nurse unsafe to be entrusted with or unfit for the care of the sick: 8 states
Addiction to drugs: 8 states, 1 territory
Conviction of a felony*: 8 states
Misdemeanor involving moral turpitude: 1 state, 1 territory
Conviction of any crime in the practice of the profession of nursing: 1 state
Violation of state regulations for profession: 7 states
Good, reasonable, sufficient cause: 9 states
Negligence: 4 states, 1 territory
Continued practice by a person knowingly having an infectious, communicable, or contagious disease: 3 states
Dishonorable conduct: 3 states
Distribution of intoxicating liquors or drugs for other than lawful purposes: 2 states
Wilful violation, or the wilful procuring of, or knowingly assisting in the violation of any act which is now or which hereafter may be in force in this state relating to the practice of abortion: 1 state
Wilful violation, or the wilful procuring of, or knowingly assisting in the violation of any act which is now or which hereafter may be in force in this state relating to the use of habit-forming drugs: 1 state
Wilfully betraying a professional secret: 1 territory
Misconduct: D. C.
Afflicted with a contagious or communicable disease: 1 territory
Professionally incapacitated: D. C., 1 territory
Use of untruthful or improbable statements in advertisements: 1 state
Similar cause: 1 state
Any conduct contrary to good morals or calculated to lower the standard of the profession of nursing: 1 state
Fraud in representations as to skill or ability: 1 state

Physicians

Evidence for revocation of physicians' licenses is usually heard by the state medical board. In several states, however, provision is made for the original trial to go directly to the courts. For example, in Iowa the attorney general must file the complaint in the district court of the county. In Michigan the proceeding is instigated in the criminal court; in Mississippi, in the circuit court.

* In Massachusetts and Vermont revocation is automatic without hearing.

Connecticut and New York operate through grievance committees as has been described in the other professions. Unusual provisions obtain in the laws of several other states also. In Alabama provision for a hearing by the state medical board is made with the proviso that said hearing is unnecessary if the trial originates in the courts. The Louisiana law states simply that the board has the right to initiate proceedings for revocation and may reinstate in its discretion. The only provision in Minnesota is that revocation is subject to appeal in the district court. North Dakota provides for appeal in the county court, but, like Minnesota, is silent upon the original hearing. It may be inferred in these two states that the usual hearing by the medical board takes place.

Ten to twenty days' notice is provided in thirty-two states and Alaska. The board usually is given the power to subpoena witnesses, and the accused has the right of counsel and witnesses. Appeal is denied in Idaho and North Carolina. This practice is especially noteworthy for in North Carolina the medical profession is governed by the state medical association, which apparently considers its decisions final. Appeal is not expressly provided in Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Delaware, Indiana, Louisiana, Maine, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, and Tennessee. In these fourteen states, however, non-provision for appeal need not be interpreted necessarily as denial of right of appeal. Even in North Carolina where appeal is denied cases have been taken to the Supreme Court for trial *de novo*. In Montana the appeal of a case requires a jury of six physicians with not less than two from the same school of thought. Four of the jury may render a verdict, but no member of the medical board may sit on the jury.

Usually provisions refer generally to suspension or revocation, inferring that the decision of the trial board or court will depend upon the seriousness of the offense. In Idaho provision is made for suspension over a period from one to five years. The license may be restored or revoked at the end of the suspension period. In Oklahoma, aside from revocation, medical licenses may be suspended for a maxi-

mum of five years, and reinstatement at the end of the suspension is possible on a probation of from one to five years. Puerto Rico states in its law that if a medical license is suspended for longer than one year, the decision is not final until reviewed by the courts.

Reinstatement after revocation of license is possible in Alabama and Louisiana in the discretion of the board. Several other states make special provision for reinstatement depending upon evidence of reformation (North Carolina) or upon a time element. The latter are: in Florida and Georgia, after five months, by majority vote of the board; in Maryland, within two years, if the requirements are met. Illinois will restore a revoked medical license upon recommendation of the medical committee; Pennsylvania, by unanimous vote of the medical board. In Oklahoma and Tennessee reinstatement is not possible; in Idaho, not unless the decision is reversed; in Wisconsin, not except by order of the trial court after the first offense when recommended by the president of the state board upon evidence of reformation.

The causes for revocation of licenses in the medical profession are more numerous and outlined in greater detail than in the other professions. Many of the listed causes deal with unethical practices which would injure the public and disrupt its trust in the profession. These causes follow:

Addiction to drugs: 34 states, 3 territories
 Intemperance, habitual or excessive: 33 states, 3 territories
 Criminal abortion: 34 states, 3 territories
 Fraud in obtaining license: 30 states, 2 territories
 Advertising . . . in such manner as to mislead or deceive the public in matters pertaining to health (includes specific mention of types of advertising forbidden as well as blanket prohibitions): 29 states, 3 territories
 Misdemeanor involving moral turpitude: 28 states, 3 territories
 Conviction of a felony: 21 states, 1 territory
 Unprofessional conduct: 25 states, D. C., 2 territories
 Claiming to cure incurable disease and receiving fee for same: 19 states, 1 territory
 Wilful betrayal of a professional secret: 16 states, 2 territories
 Immorality: 13 states, 1 territory
 Fraud or dishonesty in profession: 12 states, 2 territories
 Use of cappers or steerers: 12 states, 1 territory
 Splitting fees, buying or selling patients: 9 states

* In California "impersonation or acting as proxy in medical examinations"; in Minnesota "fraud on behalf of another as well as for self."

Violation of state regulations for profession: 11 states
 Insanity: 6 states
 Giving to addicts narcotics other than in legitimate treatment: 3 states
 Illegal distribution of liquors or drugs: 5 states
 Illegal distribution of liquors (in addition to above): 1 state
 Illegal distribution of drugs (in addition to above): 1 state
 Prescribing habit-forming drugs in other than legal manner: 3 states
 Guilty of unprofessional conduct of a character likely to deceive, defraud, or injure the public in matters pertaining to health: 5 states
 Purchase or sale of medical degree, or offer of same: 1 state
 Illegal conduct in practice of profession: 1 state
 Practicing, beyond limits of license, as major surgeon when not licensed to do so: 5 states, 1 territory
 If moral character or personal habits are such as to unfit one for the practice of medicine: 1 state
 Violation of rules of board of health (such as sanitation, quarantine, and school inspection, report of infectious disease, registration of births and deaths): 4 states
 Violation of, or evasion of, any narcotic law: 3 states
 Any persons interdicted by due process of law: 1 state
 Violation of state and federal statutes regulating control of social disease: 1 state
 Accepting fee as witness, in addition to fee of court and without the knowledge of the court: 1 state
 Continued practice after knowing he (practitioner) has contagious disease: 2 states
 Gross malpractice resulting in the permanent injury or death of a patient: 3 states
 Professional incapacity: D. C.
 Violation of any statute regarding use or disposition of narcotics: 5 states, 1 territory
 Failure to record license as required by law: 1 state
 Employing or aiding to practice unlicensed or suspended practitioner, lending name to or in any way being connected with same: 9 states
 Using fictitious name in any way, impersonation of another licensed practitioner of a like or different name: 12 states
 Allowing another person to use license: 1 state
 Wrongfully encouraging or conspiring with any person to bring action against practitioner for malpractice or agreeing for share of payment to be recovered in such suit: 1 state
 Advertising professional superiority to fellow practitioners: 1 state
 Street advertising or public peddling of, or selling of, medicine or surgical remedies or appliances in person or by proxy: 1 state
 For any other cause which in the opinion of the board shall render the holder of certificate unfit person to practice medicine in the state: 1 state
 Enumerated or similar causes: 3 states
 Revocation of license of sister state by virtue of which certificate has been granted (by reciprocity or endorsement): 1 state

Teachers

In the teaching profession more than in any other the theory is practiced that the licensing agent has the power to revoke the license it has granted. Usually brief provision is made whereby the state department of education or the state superintendent may revoke teachers' certificates. Those few states, permitting the granting of certificates by county or city boards of education or superintendents, permit these agencies also to revoke their licenses.

Nineteen states give power to revoke licenses to the state superintendent; in seventeen states the state board of education has the authority; twelve states permit revocation by local authorities as well as the state agency. In Georgia and Mississippi the county superintendent has sole power. In California, Kansas, Oklahoma, Oregon, and Washington the authority to revoke teachers' certificates is dispersed among several agencies: California, by the state board of education, the county board, city, or city and county board of examination; Kansas, by the body issuing the certificate, the state board of education, the state teachers colleges, county boards of examiners, city boards of examiners; Oklahoma, by the body or person issuing the certificate or the board of examiners; Oregon, by the authority who granted the certificate, upon the written complaint of any county superintendent; Washington, by the authority granting the certificate which means the county superintendent, the state superintendent, the faculty of the state university, state college, or normal school. No provisions for revocation are included in the laws of Massachusetts.

Fifteen states specify provisions for revocation of licenses, but do not include rights and privileges of teachers as to notice, hearing, and appeal. In twenty-one states the teacher is given legal right in the law to notification of charges and a fair hearing. Several states require a hearing before revocation, but make no other provision for justice to the teacher: Michigan, Nebraska, New Jersey, and New Mexico. Rhode Island requires that due notice be preferred and a hearing granted, if desired. Wisconsin requires written notice and hearing; Wyoming requires written charges and hearing.

Eleven states provide for appeal of the case. In all except Missouri the appeal is to a higher

school official or tribunal. In Missouri only is provision made for appeal to the circuit court; such appeal is to be made within ten days and only after revocation by other than county superintendents. In Georgia the appeal is to the county board of education, whose decision is final (county superintendents are the only revoking agency in this state). In most of the other states providing for appeal to the state superintendent or state board of education, the authority empowered to revoke the certificate includes county or local agencies. In Iowa the appeal to the state board of educational examiners means virtually a rehearing by the same body, since only this state board is empowered to revoke certificates in Iowa.

Only Oregon provides for possible reinstatement. Its law requires one year to have elapsed before application for reinstatement is made, but does not state the basis upon which reinstatement is granted.

Connecticut and Vermont do not specify the causes to be considered valid reasons for revocation of teachers' certificates; New Hampshire states for reasons satisfactory to the commissioner of education; and Idaho specifies no reasons other than the general statement that revocation shall take place for those reasons justifiable in refusing the issuance of a certificate. Ten other states include the latter statement, but list also specific reasons for revocation. Seven states also include "any good cause" among specific reasons listed, while three other states make no statement regarding specific reasons, but rely solely upon the provision for revocation for any good cause; these states are Arkansas, Maine, and Rhode Island.

Among the specific causes for revocation included in the other laws, the most frequently mentioned are immorality, incompetency, neglect of duty, and intemperance. The list of causes with the tabulation of states subscribing to each follows:

Immorality	35 states
Incompetency	26 states
Negligence	19 states
Intemperance, habitual or excessive	13 states
Good, reasonable, sufficient cause	10 states
Cruelty (to pupils)	8 states
Annulling of the written contract without consent of the majority of the board	8 states
Unprofessional conduct	7 states
Delinquency	6 states
Unbecoming behavior, behavior unbecoming a teacher	5 states
Evident unfitness for teaching	5 states

Fraud or dishonesty in profession	2 states
Indecent behavior, disreputable conduct, misconduct	2 states
Sectarian instruction; use of denominational books	1 state
Unsuccessfulness	1 state
Unworthiness	1 state
Insubordination	1 state
Tuberculosis or affliction with any communicable disease	1 state
Physical inability	2 states
Being sales agent for textbooks or supplies	2 states
Profanity	1 state
Incapacity	1 state
Altering certificate	1 state
Refusal or neglect to attend a county institute unless excused	2 states

Summary

Rarely does any state law fail to provide for the legal rights of a professional accountant, architect, lawyer, physician, and nurse when accused of conduct for which their licenses may be revoked; but fifteen states make no mention whatsoever of the rights and privileges of teachers. Only eleven states provide for appeal of the case by the teacher; and only one state provides for reinstatement if justified.

Some causes for revocation which are common to two or more professions of the six studied are listed in Table 1 together with the professions in which these causes are operative and the states which prescribe each as legal reasons for expelling the offenders. The three most frequently mentioned causes for revocation of licenses in the several professions are: for accountants, unprofessional conduct, conviction of a felony, and commission of a misdemeanor involving moral turpitude; for architects, incompetence, negligence, and professional fraud or dishonesty; for lawyers, unprofessional conduct, conviction of a felony, and commission of a misdemeanor involving moral turpitude; for nurses, incompetence, professional fraud or dishonesty, and intemperance; for physicians, criminal abortions, addiction to drugs, and intemperance; for teachers, immorality, incompetence, and negligence.

There is greater uniformity among states in regard to the enumerated causes for revoking the licenses of architects, nurses, and physicians than for revoking the certificates of accountants and teachers. Fewer causes are specifically listed for disbaring lawyers than for revoking licenses of any other profession.

III. Sampling of Cases Brought to Trial against Offenders

In the preceding section the statutory provisions for discipline of members of six professions have been described. In the present section, the application of these provisions is reported. The survey of actual disciplinary cases was investigated thru a questionnaire sent to the governing body in each state for each profession.¹ These questionnaires listed the statutory causes for revocation of licenses and asked that the respondents enter after each cause the number of hearings, if any, held on account of each cause, and the number of revocations resulting from such hearings. Information was not received from all states, and altho the period between 1920 and 1937 was specified on the questionnaires not all respondents were able to supply the facts for this period.

Data are meager especially for the architects since sixteen states and the District of Columbia passed their governing laws subsequent to 1920 and in nine states there is no such law existent. For the 40 states (including the District of Columbia) having regulatory architectural laws, data were reported from 21 states and the District of Columbia. Most of the other professions have been regulated by laws enacted prior to 1920 with very few exceptions in specific states.

The number of each profession practicing in the states covered by these reports represents 59 percent of the public accountants of the country, 65 percent of the architects practicing in those states where their profession is registered, 17 percent of all lawyers and justices, 46 percent of the nurses, 49 percent of the physicians, and 19 percent of the teachers.

Over 1200 hearings were reported on questionnaires received from 117 sources in the six professions. Forty-three questionnaires reported that no hearings had been held. The 1204 hearings were therefore distributed among 74 sources, creating an average of approximately sixteen hearings per source. This average is misleading since the data below will show that professions and states vary greatly in the number of hearings.

The Number of Hearings Reported

Table 2 presents the basic data gathered for the comparison of the six professions in this part of the study. The total number of hearings reported in the several professions indicates that many more offenders are brought to trial in the medical and legal professions than in any of the other professions. These data exclude revocations for failure to pay annual

¹ Data on teachers were obtained from the report of W. Willard Barlow, *Revocation of Teachers' Certificates in the United States*, in which a similar inquiry was sent to state departments of education. Since this investigation was made about a year ago it seemed unnecessary to repeat the procedure. (Master's thesis, Ohio State University, 1936. 60 p. ms.)

TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF PERSONS IN EACH OF SIX PROFESSIONS AND DATA REGARDING TRIALS AGAINST OFFENDERS IN PROFESSIONAL ETHICS

Item	Accountants	Architects	Lawyers	Nurses	Physicians	Teachers
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Number in profession (1930 Census) ^a	23,000	20,000	161,000	294,000	154,000	893,000
Number states certifying (including District of Columbia).....	49	40	49	49	49	49
Number states reporting.....	20	21	14	32	20	10
Number states reporting no hearings.....	9	13	1	17	2	1
Total number hearings reported ^b	38	20	275	41	816	79
Hearings per state return.....	1.9	.95	19.6	1.3	40.8	7.9
Revocations resulting from hearings ^c	19	8	243	32	478	42
Proportion of hearings resulting in revocations.	50%	40%	88%	78%	58%	53%

^a These figures were taken from the 1930 Census with the exception of the accountants, which figures were supplied by the American Institute of Accountants, and figures for public school teachers which were taken from *Advance Statistics of State School Systems, 1935-36*. The census figures for the legal profession include justices as well as lawyers. Not all the accountants, architects, nurses are necessarily certified as the laws in some states are not compulsory. Therefore, a comparison per member of profession would not be accurate.

^b Includes report from one state over period 1909-37 for medicine; following number of states reported over a shorter period than was requested, namely 1920-37; accountants, one state 1930-37 only; lawyers, two states 1933-37 only; nurses, one state 1930-37, one state 1933-37, one state 1925-37; medicine, one state 1924-37; one state 1926-37, one state 1930-37.

^c Not all states listed suspensions and probation verdicts separately; when so listed they were not counted as revocations.

registration fees or failure to reregister at required intervals. These trials deal with unprofessional conduct and personal actions of the members of the profession which are causes for discipline by state law as outlined in Part II.

Table 2 shows that more than half the reported trials resulted in revocation of license except in architecture which is a newly licensed profession. Next to architecture, accountancy and teaching reported the lowest proportionate number of revocations. In the other professions revocations occur in a larger proportion of trials ranging from 58 percent in medicine to 88 in law. These differences may be due to the fact that trivial offenses are dismissed by grievance committees of the bar associations before they reach the courts, whereas in the other professions some non-legal tribunal tries the case originally and probably hears a larger proportion of the complaints brought to their attention. It may be that few revocations, proportionately, indicate the triviality of many trials.

Since the reports from the various states in the several professions cover differing periods of time, a comparison can be made only approximately by prorating the total number of hearings reported by each state agency over the years covered by all reports. Since all reports covered the past five years, at least, those covering a longer period of time were adjusted on the basis of the number of hearings per year. With this adjustment, it appears that over a period of five years, approximately 248 physicians were brought to trial in 20 states, 101 lawyers in 14 states, 23 teachers in 10 states, 14 nurses in 32 states, 10 architects in 21 states, and 7 public accountants in 20 states.

If the incidence of offense and trial in the states not reporting were the same as in those whose records are available, and if the proportion of verdicts for revocation would be the same, it might be estimated that in the country as a whole, 105 lawyers, 58 physicians, 13 teachers, 5 nurses, 1 architect, and 2 public accountants may *annually* lose their licenses by revocation. There are in the United States six times as many teachers as lawyers and physicians, but eight times as many law licenses are revoked as teachers', and four times as many physicians' licenses are revoked as teachers'. Altho only one-half as many nurses' licenses are revoked as teachers' yet there are three times as many teachers as nurses, and not all nurses are required to obtain licenses.

Causes of Hearings and Revocation of Licenses

Table 3 lists for each of the six professions the most frequently reported causes of actual hearings held and the number of revocations resulting therefrom. Of the 38 hearings reported held against public accountants, 31 were caused by 5 offenses or types of offenses. Only in the "conviction of a felony" was the license usually revoked. Altho 4 hearings were held on account of negligence, only one revocation resulted from these trials.

Of the 20 hearings reported held against architects, all but two were caused by the 5 most frequently mentioned offenses. In two types of cases, however (unprofessional or unethical conduct and affixing seal to plans not prepared by the holder of the license), no revocations resulted. Dishonesty appears to be the most serious offense as 75 percent of the cases resulted in revocation. This offense was second most frequently mentioned and was exceeded only by the offense of deceit in obtaining license in which there were 5 cases, 3 of which resulted in revocation of the license.

Among lawyers, conviction of a felony or crime results automatically in revocation; therefore, altho this offense is fourth in frequency of mention, it results in revocation in 100 percent of the trials. Again dishonesty of one kind or another is the most serious offense. The most frequently reported offense was collecting money for a client and refusing to pay it over on demand or at a specified time, causing 92 trials, 90 percent of which resulted in revocation. The second most frequently mentioned offense was fraud, deceit, or dishonesty in which there were 70 cases and 53, or 76 percent, revocations.

Of the 41 trials reported for nurses, 29 are covered by the 5 causes most frequently mentioned. Addiction to drugs, most frequently mentioned offense, results in revocation in 100 percent of the cases. Immorality and fraud or deceit in obtaining license are second most frequently reported offenses and revocation has occurred in 83 percent of the cases for each cause. Altho intemperance is listed as one of the 5 most frequently mentioned causes for trial against nurses, there were only 3 such cases.

TABLE 3.—MOST FREQUENTLY REPORTED CAUSES OF TRIALS IN SIX PROFESSIONS

Cause	Num- ber of hear- ings	Num- ber of revo- cations	Percent of hearings resulting in revocation
1	2	3	4
Accountants			
Fraud, deceit, or dishonesty.....	15	9	60
Any act or default discreditable to the profession.....	5	3	60
Conviction of a felony.....	4	4	100
Negligence.....	4	1	25
Unprofessional conduct.....	3	1	33
82 percent of total number of trials reported.....	31	18	58
Architects			
Fraud or deceit in obtaining license. Professional fraud, deceit, dis- honesty.....	5	3	60
Incompetency.....	4	3	75
Unprofessional or unethical conduct	3	1	33
Proof that the holder of license per- mitted his seal to be affixed to any plans, etc., that were not pre- pared by him or under his per- sonal supervision.....	3	0	0
90 percent of total number of trials reported.....	18	7	40
Lawyers			
Collecting money for a client and refusing to pay it over on de- mand, or at a specified time....	92	83	90
Professional fraud, deceit, or dis- honesty.....	70	53	76
Unprofessional conduct.....	46	38	83
Conviction of a felony or crime....	38	38	100
Stirring up litigation.....	20	12	60
88 percent of total number of trials reported.....	266	224	84
Nurses (Registered)			
Addiction to drugs.....	10	10	100
Immorality.....	6	5	83
Fraud or deceit in obtaining license.	6	5	83
Conduct derogatory to morals or standing of nursing profession...	4	2	50
Intemperance.....	3	2	67
71 percent of total number of trials reported.....	29	24	83
Physicians			
Criminal abortion.....	112	89	79
Illegal distribution of drugs (viola- tion of narcotic laws).....	109	94	86
Conviction of a felony or crime....	80	76	95
Unprofessional or unethical con- duct, malpractice.....	53	24	45
Sufficient, good, reasonable cause..	47	43	91
Addiction to drugs.....	46	22	48
Intemperance.....	39	22	56
Employing, aiding or abetting un- licensed or suspended practitioner	38	12	32
Fraud or deceit in obtaining license.	33	29	88
Fraud, deceit, dishonesty.....	26	12	46
73 percent of total number of trials reported.....	583	423	72
Teachers			
Immorality.....	38	24	63
Intemperance.....	7	4	56
Altering certificate.....	6	1	17
Unprofessional conduct.....	5	3	60
Incompetency.....	5	0	0
73 percent of total number of trials reported.....	61	32	52

Ten types of trials are listed for physicians, since the large number of causes reported made necessary the inclusion of more than 5 as are given in the other professions. The causes for trials of physicians are more varied than for lawyers, and in both professions many of the less frequent causes for trials do not result in revocation. Of the 10 causes listed for physicians, the two most frequent deal with types of activity in which members of other professions are practically excluded. The other 8 types of offenses might equally well apply to members of other professions, yet a greater number of cases have been reported from the medical profession than from any other profession.

Forty-eight percent of the trials against teachers are caused by immorality, the most frequently mentioned cause. The 5 causes listed account for 77 percent of all trials reported. Incompetency, which is fifth in order of frequency of mention, resulted not once in a revocation, all 5 of the trials based on incompetency as cause being dismissed. Among the 5 most frequently mentioned causes of trials, teachers' licenses are revoked in a larger proportion of trials than among accountants, but in a lesser proportion than among architects, nurses, physicians, and lawyers.

TABLE 4.—SUMMARY OF FREQUENTLY MENTIONED CAUSES FOR TRIALS

Cause of trial	Num- ber of profes- sions	Total hear- ings	Total revo- cations	Per- cent revo- cations
1	2	3	4	5
Unprofessional conduct.....	6	114	68	60
Fraud, deceit, dishonesty.....	5	117	79	67
Fraud in obtaining license.....	5	54	47	87
Conviction of a felony.....	4	124	114	92
Intemperance.....	3	49	28	57
Addiction to drugs.....	2	56	32	57
Immorality.....	2	47	29	62
Incompetency.....	2	8	1	12
Good, sufficient cause.....	3	51	45	88
Negligence.....	3	18	1	6

Table 4 summarizes these frequently mentioned causes for trials among the six professions. The number of trials, the number of revocations, and percent of trials resulting in revocation are shown. Unprofessional conduct has been used as the cause for trial in 114 cases resulting in revocation in 60 percent of the cases; all six professions had at least 3 trials based upon this cause. No other cause has been reported by all professions. The conviction of

a felony, most frequently reported cause, was reported in four professions; accountants, lawyers, nurses, and physicians, totaling 124 trials resulting in revocation in 92 percent of the cases. Fraud, deceit, dishonesty was reported in five professions totaling 117 cases resulting in revocation in 67 percent of the trials. Fraud in obtaining license was also reported in five professions and, altho the cases totaled to only 54, revocations resulted in 87 percent of the trials. Intemperance and negligence are the only other causes reported by more than two professions: nurses, physicians, and teachers have been tried for intemperance totaling 49 trials but revocation resulted in only 57 percent of the cases. There were few cases of negligence and only one revocation. Incompetency was reported by two professions; architects and teachers, with one revocation resultant. Incompetency appears to be difficult to prove and this may be one reason why it is seldom brought to courts.

Summary

The incompleteness of the foregoing data permits only tentative generalizations. Several facts have been disclosed, however, showing tendencies which may be important in the comparison of the professions.

1. In general, trials brought against offending lawyers are more likely to result in revocation of license than in other professions, regardless of the cause for action.

2. Physicians are more often tried for offenses than other professional persons; lawyers next most often, teachers third, nurses fourth, accountants fifth, and architects sixth.

3. When the number of *revocations* is related to the number of persons in each profession, the estimated number of revocations in each profession is most frequent for physicians, lawyers second, nurses third, accountants fourth, architects and teachers least often.

4. Causes for trials of lawyers and architects are more uniform than in the other professions, since the five most frequently mentioned causes account for the following percent of cases: 88 percent for lawyers, 90 percent for architects, 82 percent for accountants, 77 percent for teachers, 71 percent for nurses, and 48 percent for physicians.

5. The most frequent causes for trials in these professions are: fraud, deceit, or dishonesty among accountants, fraud or deceit in obtaining license among architects (probably this is true because the architectural regulation laws are comparatively new and practicing architects have sought devious ways of evading the requirements), collecting money for a client and refusing to pay it over on demand or at a specified time, among lawyers; alleged immorality among teachers; criminal abortion among physicians, and addiction to drugs among nurses.

Some Continuing Problems

From this analysis of nearly 400 state laws one may obtain a number of general impressions. Most of these are constellations of problems for further study by teachers and, in some instances, for wise legislation.

1. Professional groups, like individuals, pass thru rather definite periods of development. The present study shows that from a statutory angle the professions of nursing, accountancy, and architecture are relatively undeveloped. For the nation as a whole, law and medicine represent mature professions. Teaching seems to lie somewhere between these two extremes; it must soon decide whether or not it wishes to follow in the associational and legislative footsteps of law and medicine.

2. Despite a number of clear-cut similarities between the six professions studied, teaching, more than any of the others, represents a high degree of socialization. That is to say, the vast majority of teachers are public employees while most individuals in the other professions derive their income from private sources. What effect does public employment have upon the development of strong professional organizations, upon training, ethics, and practice, and upon individual morale?

3. There is a distinct movement to centralize the certification or licensing of members of professions in the hands of state agencies. Even more than this, in some states all licenses are issued by a single administrative unit of the state government. Teaching, more than any of the others, is under its own special state board or department. Is there a type of centralized authority (such as New York state) which would be better for the teaching profession than some other emerging types?

4. In the case of most professions, with the exception of teaching, the state regulating board is made up wholly or in large part of professional members. Teaching, even at the state level, retains the characteristic of local control, namely, direction by boards made up almost exclusively of laymen. Should educators seek more professional representation on state boards of education or is the present lay control a distinct advantage?

5. At the same time that licensing power tends to be centralized in state agencies, the discipline of practicing members of various professions tends to be handled by professional as-

sociations. This tendency is most advanced in law, next in medicine, and to a very much less degree in the other four professions. Should the National Education Association and its affiliated state associations seek the professional support and legislation whereby the enforcement of teachers' codes of ethics would be in the hands of the profession?

6. It is general practice in the statutes governing the non-teaching groups to specify not only the conditions under which licenses are granted but the legal rights of the individual in case a license is to be revoked. In at least one-third of the states the law makes no provision for the rights of an accused teacher. What can the organized profession do, not only to obtain tenure laws in states where they do not exist, but to benefit from the types of protection adopted by other professional groups?

7. Most states grant licenses to the non-teaching professional groups after a state examination based upon training. In other words, there are two selective operations before the state approves an individual practitioner. Educational authorities have long debated *between* certification based upon examinations and certification based upon systematic training. State teaching credentials are usually granted on the basis of evidence of successful completion of prescribed college courses. This procedure tends to be, therefore, a single selective operation in which major responsibility is assumed by the training agency rather than by the state board of education or state department. What advantages and disadvantages would there be if teachers' certificates were granted thru a double selective process similar to that used for other professions?

8. State licenses for most professions are granted for life, unless revoked for certain causes. In recent years, there has been a marked tendency to abolish life certificates for teachers and to substitute certificates limited to a period of years. The theory behind this change is that short-term certification (5 to 10 years) accompanied by compulsory study will keep teachers more professionally alert and efficient than under any life certification plan. It is obvious, however, that the administration of tenure and retirement laws may become vastly more difficult under short-term certification plans. The

problem then is to provide continuous training in service without endangering the necessary safeguards which have been built around the conditions of employment.

9. An examination of state laws clearly indicates that most professions have an extensive and systematic experience period prior to the granting of state licenses. In medicine the try-out is an internship; in the other professions it resembles the apprenticeship plan. Education uses the "directed teaching" courses of the training institution in place of supervised experience. Most of such courses do not begin to approach in intensiveness of work or extent of time the internship period of the non-teaching professions. Is it possible that teaching needs to insert between professional college preparation

and the granting of licenses a period of practical experience under typical classroom conditions?

The foregoing problems have a definite bearing upon tenure legislation. The conditions under which certificates are granted, the possibility of revocation of licenses, the enforcement of ethical practices, the amount of direct control of the profession by laymen—may increase or decrease the effectiveness of tenure legislation. It is of interest to teachers also to understand how other professions are raising their standards in the hope that similarly effective methods may be used. The present study of state laws should facilitate the progress which has already been made in most of the foregoing areas.

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The Status of Teacher Tenure. July 1938. 31 p. 25¢.

A revision of the 1936 *Research Bulletin*, "A Handbook on Teacher Tenure." Presents information on the position of the National Education Association on tenure, status of state provisions for teacher tenure, local regulations for teacher tenure, and digest of research studies on teacher tenure.

Analysis of Schoolboard Rules. June 1938. 39 p. 25¢.

Presents a sampling from the analysis of printed schoolboard rules and regulations issued by local boards in 40 cities over 100,000 population. Only those rules dealing with the employment conditions of teachers were studied for the present report.

Court Decisions on Teacher Tenure Reported in 1937. April 1938. 35 p. 25¢.

The fourth annual review of court decisions affecting teacher tenure. This report shows that in 1937 the proportion of decisions against teachers continued in about two cases out of every three. Notice has been given in this review to the decision of the United States Supreme Court on the Indiana tenure law. Reports are available also covering court decisions for the years 1932-34, 1935, and 1936.

Teacher Tenure Legislation in 1937 to Date. October 1937. 39 p. 25¢.

Consists of a brief summary of tenure legislation reported since the first of 1937, a state-by-state review of current tenure legislation, a summary of the salient points contained in tenure bills which were defeated, and reproductions of the texts of tenure laws enacted during the sessions up to September 15, 1937.

Mandatory State-Adopted Contract Forms. June 1937. 31 p. 25¢.

An analysis of the official contract forms for the employment of teachers in 13 states and the Territory of Hawaii. Contains excerpts from school codes authorizing state contract forms; also the text of 14 mandatory state contract forms.

Minimum-Salary Laws for Teachers. January 1937. 38 p. 25¢.

Describes the laws and regulations on minimum salaries and presents facts on the operation of such laws in 20 states having specific minimum-salary standards for teachers.

All orders for publications should be accompanied by funds in payment for same and must be so accompanied when orders for material amount to \$1.00 or less. Orders not accompanied by funds in payment are subject to transportation charges. Discounts on quantity orders of the same publication: 2-9 copies, 10 percent; 10-99 copies, 25 percent; 100 or more copies, 33⅓ percent. Make checks or money orders payable to the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

RECENT RESEARCH BULLETINS

Why Schools Cost More. Vol. XVI, No. 3, May 1938. 56 p. 25¢.

From High School to College. Vol. XVI, No. 2, March 1938. 64 p. 25¢.

Population Trends and Their Educational Implications. Vol. XVI, No. 1, January 1938. 60 p. 50¢.

Improving Social Studies Instruction. Vol. XV, No. 5, November 1937. 56 p. 50¢.

Federal Support for Education; the Issues and the Facts. Vol. XV, No. 4, September 1937. 32 p. 25¢.

Teacher Retirement Systems and Social Security. Vol. XV, No. 3, May 1937. 64 p. 50¢.

Salaries of School Employees, 1936-37. Vol. XV, No. 2, March 1937. 32 p. 25¢.

Financing Public Education. Vol. XV, No. 1, January 1937. 56 p. 50¢.

Safety in Pupil Transportation. Vol. XIV, No. 5, November 1936. 44 p. 25¢.

A Handbook on Teacher Tenure. Vol. XIV, No. 4, September 1936. 32 p. 25¢.

The Efforts of the States To Support Education. Vol. XIV, No. 3, May 1936. 64 p. 50¢.

The Preparation of Teachers' Salary Schedules: Part II: Drafting the Schedule. Vol. XIV, No. 2, March 1936. 48 p. 25¢.

The Preparation of Teachers' Salary Schedules: Part I: Administrative and Fact-Finding Procedures. Vol. XIV, No. 1, January 1936. 48 p. 25¢.

All orders for publications should be accompanied by funds in payment for same and must be so accompanied when orders for material amount to \$1.00 or less. Orders not accompanied by funds in payment are subject to transportation charges. Discounts on quantity orders of the same publication: 2-9 copies, 10 percent; 10-99 copies, 25 percent; 100 or more copies, 33⅓ percent. Make checks or money orders payable to the National Education Association of the United States, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

WE FEEL that, as a professional body, we are distinctly called on to form a national organization, that we may be the better enabled to meet the continually enlarging demands of our vocation for higher personal attainments in the individual, and for more ample qualifications adequately to fill the daily widening sphere of professional action.

We wish, as teachers, to reap whatever benefits our medical brethren derive from their national association, in opportunities of communication for mutual aid and counsel. We desire to see annually a professional gathering, such as may fairly represent the instructors of every grade of schools and higher institutions, throughout the United States.—*William Russell, addressing the first convention of the National Teachers Association, 1857.*

Part II relates to methods of teaching safety, reported as being in use in various schools at the present time. Included in this section are opinions of teachers as to the methods which have proved to be of most value to them in the teaching of safety.

Part III is a report on sources of materials used in safety instruction. That is, information is given on the proportion of study bulletins provided by local boards of education, and also on the extent to which agencies have given help. In addition, here are presented opinions of teachers regarding types of agencies which have provided the most effective help in the development of safety programs in the schools.

Part IV is a discussion of the future development of safety programs in terms of teacher opinion. In other words, the classroom teachers gave their own views on the ideal place of safety education in the curriculum, on the immediate, urgent needs in safety instruction, and on agencies which should provide the greatest help in safety teaching.

Some of the continuing problems in safety education are reviewed briefly in Part V. The sixth part of the bulletin includes lists of edu-

cational and non-school agencies making available school materials on safety, and a compilation of representative state courses of study. Part VII is a review of visual materials (motion pictures, still films, slides) on safety topics which may be obtained at little or no expense.

Use of the Bulletin

Safety is, to a large extent, a new objective for the schools and, like most new areas, it has not always been given an adequate place in a school curriculum which is already crowded. Methods of teaching safety are often vague and their effectiveness undetermined. Instructional materials have not been obtained in some cases because the teachers are not aware of the sources of available materials. In other cases there are no sources for desired materials. These and many other problems have to be considered and solved before educators can hope to achieve the ultimate purpose of safety education.

Teachers find it necessary to exercise a great deal of caution and restraint in attempting to teach a subject like safety in which results are measured in terms of life and death. In view

TABLE 1.—DISTRIBUTION OF REPLIES RECEIVED FROM CITY TEACHERS IN SURVEY OF SAFETY EDUCATION

Classification bases	Elementary-school teachers		Junior high-school teachers		Senior high-school teachers		Total number
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
City size:							
Under 2,500.....	1,606	22.9	375	13.3	1,301	27.7	3,282
2,500-10,000.....	980	14.0	367	13.0	872	18.6	2,219
10,000-50,000.....	1,595	22.8	776	27.4	979	20.9	3,350
50,000-100,000.....	592	8.5	365	12.9	320	6.8	1,277
100,000-500,000.....	1,240	17.7	533	18.9	522	11.1	2,295
Over 500,000.....	990	14.1	411	14.5	700	14.9	2,101
Total.....	7,003	100.0	2,827	100.0	4,694	100.0	14,524
School enrolment:							
Less than 100.....	917	13.1	42	1.5	187	4.0	1,146
100-499.....	3,523	50.3	726	25.7	1,224	26.1	5,473
500-999.....	1,924	27.5	1,055	37.3	1,042	22.2	4,021
1,000 or more.....	639	9.1	1,004	35.5	2,241	47.7	3,884
Total.....	7,003	100.0	2,827	100.0	4,694	100.0	14,524
Geographic area:							
New England.....	408	5.8	119	4.2	192	4.1	719
Middle Atlantic.....	1,810	25.9	735	26.0	1,069	22.8	3,614
South Atlantic: East and West South Central.....	843	12.0	253	8.9	506	10.8	1,602
East North Central.....	2,136	30.5	1,013	35.8	1,560	33.2	4,709
West North Central.....	718	10.3	319	11.3	598	12.7	1,635
Mountain.....	344	4.9	146	5.2	286	6.1	776
Pacific.....	744	10.6	242	8.6	483	10.3	1,469
Total.....	7,003	100.0	2,827	100.0	4,694	100.0	14,524

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FIGURE I
BOTH ESSENTIAL



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Observer-Dispatch

of such results it is of prime importance that teachers be informed of trends in safety teaching, and it is in this respect that this bulletin should be of service in the classroom. Thru this study, teachers may learn what some of their colleagues are accomplishing in the field of safety; what methods seem to be most effective; which types of teaching appear to be good and which harmful; and what results are obtained. Furthermore, the opinions of classroom teachers concerning future development of safety programs should be of value since it is usually the teacher who is in a position to observe most accurately the needs of instruction. The urgent

need for such information as this bulletin presents and the desire for teacher-guidance in the field of safety are evident in the reports of the teachers who participated in this survey.

This bulletin should be of particular interest to school administrators. The facts and recommendations contained herein indicate the need for important administrative and supervisory measures. The lists of organizations in the field of safety, of local and state courses of study, and of motion pictures should be of special benefit to curriculum committees having difficulty in obtaining good instructional aids for their reports.

Figures II, IV, VII, and the back cover of this bulletin illustrate the types of posters available from non-school sources. The particular posters reproduced here were chosen by a group of elementary-school pupils, high-school students, and adults, from a collection of more than eighty posters in the files of the Research Division.

FIGURE II



Courtesy, U. S. Forest Service



Courtesy, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.

I. Current School Practices in Safety Education

Accidental deaths occurred in 1937 at the rate of one every five minutes, according to estimated figures. The total was 106,000 and the number of injured 9,900,000.¹ Economic costs of accidents were estimated at \$3,600,000,000;² the loss in terms of human suffering and sorrow can never be evaluated. The greatest tragedy lies not in the figures themselves, but in the knowledge that there are often preventive measures within reach. These facts present a problem which educational agencies must help to solve.

How many elementary and secondary schools offer instruction in safety? Who, in the schools, are responsible for the teaching of safety, what methods do they employ, and where do they get instructional materials? What do the teachers think should be done to further the development of good safety programs? This bulletin proposes to supply answers to these questions by interpreting data collected from the teachers themselves.

Extent of Safety Instruction in City School Systems

Replies to the question concerning the extent to which safety instruction is given in the schools were furnished by 14,298 city school teachers. They were asked to report whether or not safety education in their own buildings is considered the duty of all teachers, of some of the teachers, or of none. Their answers in Table 2 indicate that safety education has a definite place in the city schools and that only 2.6 percent failed to report some kind of in-

struction in safety. Something of the nature of this teaching and of the type of person responsible for it will be revealed later by Tables 3 and 4.

The elementary schools surpass the junior high and senior high schools in respect to the proportion of teachers reporting safety instruction. As shown in Table 2, 99.3 percent of the 6939 elementary-school teachers reported their schools as providing for safety education by having *all* or *some* of the teachers assist in this subject. Apparently less than 1 percent of the elementary-school teachers reporting in this study fail to teach safety in some way. Of the 6893 elementary-school teachers whose schools include safety in their program of studies, 82.8 percent (5744) reported that all teachers participate in the teaching of safety. According to these reports safety education is given extensive attention. The intensiveness and effectiveness of this instruction may be less than are desired. Later sections of this bulletin will indicate the need for improvements.

Relatively fewer of the junior high-school teachers than the elementary-school teachers appear to recognize the need for safety education. Participation in the safety program by *all* teachers is reported by 41.6 percent of 2786 junior high-school teachers. On the other hand, relatively more junior high-school teachers (55.9 percent) than elementary-school teachers (16.5 percent) reported that safety is taught by *some*, rather than by *all*, teachers. This situation is not surprising in view of the fact that junior high-school teachers are assigned their places by subject rather than by grade and, therefore, cannot as readily correlate safety with their particular subjects, or give as much time to safety (unless it is specifically assigned to them) as elementary teachers.

The senior high-school teachers (4573) presented the same general situation as that noted in the junior high schools, but to a greater degree. That is, nearly three-fourths (73.9 percent) of the senior high-school teachers reported that *some* of the teachers in their schools aid in carrying out the safety program, whereas only 20.5 percent (939) reported that *all*

TABLE 2.—EXTENT TO WHICH SAFETY INSTRUCTION IS OFFERED AS REPORTED BY CITY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Extent to which instruction is offered	Percent of teachers reporting for			
	Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools	Total
1	2	3	4	5
By all teachers.....	82.8	41.6	20.5	54.8
By some teachers.....	16.5	55.9	73.9	42.6
By none of the teachers..	0.7	2.5	5.6	2.6
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of teachers reporting.....	6,939	2,786	4,573	14,298

¹ National Safety Council. *Accident Facts*. Chicago: the Council, 1938. p. 59.

² *Ibid.*, p. 53.

teachers participate in safety instruction. Perhaps the reason that few senior high schools require all teachers to give instruction in safety is that the possibilities of safety teaching have not been recognized in the more formally organized subject fields.

On the basis of city size there were but slight differences at each grade level. In other words, even in the cities under 2500 in population about eight out of ten elementary-school teachers reported that all teachers in their schools give instruction in safety. The replies of all junior and senior high-school teachers showed comparatively few offering definite instruction regardless of the size of the cities in which they were teaching.

Present Place of Safety Education in the Curriculum

One of the more important problems in the field of safety is that of fitting this subject into an already crowded school curriculum. Conditions vary in different schools and cities and for this reason safety may not be treated in the same way in all curriculums. The procedures in one school may not at all meet the needs in another school. Therefore, each school has an obligation in determining the specific place in its curriculum which will seem best to serve that particular school.

Safety instruction is of such a nature that it can be correlated with a number of subjects in the curriculum. However, there are limitations to correlation as suggested in the Lynn, Massachusetts, *Course of Study in Safety Education*, as follows: "There should be no attempt to force a relationship between safety and the subjects of the curriculum, as it relates itself naturally and effectively not only with most of the various subjects of the curriculum, but also to all school activities."³ Especially suitable subjects with which safety may be considered naturally correlative are the social studies, the sciences, and the health and physical education studies.

Because it is desirable to discover what has been done about fitting safety into the school curriculums, the teachers who participated in the present survey were asked for this information. The question submitted to the teachers regarding the place of safety instruction in the

schools today specified the following types: (1) separate course, (2) distinct unit in other subjects, (3) auditorium programs, (4) extracurriculum activities, (5) referred to incidentally, (6) combinations of above, and (7) not taught in any way. The teachers were asked to check the one type that holds chief place in the curriculums of their own schools.

TABLE 3.—PRESENT PLACE OF SAFETY INSTRUCTION IN CURRICULUM

Place in curriculum	Percent of teachers reporting for			
	Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools	Total
1	2	3	4	5
Separate course.....	13.8	5.6	9.8	10.9
Distinct unit in other subjects.....	32.1	27.8	22.6	28.2
Auditorium programs....	6.7	10.6	13.2	9.5
Extracurriculum activities	8.5	15.2	8.2	9.7
Referred to incidentally..	28.9	23.9	25.3	26.8
Combinations of above...	9.9	16.6	19.7	14.4
Not taught in any way...	0.1	0.3	1.2	0.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of teachers reporting.....	6,898	2,794	4,647	14,339

One teacher in three at the elementary-school level reported that in his school safety was taught as a distinct unit in other subjects. Nearly 29 percent indicated that safety instruction was largely on an incidental basis. Others reported that the essential nature of the safety program was best described as a separate course (13.8 percent), as part of the extracurriculum activities (8.5 percent), as auditorium exercises (6.7 percent). About 10 percent thought all of the foregoing types were in use.

While in Table 3 the general distribution of the replies of the junior high-school teachers is similar to that of the elementary-school teachers, certain differences may be noted. There appears to be relatively less organized instruction in terms of separate courses and distinct units but comparatively more emphasis on instruction thru auditorium and extracurriculum activities. Also, the proportion of junior high-school teachers reporting incidental safety instruction is only about one in four.

The senior high-school teachers reversed the order of importance of the two classifications that rank first and second with teachers at the lower grade levels. This, however, means that over 25 percent of the senior high-school teach-

³ Lynn Public Schools. *Tentative Course of Study in Safety Education, Grades I-VI*. Lynn, Mass.: Board of Education, 1933. p. 3. (Mimeo.)

ers reported safety taught incidentally, and that slightly less than 25 percent reported it taught as a distinct unit in other subjects. The two classifications "auditorium programs" and "combinations of above" are more favored in the senior high schools than in the elementary and junior high schools, according to the reports of the teachers.

Tabulations on the place of safety in the curriculum based on population of cities do not show any significant trend except that the percent of teachers who reported safety as "referred to incidentally" is slightly higher at all school levels, in cities of populations under 2500. In other words, generally speaking, the provision of more systematic means for the teaching of safety keeps pace with the growth of cities. The percent of teachers who reported safety taught as an "extracurriculum activity" was highest in cities over 50,000 in population. This fact suggests that the possibilities of informal instruction thru clubs, patrols, and similar activities in the small cities need further exploration.

The Supervision of the Safety Program

No doubt the size of the community and of the school largely determines the number of persons who are appointed to formulate safety programs and supervise their operation. It is probable tho that the amount of interest in safety displayed by school officials has considerable weight in deciding which individuals, and how many, shall direct safety education.

Extent of specific assignments—The teachers were asked to state whether or not major responsibility for the safety programs of their schools is assigned to one individual. Nearly two-thirds of the 6907 elementary teachers and also of the 4566 senior high-school teachers who participated in this part of the study replied that no single individual is assigned such responsibility. Over one-half of the 2774 junior high-school teachers gave the same answer. In other words, 8777 teachers of 14,242 who answered this question indicated that the safety programs of their schools are not assigned as a major task to any one individual.

The answers of the teachers regarding the extent to which one individual has chief responsibility in safety instruction reveal interesting differences, when tabulated according to size of city. In cities of 50,000 population and less, relatively few special individuals are

solely responsible for the safety programs in individual schools. In schools located in cities with populations less than 2500 the proportion is even less. The deduction is that, as the school systems increase in size, apparently there arises more need or greater recognition of the value of one person's assuming the responsibility for organizing, directing, or supervising the safety program.

Those schools which have at least one person, or a council or committee, whose principal work is to plan and direct the safety program are probably more successful in their efforts than the schools which depend on the teachers as a whole for this work. Leaving the entire responsibility of formulating, supervising, and teaching the safety program to the classroom teachers without providing for specific individual responsibilities is likely to result in neglect or duplication of the work, or both. At any rate the history of the introduction of new topics into the school curriculum clearly indicates the necessity for organization and supervision.

Personnel in charge of safety programs—In order to ascertain the positions held by those who have the chief responsibility for the safety programs in the various schools, the teachers were asked to identify the individuals on the basis of the following classification: (1) superintendent, (2) principal, (3) assistant principal, (4) director of physical education, (5) classroom teacher, (6) safety supervisor, and (7) various others.

Of the 5208 teachers who responded to this request 42.8 percent specified a classroom teacher as the person upon whom devolves major responsibility for the safety program of the school (Table 4). The school principal ranks second at all grade levels. The superintendent is at the bottom of the list which is, no doubt, to be expected because of the nature and distribution of his duties. Few teachers (only 395) specified safety supervisors as responsible for the safety program.

The different grade levels do not show wide variations in regard to those individuals who are responsible for the safety program. In general the various proportions correspond more or less to those indicated as totals (Table 4, column 5). At all three grade levels, elementary, junior high, and senior high school, the largest proportion of the replies indicated,

first, a classroom teacher and, next, the principal as being chiefly responsible for the safety program.

TABLE 4.—INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBLE FOR SAFETY PROGRAM IN THE SCHOOL

Individual	Percent of teachers reporting for			
	Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools	Total
1	2	3	4	5
Superintendent.....	2.9	1.8	6.4	3.7
Principal.....	28.6	21.5	18.2	23.9
Assistant principal.....	3.6	7.0	4.0	4.5
Director of physical education.....	6.8	8.5	12.2	8.8
Classroom teacher.....	45.1	41.1	40.4	42.8
Safety supervisor.....	5.3	10.5	9.1	7.6
Various others.....	7.7	9.6	9.7	8.7
Number of teachers reporting.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
	2,505	1,118	1,585	5,208

One difference noted between elementary school and junior high school, according to the teachers who reported, is that almost twice as many safety supervisors, in proportion to the number of teachers who reported at both grade levels, are responsible for the safety program in junior high schools as in elementary schools (the percent, however, is small at both grade levels). A similar situation obtains in favor of the senior high schools as compared with the elementary schools. A greater proportion of directors of physical education was specified by the senior high-school teachers than by the teachers of the other two grade levels. This condition arises from the fact that physical education directors are more frequently found in senior high schools than in elementary schools or even in junior high schools.

Tabulations according to city size regarding individuals in charge of safety programs reveal some expected variations. For example, the percent of elementary and junior high-school teachers who are responsible for safety teaching is greatest in cities over 50,000 population. School principals have major responsibility in the cities under 50,000 population. The distribution of the replies of senior high-school classroom teachers does not seem to be affected by population trends. The replies from junior and senior high-school teachers show an increase in the number of safety supervisors with increase in population of cities.

Summary

There are several pertinent facts revealed by this survey of current safety practices in the schools. The more important ones are as follows:

1. Of the 14,298 teachers reporting, 97.4 percent stated that safety instruction is offered to some extent in their schools. The elementary-school teachers presented a more favorable report in this respect than did the secondary-school teachers.
2. In the schools where safety is taught it is most likely to be a distinct unit in other subjects (28 percent); referred to incidentally (27 percent); given varied treatment (14 percent); offered as a separate course (11 percent); and presented thru extracurriculum activities (10 percent) or auditorium programs (9.5 percent).
3. The major responsibility for the program in each school is most likely to be borne by classroom teachers and principals. Less than one teacher in ten reported working under the direction of a supervisor of safety education.

THE INCREASING accident calamity is an anomaly in modern civilization. That we should treat with comparative complacency the wholesale slaughter of men, women, and children is a disgrace to our intelligence as a nation. In the minds of many people there exists the question as to whether our countrymen have become so mercenary-minded as to submerge their care and responsibility for the lives of human beings.—*Daniel Roper.*

II. Methods of Safety Teaching

The decision to make safety a definite part of present-day education is one thing, whereas the responsibility of employing an effective method to teach it is another. The difficulty was recognized by the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection in the following statement: "In common with many of the other subjects in the school curriculum safety has suffered considerably because of a lack of validated teaching methods."¹ The typical teacher seldom has time to conduct controlled experiments with new methods, but, at least, he or she can take cognizance of what has already been done in the field of technic in safety instruction and choose those methods which appear to be best suited to the particular community and school conditions. But the teacher still has a responsibility for critical appraisal and judicious use of the methods available. Altho safety education has suffered because of a lack of suitable and sound methods, it has come to quite as much disaster as a result of awkward and unimaginative use of methods. It is the combination of good methods and forceful application that points the way to constructive results.

Kinds of Methods Reported

Courses of study on safety education advise all types of teaching technics from those of real life situations to those of essay contests. Some technics are more commonly used than others, and in order to determine what methods are now in use in the various schools a question concerning methods of teaching was submitted to the teachers who participated in this study. Fourteen methods were listed in the questionnaire and the teachers were asked to check the methods which they use in their classes.

Over 13,000 teachers replied to this request. They indicated that the methods that are most popular are the first two listed in Table 5, namely, (1) bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety, and (2) classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems. Over two-thirds of the teachers reported the use of these two methods. Driver training (items 12 and 14 in Table 5) was reported by very few teachers, which is not surprising in view of the difficulty encountered by most schools in obtaining funds, instructors, equipment, and time. Visits to the scenes of

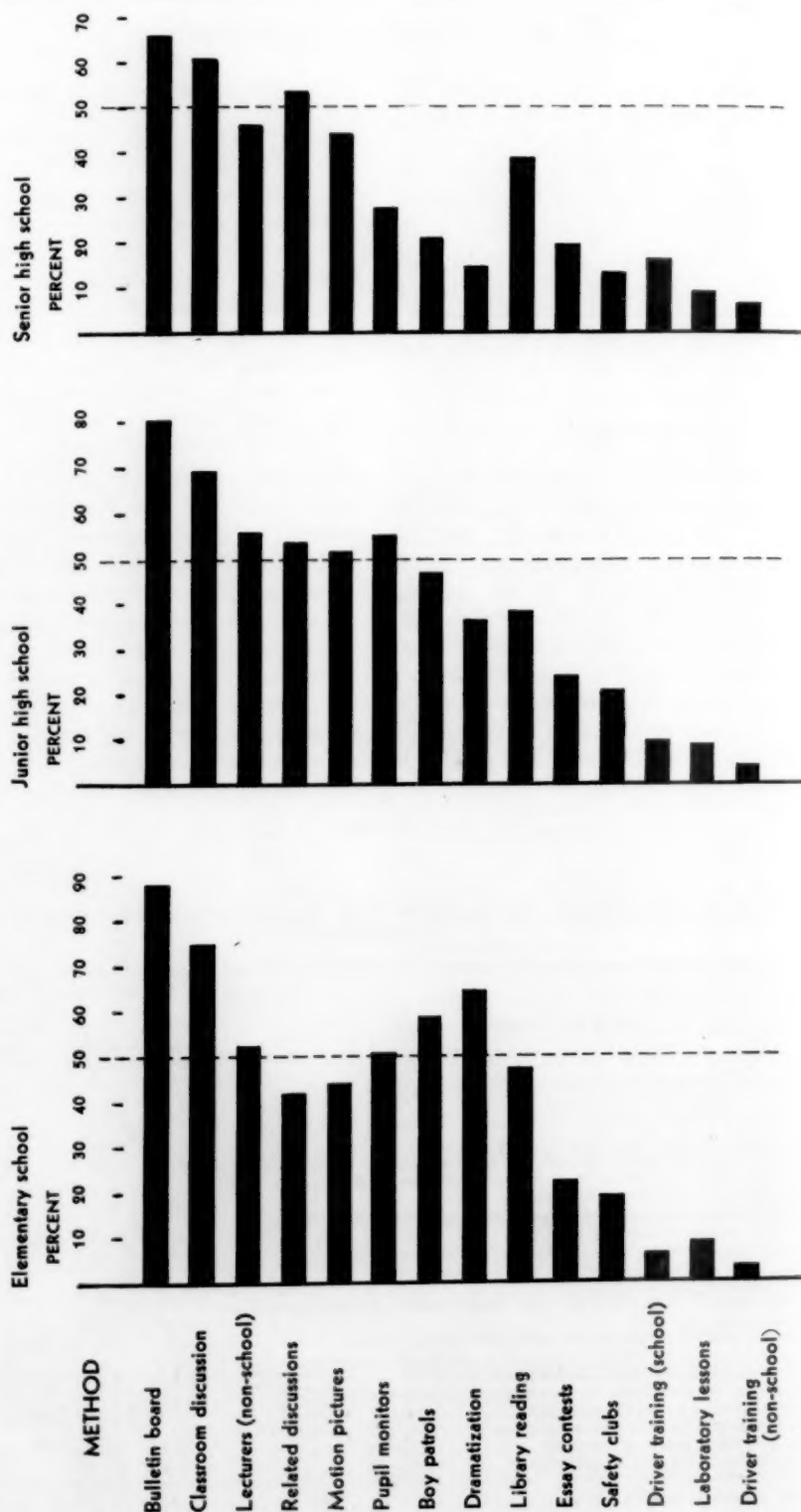
¹ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Safety Education in Schools*. Report of the Subcommittee on Safety Education. New York: Century Co., 1932. p. 21.

TABLE 5.—METHODS OF SAFETY TEACHING USED BY CITY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Methods of teaching	Percent of teachers reporting for			
	Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools	Total
1	2	3	4	5
1. Bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety.....	87.7	80.1	65.5	79.4
2. Classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems....	75.0	68.8	61.3	69.6
3. Lectures by non-school people (e.g., firemen, policemen, traffic experts, etc.) on accidents, first aid, and similar topics.....	52.3	55.5	46.0	51.0
4. Safety discussion directly related to use of equipment and materials in courses in science, physical education, shop, etc.....	41.7	53.2	53.3	47.5
5. Motion pictures on safety.....	44.0	51.5	43.8	45.4
6. Pupil monitors or patrols for corridor, stairway, and cafeteria traffic within the school building.....	50.6	55.0	27.5	44.4
7. Schoolboy patrols for direction of pupil traffic outside the building and on nearby streets.....	58.0	46.6	20.8	44.3
8. Dramatization of safety lessons and performance of safety plays.....	64.0	36.3	14.3	43.3
9. Library and leisure-time reading of pamphlets and booklets on safety.....	47.3	38.0	38.7	42.8
10. Essay contests on safety and related subjects.....	22.1	24.2	19.6	21.8
11. Safety, traffic, and auto clubs as extracurriculum organizations in school.....	18.7	20.5	13.3	17.4
12. Driving instruction by regular teachers.....	5.7	9.6	16.2	9.7
13. Laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to factories, congested highways, and other scenes of accidents.....	7.9	8.1	8.7	8.2
14. Driving instruction by motor club officials.....	3.2	3.7	6.6	4.3
Number of teachers reporting.....	6,476	2,569	4,009	13,054

FIGURE III

METHODS OF SAFETY TEACHING USED BY TEACHERS



accidents (called the laboratory method on the inquiry form) are probably seldom used because of the time it takes and the possibility of seeing unpleasant sights (item 13, Table 5).

Few of the teachers make use of such extra-curriculum activities as safety, traffic, and auto clubs (item 11, Table 5). This result does not agree with the finding of MacMillan who, in 1935, made the following statement: "School systems in general seem to feel that the best means of arousing and keeping safety consciousness in a pupil group is thru student safety organizations."² Perhaps this difference represents the lag between desired practice and actual accomplishment.

The following seven methods were reported in use by about 50 percent of the school teachers: (1) lectures by non-school people, (2) safety discussion directly related to use of equipment and materials in certain courses, (3) motion pictures on safety, (4) pupil monitors or patrols within the school buildings, (5) school patrols outside the school buildings, (6) dramatization of safety lessons and of safety plays, and (7) library and leisure-time reading of pamphlets and booklets on safety.

Some of the methods of teaching safety appear to be especially suited to certain grade levels. For example, 64 percent of the elementary-school teachers reported the use of dramatization of safety lessons and plays, whereas few of the junior and senior high-school teachers checked this method as being in use in their schools. The junior high-school teachers use it to a greater extent than do the senior high-school teachers. This practice agrees with the theory of Harriet E. Beard, supervisor of safety education in the public schools of Detroit, who has recommended the use of dramatization in the elementary grades for providing practical lessons in accident prevention.³

Schoolboy patrols outside the school building were reported by 58 percent of the elementary-school teachers and by 46.6 percent of the junior high-school teachers, but by only a few of the senior high-school teachers. Patrols within the school building are employed in relatively more junior high schools than at

the lower and higher grade levels according to the reports of the teachers.

On the other hand, the replies indicated that "safety discussion directly related to use of equipment and materials in certain courses" is more commonly used by senior and junior high-school teachers than by elementary-school teachers. As would be expected, senior high-school teachers also reported a higher percent of high schools offering driving instruction by the regular teachers than did the elementary- or junior high-school teachers (item 12, Table 5).

Methods in safety instruction, currently used, do not vary a great deal with the population of cities. In general, the findings indicated greater use of motion pictures, pupil monitors or patrols, and extracurriculum organizations (safety, traffic, and auto clubs) in the large cities as compared to less use in the smaller cities. In high schools, however, outside safety patrols are employed to a greater extent in the cities under 50,000 population. This situation also is found in the use of "library and leisure-time reading of safety articles and books."

What conclusions, then, may logically be drawn in view of this survey of methods currently used in safety teaching? Can one assume, since over two-thirds of the teachers report the use of two methods, (1) bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety, and (2) classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems, that these two methods are the most effective in the teaching of safety? Or, are they used because they represent the line of least resistance? Do most of the teachers employ these two methods because they are not sufficiently equipped to carry out other types of safety programs or because they are not familiar with other methods? As an aid in finding answers to these questions the teachers were asked for their appraisal of the fourteen methods listed.

Relative Value of Certain Methods of Safety Teaching

While it is generally agreed that safety teaching in the public schools not only is important but is essential, there is uncertainty on the part of some individuals connected with the

² MacMillan, Robert. *Safety Education in the Public Schools of the United States*. Doctor's thesis. Philadelphia: Temple University, 1936. p. 94.

³ Beard, Harriet E. *Safety First for School and Home*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. p. 104-106.

teaching of this subject as to the best methods for their schools. This uncertainty is readily understood in the light of varying school conditions, and different types of communities and students. In some instances, reluctance in using a good method may arise from a lack of preparation for safety teaching on the part of the teacher. It is the aim in this section, principally, to point out methods considered effective by classroom teachers, and, incidentally, to review

briefly some of the more successful safety teaching technics suggested by various educators.

In an attempt to discover what methods are more widely and successfully used today, the teachers who filled out the questionnaires discussed in this study were asked to rate fourteen methods of teaching safety (see Table 6 for methods) on the basis of the following standards: (1) indispensable, (2) valuable, (3) useful, (4) ineffective, and (5) harmful.

TABLE 6.—RELATIVE VALUE OF CERTAIN METHODS OF TEACHING SAFETY AS REPORTED BY CITY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Methods of teaching	Grade level	Percent of teachers rating methods					Number of teachers reporting
		Indispensable	Valuable	Useful	Ineffective	Harmful	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Motion pictures on safety.....	Elementary school	13.8	72.5	13.0	0.7	0.0	6,909
	Junior high school	14.4	71.5	13.2	0.7	0.2	2,801
	Senior high school	15.1	67.4	16.6	0.7	0.2	4,643
2. Safety discussion directly related to use of equipment and materials in courses in science, physical education, shop, etc.	Elementary school	40.2	42.8	15.6	1.4	0.0	6,450
	Junior high school	47.9	40.7	11.0	0.4	0.0	2,759
	Senior high school	43.2	42.5	13.5	0.8	0.0	4,603
3. Lectures by non-school people (e.g., firemen, policemen, traffic experts, etc.) on accidents, first aid, and similar topics.	Elementary school	12.1	70.5	15.9	1.4	0.1	6,903
	Junior high school	11.9	68.5	17.9	1.7	0.0	2,797
	Senior high school	11.8	67.0	19.1	2.0	0.1	4,635
4. Classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems.	Elementary school	24.9	53.8	19.9	1.2	0.2	6,882
	Junior high school	19.1	56.0	23.4	1.4	0.1	2,789
	Senior high school	17.2	56.8	24.3	1.6	0.1	4,594
5. Bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety.	Elementary school	11.9	60.8	25.2	2.1	0.0	6,966
	Junior high school	10.6	58.0	27.6	3.8	0.0	2,810
	Senior high school	7.3	53.7	33.6	5.4	0.0	4,626
6. Schoolboy patrols for direction of pupil traffic outside the building and on nearby streets.	Elementary school	32.5	42.8	16.1	5.2	3.4	6,591
	Junior high school	28.4	44.1	19.0	6.0	2.5	2,652
	Senior high school	16.1	47.0	22.6	12.0	2.3	4,174
7. Dramatization of safety lessons and performance of safety plays.	Elementary school	9.8	62.9	25.3	1.9	0.1	6,902
	Junior high school	4.8	56.3	34.9	3.9	0.1	2,746
	Senior high school	3.1	47.3	40.7	8.6	0.3	4,375
8. Driving instruction by motor club officials.....	Elementary school	14.6	48.8	23.6	11.4	1.6	5,448
	Junior high school	11.3	55.9	26.7	5.2	0.9	2,475
	Senior high school	13.5	61.1	22.5	2.6	0.3	4,373
9. Laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to factories, congested highways, and other scenes of accidents.	Elementary school	8.3	51.8	30.2	6.1	3.6	5,731
	Junior high school	7.7	54.0	31.8	4.7	1.8	2,485
	Senior high school	8.3	55.8	30.4	4.5	1.0	4,219
10. Pupil monitors or patrols for corridor, stairway, and cafeteria traffic within the school building.	Elementary school	14.4	44.0	31.3	8.9	1.4	6,433
	Junior high school	21.3	43.7	26.8	7.5	0.7	2,696
	Senior high school	12.2	36.9	35.0	14.8	1.1	4,197
11. Safety, traffic, and auto clubs as extracurriculum organizations in school.	Elementary school	6.3	51.8	36.6	5.1	0.2	5,983
	Junior high school	7.1	54.0	34.4	4.3	0.2	2,547
	Senior high school	4.9	49.5	38.5	7.0	0.1	4,117
12. Library and leisure-time reading of pamphlets and booklets on safety.	Elementary school	5.3	50.1	35.8	8.7	0.1	6,756
	Junior high school	3.5	40.3	41.0	15.1	0.1	2,708
	Senior high school	4.7	38.3	40.5	16.2	0.3	4,515
13. Driving instruction by regular teachers.....	Elementary school	9.6	39.7	29.0	17.3	4.4	4,913
	Junior high school	8.6	44.7	32.0	12.3	2.4	2,276
	Senior high school	9.7	46.9	31.6	10.1	1.7	4,134
14. Essay contests on safety and related subjects....	Elementary school	1.9	43.1	40.7	13.7	0.6	6,376
	Junior high school	1.5	37.0	44.3	16.9	0.3	2,685
	Senior high school	1.5	35.7	42.2	20.0	0.6	4,461

Evaluations of the group as a whole—Relatively few of the methods listed were regarded as "indispensable" by many senior high-school teachers. At least one in five elementary- or junior high-school teachers considered three methods as indispensable: (1) safety discussion directly related to use of equipment and materials in certain courses, (2) schoolboy patrols outside the school building, and (3) classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems.

Eight of the fourteen methods listed were judged "valuable" by about half of the teachers. Nearly seven teachers in ten reported two of these methods as valuable, namely, "motion pictures on safety" and "lectures by non-school people." The other methods that were rated as "valuable" by five teachers in ten were: (1) bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety, (2) dramatization of safety lessons and of safety plays, (3) classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems, (4) driving instruction by motor club officials, (5) laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to scenes of accidents, and (6) safety, traffic, and auto clubs as extracurriculum organizations in school.

A very small proportion of all teachers (from 2.3 to 3.0 percent) judged the following methods to be harmful: (1) laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to scenes of accidents, (2) schoolboy patrols outside the school building, and (3) driving instruction by regular teachers. It can be understood that these three methods would be definitely harmful if employed by inexperienced teachers or teachers who are not aware of varying temperaments of the pupils. Also all of these methods may result in accidents to the pupils and raise complicated questions as to liability.

Opinions on the basis of grade level and city size—The estimates of teachers as to the value of methods now in use in the schools do not vary greatly when classified according to grade level. Nevertheless, the variations should indicate, partly at least, the adaptability of the methods to grade levels. For example, over 40 percent of each group of teachers rated as indispensable "safety discussion directly related to use of equipment and materials in certain courses," which fact might indicate that this method is effective in all grades. This method

was the only one declared to be indispensable by a comparatively large number of junior and senior high-school teachers, while many of the elementary-school teachers judged two others in the same manner: (1) schoolboy patrols outside the school building, and (2) classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems. The junior high-school teachers disagreed with the elementary-school teachers on the last-named method above, giving a slightly higher evaluation to "pupil monitors or patrols within the school building."

The elementary- and junior high-school teachers (over 50 percent) emphasized the value of dramatization, designating it as "valuable," whereas less than 50 percent of the senior high-school teachers classified it as "valuable" to them. Over half of the junior and senior high-school teachers declared driving instruction by motor club officials to be valuable. This difference in value of these methods, according to grade level, is to be expected in view of the difference in ages of the pupils.

The methods appraised as "ineffective" by as many as 10 percent of the junior and senior high-school teachers are as follows: (1) essay contests on safety and related subjects, (2) driving instructions by regular teachers, and (3) library and leisure-time reading of pamphlets and booklets on safety. One in ten senior high-school teachers rated both types of safety patrols as ineffective; one in ten elementary-school teachers thought that essay contests and driver training were not effective.

Of the elementary-school teachers 3.6 percent declared laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to scenes of accidents to be harmful; 4.4 percent rated as harmful the item, driving instruction by regular teachers.

Little variation was noted in the answers of teachers when classified according to size of city. The method, schoolboy patrols outside and inside the buildings, was emphasized by all teachers located in cities with populations over 50,000. Item 11 in Table 6, safety, traffic, and auto clubs as extracurriculum organizations, was valued as "indispensable" by many of the junior and senior high-school teachers located in the larger cities.

The "valuable and indispensable" methods were not generally reported in use to the extent of their reported values (see Table 7). The most extreme example of this difference was found in the case of driving instruction by

motor club officials, which was rated of highest value by more than two-thirds of the teachers and was reported in use by about 5 percent. Other similar examples are items 11, 12, and 13 in Table 7. Only one method, bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety, was reported in use by a percent of teachers larger than the percent rating this method as "valuable" and "indispensable."

Summary—The principal conclusion to be drawn on the basis of this appraisal, by the teachers, of methods in safety instruction is that widespread use of certain methods does not imply that those methods are the best. Contrary to such an implication is the opinion of the majority of teachers that the most effective methods are: (1) safety discussion directly related to use of equipment and materials in certain courses, (2) motion pictures on safety, and (3) lectures by non-school people.

The next best methods, according to composite teacher opinion, are: (1) classroom forums and general discussion of accidents and safety problems, and (2) schoolboy patrols outside the school building.

Other methods believed by the teachers to be valuable are the following:

- (1) Bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety
- (2) Driving instruction by motor club officials
- (3) Dramatization of safety lessons and of safety plays
- (4) Laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to scenes of accidents
- (5) Safety, traffic, and auto clubs as extracurriculum organizations in schools
- (6) Pupil monitors or patrols within the school building.

"Laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to scenes of accidents" is considered by some of the elementary-school teachers to be harmful.

The teachers think that "schoolboy patrols outside school building" and "safety, traffic, and auto clubs as extracurriculum organizations" in schools are especially valuable for use in schools located in larger cities. This conclusion may arise from greater familiarity with these two methods since automobile clubs have been most active in sponsoring these devices in the larger cities.

TABLE 7.—EXTENT TO WHICH THE TEACHERS USE THOSE METHODS REPORTED BY THEM TO BE VALUABLE AND INDISPENSABLE

Methods of teaching	Percent of teachers reporting in					
	Elementary schools		Junior high schools		Senior high schools	
	Highest value	Used	Highest value	Used	Highest value	Used
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Bulletin board display of posters and pictures on safety.....	72.7	87.7	68.6	80.1	61.0	65.5
2. Classroom forums and general discussions of accidents and safety problems.....	78.7	75.0	75.1	68.8	74.0	61.3
3. Lectures by non-school people (e. g., firemen, policemen, traffic experts, etc.) on accidents, first aid, and similar topics.....	82.6	52.3	80.4	55.5	78.8	46.0
4. Safety discussions directly related to use of equipment and materials in certain courses (science, physical education, shop, etc.).....	83.0	41.7	88.6	53.2	87.6	53.3
5. Motion pictures on safety.....	86.3	44.0	85.9	51.5	82.5	43.8
6. Pupil monitors or patrols for corridor, stairway, and cafeteria traffic within the school building.....	58.4	50.6	65.0	55.0	49.1	27.5
7. Schoolboy patrols for direction of pupil traffic outside school building and on nearby streets.....	75.3	58.0	72.5	46.6	63.1	20.8
8. Dramatization of safety lessons and performance of safety plays.....	72.7	64.0	61.1	36.3	50.4	14.3
9. Library and leisure-time reading of pamphlets and booklets on safety..	55.4	47.3	43.8	38.0	43.0	38.7
10. Essay contests on safety and related subjects.....	45.0	22.1	38.5	24.2	37.2	19.6
11. Safety, traffic, and auto clubs as extracurriculum organizations in school.....	58.1	18.7	61.1	20.5	54.4	13.3
12. Driving instruction by regular teachers.....	49.3	5.7	53.3	9.6	56.6	16.2
13. Laboratory lessons in safety facts by excursions to factories, congested highways, and other scenes of accidents.....	60.1	7.9	61.7	8.1	64.1	8.7
14. Driving instruction by motor club officials.....	63.4	3.2	67.2	3.7	74.6	6.6

Safety Teaching Technics Suggested by Research and Experience

Educators have outlined, discussed, and experimented with many methods of safety teaching ever since safety became a subject of consideration by the schools. In order to show briefly the trend of thought regarding these teaching technics, reference is made here to a few educators who have done work in the field of safety.

In 1919, E. George Payne prepared "a treatise showing how accident prevention may be made a part of regular school instruction without the addition of another subject to the curriculum."⁴ Most of his illustrations were taken from the program in the St. Louis schools. His general plan in the elementary grades was to stress habits of safety in the home, in the school, and on the streets. Language, arithmetic, and drawing were the primary channels for this safety instruction. In the upper grades considerable emphasis was placed upon the use of committees of pupils to study safety problems and to teach other children. Dramatizations, demonstrations, essays, excursions, and discussion groups were the specific devices most frequently used.

In 1924, Harriet E. Beard,⁵ supervisor of safety education in the public schools of Detroit, pointed out ways to secure good results by correlating safety with the subjects of drawing, civics, language, and arithmetic. She also discussed procedures developed, in a large city school system, which included the utilization of local happenings, the adaptation of safety to seasons, and the safety activities of the pupils. She stressed games and dramatizations as effective ways of teaching safety to young pupils.

The 1926 yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education gives illustrative descriptions of methods of teaching safety for the various types of schools—elementary, secondary, rural, and vocational.⁶ Outlines of procedures are given for different grades which represent actual classroom practices in particular schools, but no attempt was made to compare them with other methods in relation to effectiveness.

In 1928, James Vaughn, assistant professor of psychology at the University of Cincinnati, stated that the instructor of safety should see, first of all, that the students understand why safety is to be studied. He did some experimental work to determine the effects of certain types of teaching on the behavior of the students and found that verbal instructions unsupported by other forms of stimulation are relatively ineffective, especially with children. He found the most effective type of teaching to be that which provided actual experience of the ill effects of wrong reactions. Another experiment proved that demonstrations of the manner in which injury may take place are more effective than mere negative or positive directions.⁷

The Subcommittee on Safety Education of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection reported in 1932 that schools do not adequately emphasize the more effective methods. The Subcommittee listed the following as the most effective methods of teaching safety:

- (1) Having pupils undergo actual experiences in regard to the hazard concerned
- (2) Habit-forming lessons in having pupils practice safe crossing of streets, safe use of sharp tools, and so forth
- (3) Simulating experiences with hazards thru safety games
- (4) Demonstrations of the causes and results of accidents
- (5) The use of motion pictures or stereopticon to show dangerous experiences, unsafe and safe practices
- (6) The use of poster lessons showing safe or unsafe practice
- (7) Projects involving safety
- (8) Story lessons
- (9) Dramatizing safety.⁸

In 1935, Robert MacMillan reported a study at Temple University, entitled *Safety Education in the Public Schools of the United States*, in which one of his conclusions is that "... all teachers cannot and do not use the same methods for the same end. Much must be left to the initiative of the individual teacher or to the needs of a particular community."⁹

⁴ Payne, E. George. *Education in Accident Prevention*. Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1919. 192 p.

⁵ Beard, Harriet E., *op. cit.*, p. 101-74.

⁶ For detailed information on these methods, see: National Society for the Study of Education. *The Present Status of Safety Education*. Twenty-Fifth Yearbook, Part I. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926. p. 245-81.

⁷ For other conclusions reached by Vaughn, see his *Positive Versus Negative Instruction*. New York: National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, 1928. Educational Series, Volume 2. p. 160-68.

⁸ For classification of some effective and least effective methods, see: White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Safety Education in Schools*. Report of the Subcommittee on Safety Education. New York: Century Co., 1932. p. 21-22.

⁹ MacMillan, Robert, *op. cit.*, p. 107.

Many of the courses of study contain information relating to methods found to be successful in various schools. For example, there is noted in the Tennessee course-of-study bulletin the following: "The teaching of safety in actual situations where the need for it is apparent; the integration of the subjectmatter of safety with that of the regular subjects of the curriculum; and the organization of extracurricular activities such as junior safety councils, schoolboy patrols, and safety clubs have been found to be successful methods of teaching safety."¹⁰

The Michigan Department of Public Instruction listed methods commonly used which are stated by that department as "good ones if properly used." The list is given below:

- (1) Informal discussion of right practices and hazards
- (2) Plays and dramatizations
- (3) Demonstrations of best practices
- (4) Motion pictures and other visual material
- (5) Safety patrols
- (6) Scrapbooks and bulletin boards

¹⁰ Tennessee Department of Education. *Outline for Teaching Safety for the Elementary Schools*. Nashville: the Department, 1934. p. 1.

¹¹ Michigan Department of Public Instruction. *Education for Safety*. Lansing, Mich.: the Department, 1936. p. 13-14.

- (7) Use of school paper
- (8) Radio broadcasts
- (9) Writing of compositions, poems and stories, and letters to parents
- (10) Traffic surveys and other similar activities
- (11) School assembly programs
- (12) Cooperation in social action
- (13) Programs for parents
- (14) Other methods such as talks, posters, safety club activities, and stories.¹¹

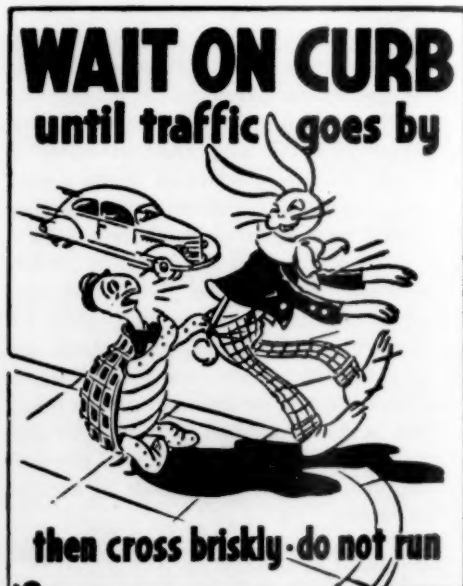
The department states that the first is the more commonly used method, and that plays and dramatizations are particularly effective with children, especially if they are allowed to write the plays themselves.

No comparison can be attempted here between evaluations of methods by the foregoing reports and the opinions of the classroom teachers in the present study because of the varying interpretations given to the term "method." In general, however, it can be said that all of them meet on common ground in recognizing the values of direct experience, learning by doing, the emotional appeal of dramatizations, and self-direction by the pupils.

FIGURE IV



Courtesy, Hartford Accident and Indemnity Company



Courtesy, American Automobile Association

III. Sources of Instructional Materials

Classroom teachers welcome the assistance which comes from course-of-study bulletins, handbooks, and other instructional materials. Many agencies and organizations have materials and equipment readily available for assisting teachers and others responsible for the teaching of safety. In general, they are also co-operatively-minded in regard to dissemination of their materials. In order to ascertain the extent to which these agencies and organizations actually do provide assistance in the promotion of safety education, the teachers who received copies of the questionnaire were requested to report the sources of their instructional materials.

Study Bulletins Provided by Local Boards of Education

The first question asked of teachers was: "Is a course-of-study bulletin in safety education provided by the local board of education?" The replies indicated that very few local boards of education supply classroom teachers with course-of-study bulletins on safety. This failure on the part of the local boards is even more marked at the higher grade levels. Undoubtedly this result merely reflects the fact that safety has been recognized as an important part of elementary-school education for a much longer period than at the higher grade levels.¹

Of the 13,028 teachers who reported, 70.1 percent replied that they received no curriculum bulletins; 65.2 percent of the 6299 elementary-school teachers replied in the negative; 70.9 percent of the 2536 junior high-school teachers and 77.1 percent of the 4193 senior high-school teachers gave the same answer. In other words, of the teachers participating in the present study less than one-third are supplied with course-of-study bulletins by their respective local boards of education, and the percent of teachers receiving these course-of-study bulletins decreases at the higher grade levels. Tabulated according to size of city, the replies show that course-of-study bulletins are provided by local boards of education to a

greater extent in schools in the largest cities (over 500,000), and to a lesser extent in schools located in cities with populations under 2500.

Types of Agencies Providing Effective Help in Safety Instruction

It is the duty of certain public agencies to provide help to teachers in safety instruction; it is to the good interests of some private agencies to assist in this problem; and it is essential to the welfare of all for both public and private groups to work together. In the bulletin of the safety program of the Tennessee public schools there is expressed the following opinion in respect to cooperation in one phase of accident prevention: "No safety program organized in one school and kept strictly as a school activity can of its very nature be productive of results. Safety education must reach out into the community and enlist the interest and inspire the cooperation of every pedestrian and driver of the city or county in which it is being fostered."² In this respect it is interesting to note the statement on outside agencies and their help in safety education by the Subcommittee on Safety Education in the Schools of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, which is as follows: "National or local organizations interested in life conservation problems cannot afford to overlook their opportunities to secure a magnificent return on their investment by encouraging schools in their safety programs, and, where it is necessary, they may actually provide the leadership, material, or equipment needed. . . . Moreover, from the viewpoint of the organization, such aid as may be rendered the schools will certainly reflect community goodwill and engender popular support for the group rendering assistance."³

In order to discover which agencies are providing effective help in safety teaching, the teachers reporting were asked to check any of the ten agencies listed in column 1 of Table 8, which provided such effective help to them. (The order of the items was not the same on

¹ National Society for the Study of Education. *The Present Status of Safety Education*. Twenty-Fifth Yearbook, Part I. Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Co., 1926. p. 21-22.

² Sharpe, Elizabeth, and others. *Safety Education*. Program of Tennessee Public Schools. Knoxville, Tenn.: Knoxville Safety Council, 1933. p. 5.

³ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. *Safety Education in Schools*. Report of the Subcommittee on Safety Education. New York: Century Co., 1932. p. 51.

the inquiry form as it is in Table 8.) Of the 13,258 teachers who answered this question at least 50 percent received effective help from the national safety organizations (e.g. National Safety Council, American Red Cross, etc.) or from automobile associations and clubs. The state department of education was checked by only 23.4 percent of the teachers, which was less than the percent (30.5 percent) reporting "officers and staff of local school system." Only one other agency, i.e., "insurance companies" (28 percent), was checked by more than 20 percent of the teachers.

The answers of the teachers grouped by grade levels show some variations. For example, a larger proportion of junior and senior high-school teachers than elementary-school teachers reported assistance from automobile manufacturers and insurance companies.

Tabulations according to city size clearly indicate that schools in the small cities receive more help from state departments of education than those in the larger cities. Fewer teachers in the cities with populations over 500,000 than those in the smaller cities reported receiving

help in the nature of instructional materials from national safety organizations.

Agencies Providing the Most Effective Help in Safety Education

The teachers were asked to check the particular agency (of the ten listed) which provided the *most effective* help in safety education. Nearly ten thousand teachers complied with this request. The replies taken as a whole (column 6, Table 8) indicate that the most effective assistance is received from the automobile associations and clubs and from national safety organizations. This report tends to bear out the following statement found in the White House Conference Report on Child Health and Protection: "A large number of cities use automobile club or safety council lesson outlines but have no regular syllabus of their own."⁴

The two specific school agencies mentioned in the list (Table 8) were not reported as of outstanding helpfulness. About one teacher in ten reported the local administrative staff as rendering most effective help; about one in

⁴ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *ibid.*, p. 14-15.

TABLE 8.—AGENCIES PROVIDING EFFECTIVE HELP AND MOST EFFECTIVE HELP IN SAFETY TEACHING AS REPORTED BY CITY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Agencies	Help provided	Percent of teachers reporting for			
		Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools	All levels
1	2	3	4	5	6
1. National safety organizations.....	Effective.....	59.3	57.5	50.6	56.3
	Most effective.....	24.5	25.1	21.5	23.7
2. Automobile associations and clubs.....	Effective.....	54.7	49.6	41.2	49.5
	Most effective.....	37.0	29.4	20.0	30.1
3. Officers and staff of local school system.....	Effective.....	34.7	30.0	24.2	30.5
	Most effective.....	14.8	13.3	12.1	13.7
4. Insurance companies.....	Effective.....	22.1	31.0	35.5	28.0
	Most effective.....	3.9	8.3	11.7	7.2
5. State department of education.....	Effective.....	25.8	18.0	23.0	23.4
	Most effective.....	6.2	3.9	8.2	6.4
6. Chamber of commerce, service clubs, etc.....	Effective.....	10.1	11.7	10.0	10.4
	Most effective.....	2.0	2.5	2.6	2.3
7. State departments other than department of education.....	Effective.....	6.9	9.6	14.6	9.8
	Most effective.....	2.4	3.5	8.0	4.3
8. Automobile manufacturers.....	Effective.....	2.3	13.3	18.9	9.6
	Most effective.....	0.2	3.4	6.2	2.7
9. Manufacturers of safety devices.....	Effective.....	1.4	1.7	2.8	1.9
	Most effective.....	0.1	0.5	0.5	0.3
10. Various other agencies.....	Effective.....	14.5	16.3	14.3	14.8
	Most effective.....	8.9	10.1	9.2	9.3
Number of teachers reporting.....	Effective.....	6,571	2,582	4,105	13,258
	Most effective.....	4,889	1,943	2,974	9,806

twenty gave a similar report for state departments of education. This situation may be considered explained, in part, in the White House Conference report, thus: ". . . The safety movement is relatively recent and there is some tendency for the schools to lag behind the general advance of social needs."⁵ The possibility of expanding the activities of local and state educational authorities toward safety education is treated in Part IV of this bulletin.

The teachers at different grade levels emphasized practically the same agencies as providing best help (Table 8). The junior and senior high-school teachers emphasized "insurance companies" slightly more than did the elementary-school teachers.

The replies of the teachers tabulated according to size of city show that most effective help by national safety organizations is provided in cities under 500,000 population. But the officers and staff of local school systems are more likely to be "most effective" in the largest cities. On the other hand, the majority of teachers who reported "most effective" help from the agencies, insurance companies, state departments of education, and state departments other than education departments are located in cities with populations under 50,000.

⁵ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *ibid.*, p. 16.

Summary

According to the reports of classroom teachers concerning the sources of instructional materials, the following statements may be made:

1. Few teachers are supplied with course-of-study bulletins on safety by their local boards of education.

2. The majority of the teachers, provided with course-of-study bulletins by their local boards of education, are in elementary schools.

3. The agencies most likely to supply teachers with useful instructional safety materials are: (a) national safety organizations, (b) automobile associations and clubs, (c) officers and staff of local school systems, (d) insurance companies, and (e) state departments of education.

4. In the opinion of classroom teachers, the *most effective* help is likely to be given by automobile associations and clubs and the national safety organizations (e.g. National Safety Council, American Red Cross, etc.).

5. Relatively few teachers report receiving the most effective assistance in safety education from state departments of education and from local school authorities. By way of contrast, the opinions of the classroom teachers concerning the assistance to be expected from these two agencies are discussed on page 262.

SAFETY EDUCATION represents an area which is developing rapidly out of social needs. The recurring evidences of carelessness and neglect are all too frequent demonstrations of the grave importance of this problem in our American life. Safety has vast opportunities for motivating instruction in other school subjects, pioneering in a field in which the support and the co-operation of the general public will be forthcoming, and for developing attitudes and habits needed in everyday life situations.—*Agnes Samuelson.*

CLEARLY THE MANDATE to the schools is to make safety instruction an integral part of the presentday school curriculum. This does not mean necessarily that separate courses in safety should be given in our schools, altho this may be done, but it does mean that well-thought-out plans should be put into operation to make the pupils safety-minded.—*Charles B. Glenn.*

IV. Necessary Improvements in the Teaching of Safety in the Schools

It has been said that the effectiveness of safety teaching may be judged by the subsequent results.¹ The decrease in accidents which involved school children, as heretofore mentioned, suggests some progress on the part of schools in the field of safety. If, however, the teachers are to obtain better results they must have specific objectives, they must employ the methods best adapted to local needs, and they must have cooperation from local and national agencies, particularly from state and local school administrators. In order to accomplish these aims the needs of the schools must be brought to light, and the opinions of those who have been, and are, closely connected with safety education in either an administrative or a teaching capacity should be noted. It is the purpose of this section to present opinions of the classroom teachers concerning some of the problems which need to be solved for the development of better programs of safety education.

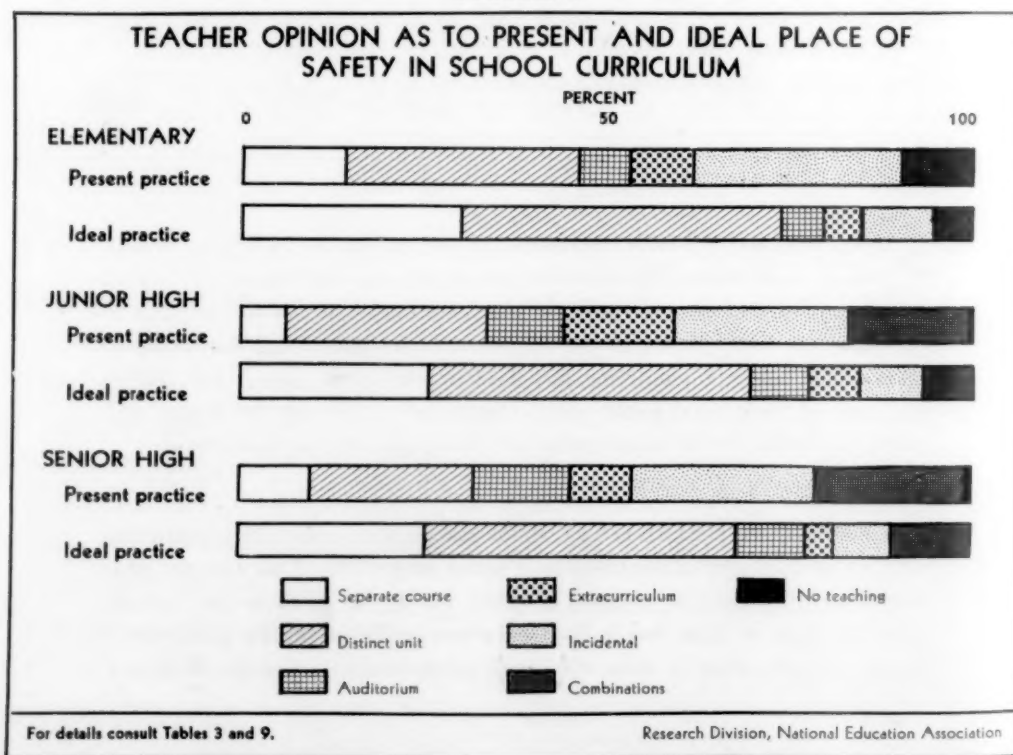
¹ White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *Safety Education in Schools*. Report of the Subcommittee on Safety Education. New York: Century Co., 1932. p. 54.

Ideal Place of Safety Instruction in the Curriculum

According to the information supplied by the teachers who reported on the present place of safety in the curriculum, the majority of teachers either refer to safety incidentally or teach it as a distinct unit in other subjects. Does this mean that these two practices are the best possible emphases for safety in the school curriculum? In order to get the opinions of the teachers on this point, they were asked to designate the place in the school curriculum which they consider *ideal* for the subject of safety. Nearly fourteen thousand teachers expressed their views on this point (Table 9).

It is significant that only 9.2 percent of the teachers believe that referring to safety incidentally is by any means adequate recognition for the subject of safety. Nearly 44 percent of the teachers replying believe that safety should be included as a distinct unit in other

FIGURE V



subjects. Many of the teachers (28.2 percent) think that safety should be made a separate course in the curriculum; only one teacher in a thousand would omit the teaching of safety altogether. The teachers at the three grade levels (elementary, junior high, and senior high schools) are in accord, generally speaking, in regard to the ideal place of safety in the curriculum.

TABLE 9.—DIFFERENCES IN TEACHER OPINION AS TO CURRENT AND IDEAL PRACTICES REGARDING SAFETY IN THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Place in curriculum	Percent of teachers reporting	
	Current practice	Ideal practice
1	2	3
Distinct unit in other subjects.....	28.2	43.6
Separate course.....	10.9	28.2
Referred to incidentally.....	26.8	9.2
Auditorium programs.....	9.5	7.0
Extracurriculum activities.....	9.7	4.9
Combinations of above.....	14.4	7.0
Not taught in any way.....	0.5	0.1
Total.....	100.0	100.0
Number of teachers reporting.....	14,339	13,929

A comparison of teacher opinion and of actual practice in regard to the placement of safety in the school curriculum shows some interesting differences. For instance, as against 43.6 percent who think that safety should be taught as a distinct unit in other subjects, 28.2 percent of the teachers reported this as practice

in their schools. The widest difference occurs in respect to safety as referred to incidentally; only 9.2 percent of the teachers believe this to be the proper place in the curriculum for safety, whereas 26.8 percent reported it as current practice. There is also a marked variation in the number that reported safety taught as a separate course (10.9 percent) and the number that believe that *ideally* it should be organized as a separate course (28.2 percent). Table 9 shows the differences in opinion between practice and ideal conditions in the curriculum for safety.

Urgent Needs in Safety Instruction as Reported by City School Teachers

Because of the strategic position of all teachers to observe the needs of the schools, it should follow that they understand probably more than other educators what is most needed to provide an effective safety program. Twelve items (Table 10) concerning the teaching of safety were listed in the questionnaire and the teachers were asked to check both the urgent and the *most urgent* needs in the schools of today. The "most urgent" needs are not presented here since they did not differ materially from the "urgent" needs given in Table 10. It should be noted in passing, however, that the order of the items in Table 10 is quite different from the order in which they were printed on the inquiry form.

The replies of the teachers indicate that much can be done toward improving the teaching of safety. First, there is an inadequacy of

TABLE 10.—URGENT NEEDS IN SAFETY INSTRUCTION AS REPORTED BY CITY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Need	Percent of teachers reporting for			
	Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools	Total
1	2	3	4	5
1. Better organized courses of study on safety.....	57.7	63.3	61.2	59.9
2. More motion pictures on safety.....	57.1	59.1	55.2	56.9
3. Lesson plans showing how other teachers have taught safety.....	35.4	32.5	30.0	33.1
4. More space given to safety in textbooks.....	32.7	27.9	26.9	29.9
5. Booklets on common accidents in the home.....	26.2	27.6	26.1	26.4
6. Lists of books on the teaching of safety.....	22.8	18.5	15.3	19.5
7. More safety posters.....	21.2	17.2	18.3	19.5
8. Checklists for discovering traffic hazards en route to and from school.....	16.6	16.5	16.5	16.5
9. Rating scales to check accident hazards in pupil's home.....	6.3	9.9	9.6	8.0
10. Pamphlets on how to drive a car.....	3.0	8.3	15.0	7.9
11. Rating scales to check safety of playground apparatus.....	5.4	2.5	2.2	3.8
12. Various other needs.....	5.7	7.6	9.8	7.4
Number of teachers reporting.....	6,733	2,714	4,479	13,926

instructional materials which not only give information on accidents but also present tried and tested methods of teaching safety. A majority of teachers (over 50 percent) reported that there is a need for better organized courses of study on safety and that this is a need which should receive the immediate attention of educators. This majority also expressed a need for more motion pictures on safety. A number of them indicated that it is desirable to obtain lesson plans which show how other teachers have taught safety. Many teachers think that more space should be given to the subject of safety in textbooks. They would also like to have booklets on common accidents in the home, lists of books on the teaching of safety, and more safety posters. The reports of the teachers, based on grade levels, show general agreement as to the specific needs in safety education.

The answers of the teachers tabulated according to the size of city show that in the small cities (under 50,000) there are more teachers proportionately who emphasize the need for better organized courses of study than in the larger cities. The opposite is true in regard to motion pictures, that is, the majority of the requests for more motion pictures is from the largest cities (over 500,000).

Agencies Which Should Provide Greatest Help in Developing Safety Programs

Many agencies and organizations have contributed a great deal to the safety movement and have cooperated with the schools by supplying instructional materials and equipment, by sponsoring and organizing safety patrols and

other groups, by making available accident information, by enforcing safety rules, and in many other ways. There is given elsewhere in this study information relating to agencies and their contributions in the teaching of safety.

Since teachers are in a position to know the principal needs in safety instruction, it is interesting to discover what their opinions are as to the type of agency which should logically offer the greatest aid to the teachers. Of the ten items listed in Table 11, the teachers were requested to check the agency whose duty it is, according to their opinion, to give help to the teachers of safety.

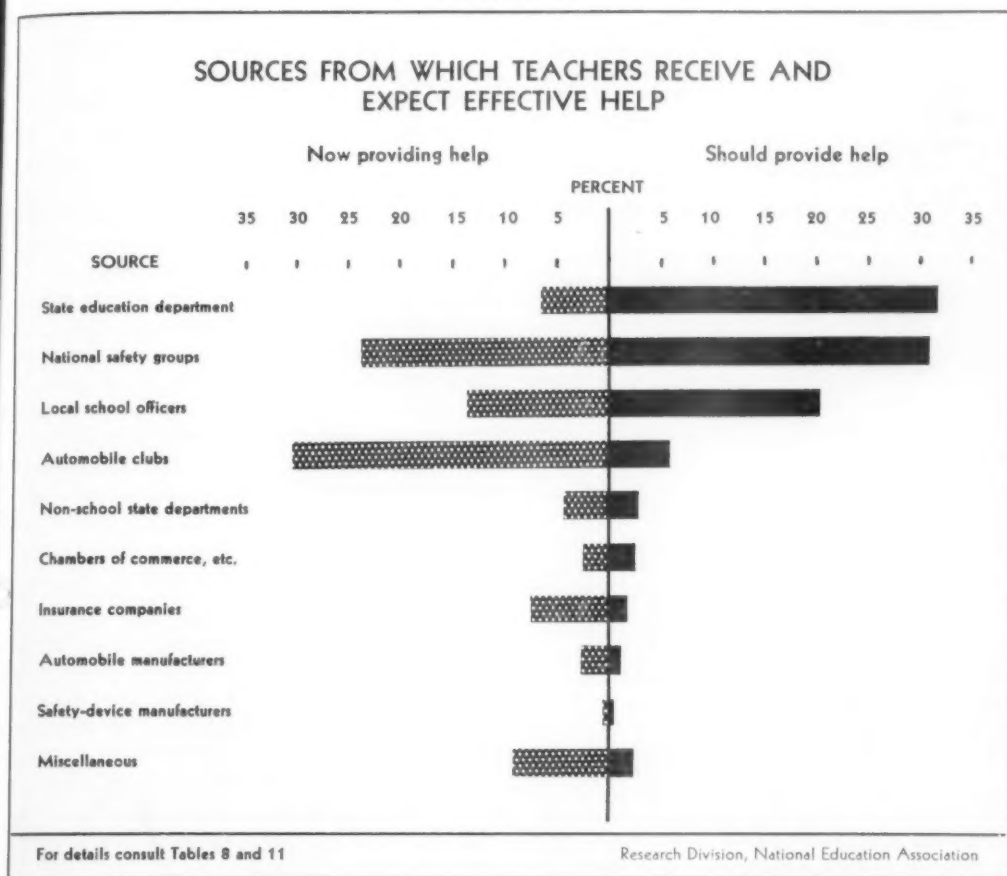
There are rather wide differences in the number of teachers reporting agencies which *do give* (Table 8) the most effective help in safety instruction, and in the number reporting those agencies which *should give* such aid. For example, 31.7 percent of the teachers (Table 11) think that the state department of education is the proper agency to offer help to the teachers, and 6.4 percent of the teachers (Table 8) reported that they receive most effective assistance from this agency.

Table 8 shows that the agencies rated first and second by the teachers in the contribution of excellent aid in safety teaching are (1) automobile associations and clubs, and (2) national safety organizations. The second of these two agencies retains its place in the group suggested by the teachers as one which *should* contribute most to the development of safety programs in the schools, whereas the first ranking agency (automobile associations and clubs) is moved

TABLE 11.—AGENCIES WHICH SHOULD LOGICALLY OFFER THE GREATEST AID IN DEVELOPING SAFETY PROGRAMS AS REPORTED BY CITY SCHOOL TEACHERS

Agencies	Percent of teachers reporting for			
	Elementary schools	Junior high schools	Senior high schools	Total
1	2	3	4	5
1. State department of education.....	29.7	32.0	34.6	31.7
2. National safety organizations (e.g. Nat'l Safety Council, American Red Cross, etc.)	32.5	31.3	28.1	30.9
3. Officers and staff of local school system.....	21.8	19.3	18.0	20.1
4. Automobile associations and clubs.....	7.4	5.8	5.2	6.4
5. State departments other than department of education.....	2.0	2.6	4.3	2.9
6. Chamber of commerce, service clubs, etc.....	2.7	2.5	2.6	2.6
7. Insurance companies.....	0.9	2.0	2.7	1.7
8. Automobile manufacturers.....	0.5	1.5	1.9	1.1
9. Manufacturers of safety devices.....	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3
10. Various other agencies.....	2.2	2.6	2.3	2.3
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of teachers reporting.....	6,392	2,571	4,191	13,154

FIGURE VI



to fourth place, being superseded by (1) state departments of education, (2) national safety organizations, and (3) officers and staff of local school systems.

In other words, one teacher in three of the entire group thinks that the state department of education should take the initiative and assume leadership in the work of supplying advice, materials, equipment, and other help to classroom teachers. Nearly as many feel that leadership should come from the national safety organizations, and about one-fifth of the teachers feel that they should look to the officers and staff of the local school system. The percent of teachers designating other agencies for this particular duty is very small—less than 7 percent. No great differences appear to exist on the basis of grade levels of those reporting.

Compilation of these opinions of teachers according to size of city shows no significant trend

except that the largest percent who think that the state department of education should accept the responsibility for giving adequate help to teachers of safety are from the small cities (population under 50,000). Again, as previously indicated in this study, the small cities are looking to state departments for leadership.

The problem of relationships with agencies outside the local system is a perplexing one. The report of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection states that school systems can either cooperate with the outside agencies in the development of safety programs or ignore them entirely. It is pointed out that those schools which maintain friendly relations with these agencies secure good results, and that this cooperative attitude is certainly better. The report also lists the following steps that the city and state should take to improve the teaching of safety.

City

(1) Each city should have its own course of study. Even tho much help is obtained from material put out by various agencies, that material should not take the place of courses of study.

(2) The cities should provide for the purchase of readers and other safety materials for the schools.

(3) City superintendents should solicit the cooperation of local organizations interested in safety.

(4) Special weeks or days should be set aside for emphasizing some phases of safety.

(5) Cities should have an accident reporting system which should be used as the basis of special stress in safety.

State

(1) It is a responsibility of the state to undertake the education of its people in the proper use of and respect for all things potentially dangerous, however slight the degree.

(2) The state department of education should prepare courses of study, obtaining help, when desired, from national agencies that have done research work in the field of safety.

(3) The states should establish standards of school transportation that will assure the removal of as many travel hazards as is possible.

(4) There should be a plan of cooperation established with all departments, motor vehicles, health, labor, forestry, etc., which would provide for an interchange of ideas and materials.

(5) The state should provide for adequate and safe playgrounds.

(6) The state department of education should cooperate with parent-teacher associations in the dissemination of safety information.

(7) The state should provide for the training of teachers in the state teacher-training institutions.

(8) The state should improve the construction of schoolhouses from the standpoint of safety features.

(9) The state department of education should act as a clearing-house for safety materials and information. Some states set aside special days or weeks; a few provide motion picture and stereopticon slides. Some cooperate in the sending out of fire prevention and other safety literature from various departments.³

Another point of view on the help and influence of non-school agencies in safety instruction is expressed by MacMillan, who says concerning parent-teacher organizations: "We find these organizations taking the initiative individually and collectively to forward the intro-

duction and continuation of the movement. Thru their efforts many school systems have become aware of the accident situation and are using varied means to overcome it. . . . Much of the spread of safety teaching has undoubtedly been due to the unceasing efforts of the parent-teacher organization." Then, concerning chambers of commerce, local, state, and national: "Thru their influence boards of education have been persuaded to introduce safety teaching into the schools in many places. . . . Almost all of them have committees whose work it is to study local situations from the safety viewpoint and suggestions as to what to teach and how to teach it have been made to the proper authorities."⁴ That these outside pressures are not always helpful or welcome is indicated in the replies of superintendents to an inquiry circulated for the 1940 yearbook commission.⁴

Summary

The present survey of current practices in safety education reveals conditions which are not generally considered the best by the classroom teachers. At least, many teachers are aware of the fact that there is room for improvement. Some of their points of view regarding future development of better safety programs include the following suggestions:

(1) Make provisions for teaching safety as a distinct unit in other subjects or as a separate course in the curriculum.

(2) Supply the teachers with better organized courses of study and with more motion pictures on safety.

(3) Provide lesson plans which show how other teachers have taught safety and give more space to the subject of safety in textbooks; also provide booklets on common accidents in the home, lists of books on the teaching of safety, and more safety posters.

(4) Leadership in providing the foregoing aids should be taken by the (a) state departments of education, (b) national safety organizations, and (c) officers and staff of local school systems.

³ Based upon: White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, *ibid.*, p. 15-18.

⁴ MacMillan, Robert. *Safety Education in the Public Schools of the United States*. Doctor's thesis. Philadelphia: Temple University, 1936. p. 63.

⁵ Unpublished data prepared by the Research Division for the Commission on Safety Education of the American Association of School Administrators, 1938.

V. Problems That Lie Ahead

The present study of the opinions of classroom teachers reveals at least six areas where immediate improvement is greatly needed. It is expected that the 1940 yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators will throw some light upon these problems. The Research Division also is planning to issue other materials which should be helpful. However, in the classrooms of the nation, in the state departments of education, in the teacher-training institutions, and in the offices of local school supervisory and administrative authorities the most extensive activity may be expected.

The indefinite place of safety instruction in the curriculum—There is general agreement that the number of injuries and the loss of life make it imperative that schools give a definite place to instruction in safety. Whether this instruction can best be given thru separate courses, thru definite units within the regular school studies, or thru less formal extracurriculum activities is a problem to be worked out in each school system. Certainly incidental teaching alone or complete neglect of safety work cannot be endured much longer. Yet in the present study we find almost one teacher in three who reports that incidental treatment is characteristic of the school in which he is teaching.

The disproportionate responsibility for safety education allotted to classroom teachers—While it is generally recognized that the classroom teacher ultimately determines the success or failure of any type of instruction, it is a doubtful practice which places the major responsibility upon the teacher. The present study indicates that in the opinion of four teachers in ten, the major responsibility for school safety programs falls upon classroom teachers. Less than one teacher in ten reports the help of a safety supervisor; three in ten state that the major responsibility rests with the school principal. Since classroom teachers and principals need help with their safety activities there should be more in-service training programs. Teacher-training institutions, school superintendents, and state departments should organize conferences whereby teachers may acquire the necessary familiarity with the safety field. Highway and police departments have shown

more than usual interest in cooperating in such activities.

The lack of courses of study in safety—Seven teachers in ten participating in the present study reported that the local school system did not provide them with a course of study in safety. This fact undoubtedly accounts in part for the failure of one teacher in four to give safety more than incidental attention. More than that, it means diversity of aims among teachers, waste of time in seeking out sources of materials, and neglect of many local examples for excellent safety instruction. Unless educators develop instructional guides for classroom work safety education will tend to crystallize into the patterns now being advocated by non-school groups. There will be courses in "traffic safety" or "home safety" instead of an integrated program. Safety education like character education consists of constructive reactions to life situations.

Confusion as to the advantages and limitations of methods—Closely allied with the foregoing problem is the apparent lack of discrimination in selection of methods and devices. While the composite opinion of teachers in the present study places a number of methods and devices in a general order of value, these opinions are neither unanimous nor conclusive. That many teachers recognize the problem is shown by their answers to the question on urgent needs. One teacher in three wanted lesson plans showing how other teachers have taught safety. Even more necessary than this trial-and-error procedure of isolating the effective methods are controlled experiments which relate the instruction to factors such as the age of the pupils, the facilities of the school, and the hazards of the community. Professional articles describing such experiments are still relatively few; standardized tests which get beyond mere information to emotional and physiological factors scarcely exist; few schools have considered the methods which are demanded by the peculiar conditions of their environments.

The shortage of instructional materials and equipment—In spite of the extensive contribution of instructional materials by non-school agencies there is a definite shortage of aids

suitable for school use. Many publications and motion pictures have been developed for use with adults and are entirely unsuited for school children. Other materials obviously have been prepared for advertising or selfish propaganda purposes. Furthermore, the arrangements are often inadequate for bringing the best of these materials to the attention of school people and for distributing them where they are needed. It is possible that some coordination of the efforts of non-school agencies would improve the "school usefulness" of the present output. No doubt the systematization of present school curriculum practices would encourage individuals to prepare instructional materials or to invent classroom equipment. Finally, educators themselves should stimulate the development of teaching aids thru in-service training of teachers, demonstration classes in teachers colleges, curriculum committee activities, and local research programs.

The need for leadership by educators—It must be admitted that up to the present the most effective leadership in safety education has been supplied by the non-school agencies. This fact is brought out clearly in the present study by teachers' statements that the most useful assistance is being supplied by automobile clubs and national safety organizations. In the past, these and other non-school groups have borne a heavy educational task. Many of the leaders of non-school organizations would like to turn their energies to new fields, leaving the major responsibility for training youth to

the school authorities. Are educational leaders, particularly administrative officers, ready and willing to undertake the work with the activity which the accident situation demands? The 1940 yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators indicates a genuine interest as far as superintendents of schools are concerned.

To whom among educational leaders do teachers think they should be able to turn? According to the present study the three major sources of aid should be (1) state departments of education, (2) national safety associations, and (3) officers and staff of local school systems. What the leaders of these agencies do in the next few years is in reality a matter of "life or death."

The pessimistic tone of many of the foregoing statements is unavoidably associated with a movement where the need is desperate and progress is still inadequate. At the same time it would be unfair to overlook the following hopeful facts: (1) nine out of ten of the co-operating teachers were aware of the need for some safety instruction; (2) four out of ten teachers reported that the study of safety is systematically organized into separate courses or units in other subjects; (3) three teachers in ten stated that local supervisory authorities provide them with course-of-study bulletins in safety; (4) nine teachers in ten could indicate, on the inquiry form, their most urgent needs with regard to teaching aids. Upon these promising conditions the school leaders of the nation should build with increased enthusiasm.

AN EDUCATION must be had for a world in which things do not happen but are caused, an education for a world which, whether we like it or not, must be planned and in which we must take an aggressive and a responsible part. Accidents have no place in such a world; for accidents are the typical product of an unplanned world. Furthermore, in such a world we cannot afford to have accidents; there is no great harm in making mistakes in a world that is beyond our control, but it is a very different matter to make mistakes in a world over which we have as much power as we have over the world today.—*Albert W. Whitney.*

VI. Where Safety Education Aids May Be Obtained

The following lists constitute an outline survey of the work of organizations engaged in the field of safety education. Each list is intended to be as comprehensive as possible. *No evaluation has been made of any of the publications or films listed herein.* Most of the materials listed contain various amounts of advertising. Reference to a specific agency, publication, or film does not mean either approval or disapproval by the Research Division of the National Education Association. The section has been divided into the following main parts:

- A. Non-school organizations distributing free and inexpensive material
- B. Non-school organizations distributing safety films and slides
 - 1. National sources
 - 2. State and local sources, excluding city school departments of visual instruction
- C. University departments of visual instruction distributing safety films and slides
- D. State departments of instruction offering courses of study in safety education.

A. NON-SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS DISTRIBUTING FREE AND INEXPENSIVE MATERIAL

1. AETNA LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY AND AFFILIATED COMPANIES, 151 Farmington Avenue, Hartford, Conn.

Does work in the fields of automobile accident prevention and fire prevention. Issues pamphlets, such as *Let's Be Skillful*, for general student distribution, teachers' guide books, and safety posters. Also has safety films and slides available for school showings. Material free upon request.

2. AMERICAN AUTOMOBILE ASSOCIATION, Mills Building, Washington, D. C.

Does work in field of highway accident prevention. Issues posters, safety lessons and charts, crayon sheets, bibliographies, playlets, and various miscellaneous publications. Issues also *Sportsmanlike Driving Series*, a group of books to be used in training young drivers. Titles include: *The Driver*, *Driver and Pedestrian Responsibilities*, *How To Drive*, *Society's Responsibilities*, *Sound Driving Practices*, *Teachers' Outline*, and *Training New Drivers*. These publications are available in quantity from local AAA clubs or from the American Automobile Association, Washington, D. C. Local clubs also distribute films on safety topics.

3. AMERICAN LEGION, Americanism Commission, Indianapolis, Ind.

Safety work done largely thru local posts. Safety slide films: "Stop, Look, and Live"; "Night Driving"; "Inertia"; and "The Other Fellow," dealing with highway safety and suitable for use in high schools, are available thru local posts. Booklet, *The American Legion and the Traffic Accident Problem*, of interest chiefly to teachers, is issued free upon request to national headquarters.

4. AMERICAN MUSEUM OF SAFETY (Greater New York Safety Council), 60 East 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.

Publishes *Safety*, a monthly magazine dealing primarily with industrial safety, but containing a monthly lesson plan for teachers. Subscription rates: \$2 per year; in blocks of ten or more, \$1.50 per year.

5. AMERICAN MUTUAL LIABILITY INSURANCE COMPANY, 142 Berkeley Street, Boston, Mass.

Issues one publication, *The Man at the Wheel—100 Percent Driver*, single copies of which are distributed free of charge east of the Mississippi.

6. AMERICAN RED CROSS, 17th and E Streets, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Interested primarily in home and farm accident prevention. Most of its work is done thru local chapters. However, national organization issues following publications suitable for teacher use and available free on request: *Injuries on the Home and Farm*, *Lecture and Group Discussion Course on Home and Farm Accident Prevention*, *Chapter Handbook on Accident Prevention*. Distributed for pupil use is a *Home and Farm Self-Check List*. First aid and life saving textbooks available at 60¢ each. Complete list of publications free upon request.

7. AMERICAN STANDARDS ASSOCIATION, 29 West 39th Street, New York, N. Y.

Sets up standard safety codes for all branches of industry. Publishes following codes of particular interest to school executives: *Building Exits Code*, 75¢, and *Standards for School Lighting*. Works are largely technical in nature. Complete list of publications sent upon request.

8. AUTOMOBILE MANUFACTURERS ASSOCIATION, 366 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Issues free booklet, *Automobile Facts and Figures*, containing complete statistics on registration, gas consumption, etc., of American automobiles. Several pages are devoted to statistics of street and highway accidents. Also issues *Auto Facts*, a monthly publication containing the latest statistical information on automobiles and accidents.

9. AUTOMOTIVE SAFETY FOUNDATION, 366 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Sponsored by Automobile Manufacturers Association. Works thru other groups in field of highway safety. Does not engage in direct safety activities and has no publications for use in schools.
10. BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA, 2 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Has several books dealing with safety in *Merit Badge Series*. Titles include *Safety*, *Firemanship*, *Swimming*, and *Life-Saving*. These are sold at 20¢ a copy. *Health and Safety*, a four-page bulletin, is issued bimonthly to members of the Health and Safety Committee.
11. CLEVELAND SAFETY COUNCIL, Terminal Tower Building, Cleveland, Ohio
A non-profit organization which issues one publication, *Safety Education*, a course of study for elementary and junior high schools, which supersedes the series of safety instruction pamphlets formerly issued monthly and used thruout the country. This publication is available free to schools in the Cleveland area, and at cost to other schools. There is a schedule of prices, ranging from \$1 for a single copy to 40¢ each for 200 or more.
12. COMMERCIAL INVESTMENT TRUST SAFETY FOUNDATION, 1 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Established to promote care in traffic. Work is done largely in field of newspaper publicity. School teacher's plan for teaching safety to be available in near future. Free upon request.
13. COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC RELATIONS OF THE EASTERN RAILROADS, 143 Liberty Street, New York, N. Y.
Distributes safety posters to grade schools. Also distributes National Safety Council publications dealing with safety in railway transportation.
14. CYCLE TRADES OF AMERICA, Chanin Building, New York, N. Y.
Distributes one film, "Bicycling with Complete Safety," 16mm. sound (one reel). There is no charge for the use of this film. Also has several safety posters available free upon request.
15. THE EMPLOYERS GROUP, 110 Milk Street, Boston, Mass.
Does publicity work in the general field of accident prevention. Issues the following booklets on home and highway safety free on request: *Danger Spots in the Home*; *Now I Am Going To Drive*; and *Why Die in a Fire?*
16. EMPLOYERS MUTUALS, Accident Prevention Department, Wausau, Wis.
Issues the publication, *Safety Through Education*, a guide book on safety education for all grades from kindergarten to senior high school.
- This book is sold at 25¢ per copy. Also distributes posters.
17. FILMS OF COMMERCE, 21 West 46th Street, New York, N. Y.
Distributes "Speaking of Safety," a one-reel street safety film designed primarily for elementary schools. This film was produced with the cooperation of the Metropolitan Branch of the Department of Visual Instruction of the National Education Association, and is loaned free to schools. Available in 16 and 35mm. silent.
18. GENERAL ELECTRIC COMPANY, Illuminating Laboratory, 1 River Road, Schenectady, N. Y.
Illuminating Laboratory works for highway safety thru improvement of highway lighting. Issues booklets, pamphlets, reprints, etc., on highway lighting, which are available free for limited distribution. Publications are of a technical nature, altho interesting for data on night accidents. Sample publications free on request. Also distributes free sound-slide films for high-school showings.
19. GENERAL MOTORS CORPORATION, Department of Public Relations, Detroit, Mich.
Issues one booklet, *We Drivers*, concerned directly with highway safety. Also issues following booklets dealing with the manufacturing of automobiles and discussing safety incidentally: *When the Wheels Revolve*; *Putting Progress Thru Its Paces*; *Diesel—the Modern Power*; and *Metallurgy and Wheels*. All of these booklets are available in quantity. Distributes "We Drivers," one-reel picture available in 16mm. and 35mm. silent and sound.
20. GIRL SCOUTS, INC., 14 West 49th Street, New York, N. Y.
All publications pertaining to health, safety, and first aid are now in process of revision, to be ready towards the end of 1938. Only publication now available for free distribution is *Minimum Standards for Girl Scout Camps*.
21. GOOD HOUSEKEEPING INSTITUTE, 57th Street and 8th Avenue, New York, N. Y.
Issues free pamphlet, *Safety in the Home*, which lists various precautions to be taken to avoid home accidents. Automobile safety also covered.
22. GREATER NEW YORK SAFETY COUNCIL. See American Museum of Safety.
23. HIGHWAY EDUCATION BOARD, Pan American Building, Washington, D. C.
Does work in field of highway safety education. Issues prize-winning lesson plans for use by teachers available free upon request. Publishes also booklet, *A Safety Lesson for Each Grade*, containing sample lesson plans for use in elementary schools. This booklet is available free upon request in single copies or in quantity.

24. INSTITUTE OF MAKERS OF EXPLOSIVES, 103 Park Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Safety work consists largely in publicizing dangers of blasting caps. Issues posters and pamphlets dealing with this subject. Also distributes a one-reel film, "How Jimmy Won the Game," 16mm. silent copies of which are available free of charge. Picture distributed from Room 13451, Nemours Building, Wilmington, Del.

25. INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF ELECTRICAL INSPECTORS, Public Relations Committee, 85 John Street, New York, N. Y.

Works in fields of electrical safety and fire prevention. Issues free leaflet, *How To Safeguard Electric Service in the Home*, for widespread distribution. Available in more limited numbers is the reproduction of this leaflet in the form of a wall chart. The booklet, *Electric Service with Safety*, is available at 2¢ per copy.

26. INTERNATIONAL HARVESTER, 606 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Issues two booklets, *I Drive Safely* and *The Best Way To Fight Fire Is To Prevent It From Starting*. These booklets are available in limited numbers free upon request.

27. INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN, Elyria, Ohio

Does no specific work in the field of child safety. Safety education articles loaned upon request from society's files. Back copies of *Safety Education* magazine also available for loan.

28. JOHN HANCOCK MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, Publicity Department, Boston, Mass.

Does general safety work. Issues two booklets: *Picture Yourself as the Safe Driver* and *Safe at Home*, both of which are available in quantity lots free upon request. Also distributes "Why Be Careless?" a 16mm. silent picture dealing with highway safety.

29. KEYSTONE AUTOMOBILE CLUB, Broad and Vine Streets, Philadelphia, Pa.

Issues *Highway Safety Textbook for High Schools*. Free to high schools in Washington, D. C., Maryland, southern and central New Jersey, and eastern Pennsylvania. Twenty-five cents per copy to schools outside this area.

30. LIBERTY MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY, 175 Berkeley Street, Boston, Mass.

Distributes highway safety material. Has one booklet, *Peter and the Whiffle-hound*, suitable for elementary-school use. Also available is "Song of the Highway," a safety song for use by high-school traffic clubs and adult safety organizations.

31. LUMBERMEN'S MUTUAL CASUALTY COMPANY, Mutual Insurance Building, Chicago, Ill.

Does extensive work in field of automobile safety. Issues bulletins and posters free of charge. *Children's Safety Lessons Booklet* and *Preventable Accidents Booklet* are available in limited numbers free from local agent or at small cost from Chicago office. *Driver's Handbook* available in small quantities free of charge. Company sponsors "Not Over 50" Club, which issues literature and insignia of interest to high-school driving classes. Distribution of all safety material is nationwide, except for states in the Rocky Mountain region and in the Southwest.

32. MARYLAND CASUALTY COMPANY, Engineering Division, Baltimore, Md.

Does extensive work in the field of accident prevention. Issues small enclosure cards, leaflets, postcards, posters, etc., all of which are available free upon request.

33. METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, Welfare Division, New York, N. Y.

Does work in the field of general safety. Issues the following publications which are available free upon request: *How Safe Is Home?*; *Calling All Drivers*; *First Aid*; *The Junior Safety Volunteer*; *Safe Walker's Memo Book*; *Health Bulletin for Teachers*, February 1937, "Safety in the Home, School, and Community"; *Health Bulletin for Boys and Girls*, "The Secret of Safety"; *Health Bulletin for Parents*, "Safety in the Home, School, and Community"; and *Swimming and Life Saving*. Distributes also the safety film "Once Upon a Time," which is supplemented by a study guide and song. Issues for more limited distribution the booklet *Industrial Safety Education in Schools*.

34. NATIONAL BOARD OF CASUALTY AND SURETY UNDERWRITERS. See National Conservation Bureau.

35. NATIONAL BOARD OF FIRE UNDERWRITERS, 85 John Street, New York, N. Y.

Does extensive work in the field of fire prevention. Issues technical publications, inspection blanks, playlets, and other publications, such as *Safeguarding the Home Against Fire* and *Construction of School Buildings*, most of which are available free of charge. Complete list of publications free upon request.

36. NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS, Traffic Safety Education Project, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.

Issues following safety material for distribution to parent-teacher groups: *Organized Safety by Organized Parents and Teachers*, news letters, and posters. Also issues *Aids to Course of Study Committees Desiring Materials on Safety Education*. This material has been issued in three mimeographed publications: *Then and Now in Safety Education*, *Visual Aids in Safety Education*, and *225 Safety References*.

37. NATIONAL CONSERVATION BUREAU (formerly National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters), 60 John Street, New York, N. Y.

Sponsored by the Casualty and Surety Underwriters. Does work in all fields of safety education, with emphasis on highway safety. Publications include many designed to give aid in building courses of study. Issues *Man and the Motor Car*, a textbook on traffic safety, which is sold at 45¢ a copy in lots of ten or more, as well as many free publications. Sells at small cost copies of standard tests covering various fields of safety education. Complete list of publications free upon request.

38. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, Safety Education Projects, 1201 16th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Has prepared a *Research Bulletin* dealing with "Safety in Pupil Transportation," which is available at a nominal cost. Also distributes one mimeographed publication, *Courses in Safety Education*, an annotated list of state and city courses. Single copies free upon request.

39. NATIONAL FIRE PROTECTION ASSOCIATION, 60 Battery March Street, Boston, Mass.

This is an independent fire prevention organization. Has an extensive list of publications, posters, and inspection blanks designed for school use and containing no advertising. Minimum charge for most of these publications. Complete list free upon request.

40. NATIONAL FIRE WASTE COUNCIL (affiliated with the Chamber of Commerce of the United States), 1615 H Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Distributes bulletins in the general field of fire prevention. The Insurance Department of the Chamber of Commerce also has free pamphlets on accident prevention and health conservation.

41. NATIONAL RECREATION ASSOCIATION, 315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Safety work restricted to safety in physical education and playground safety. Issues monthly bulletins on playground safety, and also has available a limited number of publications dealing with this subject. There is a small charge for most of these publications. List available upon request.

42. NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL, Education Division, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.

Issues publications, posters, safety packets, films, etc., dealing with all aspects of school safety. There is a charge for virtually all of these publications. There are three types of membership in the National Safety Council: (a) for school executives; (b) for the elementary school; and (c) for the secondary school. Each of these memberships is \$5 a year and includes subscriptions to two monthly magazines, *Safety Education* and *Public Safety*, as well as posters, bibliographies, monthly bulletins, and various

miscellaneous services and publications. List of publications and complete information on membership available free upon request.

43. NATIONAL SAVE-A-LIFE LEAGUE, 299 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Founded solely for the prevention of self-destruction. Issues no safety publications.

44. NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS, 50 West 50th Street, New York, N. Y.

Does extensive work in prevention of eye accidents. Publishes pamphlets dealing with hazards in play and in athletics, fireworks, school lighting, movies, and eyestrain from driving. There is a small charge for certain of these publications. Complete list free upon request.

45. NORTHWESTERN MUTUAL FIRE ASSOCIATION, Pine at Third, Seattle, Wash.

Issues one publication, *The Road to Safe Driving*, which is available in limited quantities free of charge.

46. PORTLAND CEMENT ASSOCIATION, 33 West Grand Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

Does publicity work in the field of safety in highway construction. Issues various booklets, such as *Safety Sealed in Concrete*. Distributes one film, "Keep Up With Traffic," which is available only thru district offices.

47. ROYAL INDEMNITY COMPANY, 150 William Street, New York, N. Y.

Issues a monthly lesson in safe driving. These are prepared primarily for use by commercial concerns, but are also suitable for high-school driving courses. Sample copies free upon request. Quantity lots obtainable from Davis, Delaney, and Harris, 141 East 25th Street, New York, N. Y., at \$3.50 per hundred copies. Reduced rates for larger orders.

48. SAFETY ENGINEERING MAGAZINE, 75 Fulton Street, New York, N. Y.

A rather technical publication, which frequently contains articles of interest to high-school driver-training classes. Distributes "The Truck and the Driver," a 16mm. sound film (two reels), which is rented at \$15 a day. Film deals with driver training.

49. TRAVELERS INSURANCE COMPANY, News Bureau, Hartford, Conn.

Does extensive work in the field of highway safety. Issues an annual publication containing charts and statistics dealing with automobile accidents. The current issue is entitled *Death Begins at 40*. Publishes also *Fun with Facts*, containing problems built around aspects of highway safety. Issues *Highway Hazards*, a monthly publication containing safety articles and tests, released during each month of the school term. Materials available free upon request. Also distributes several sound-slide films.

50. UNDERWRITERS LABORATORIES, INC., 207 East Ohio Street, Chicago, Ill.

Sets up standards for various appliances. Issues following lists of inspected articles: *Electrical Appliances*; *Fire Protection Appliances*; *Accident Hazard Appliances*; and *Gas, Oil, and Miscellaneous Appliances*. These lists include the names of the manufacturers of all approved appliances, and are available to school superintendents free upon request.

51. U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, Washington, D. C.

Has prepared many publications dealing with farm fire safety. A complete list of these is available from Division of Publications, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

52. U. S. Department of Agriculture, FOREST SERVICE, Washington, D. C.

Does work in field of forest fire prevention. Issues free posters and pamphlets. Has films and slides dealing with forest fire prevention. These are primarily for the use of the Extension Service but are loaned to schools when copies are available.

53. U. S. Department of Agriculture, BUREAU OF PUBLIC ROADS, Washington, D. C.

The Bureau issues only one publication available in quantity lots for children, *Drive Safely*, a four-page pamphlet. Also available for use by teachers is the booklet, *Guides to Traffic Safety*, which was originally issued by the National Conference on Street and Highway Safety. For advanced students the Bureau has available five booklets containing a uniform vehicle code. Other Bureau publications are designed primarily for highway engineers, and are of too technical a nature for use in the schools, except for a new free bibliography on highway safety.

54. U. S. Department of Commerce, ACCIDENT PREVENTION CONFERENCE, Washington, D. C.

No longer active. Issued three pamphlets, *Accidents and Opportunity*, *How to Stop Home Accidents*, and *How to Stop Farm Accidents*, which are still available free thru the U. S. Department of Commerce or thru the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

55. U. S. Department of Commerce, BUREAU OF AIR COMMERCE, Washington, D. C.

Distributes one five-reel film, "Safety on the Federal Skyways" (16 mm. silent) which deals with the work of the Bureau in preventing air accidents. There is no rental charge for this film.

56. U. S. Department of Commerce, BUREAU OF THE CENSUS, Washington, D. C.

Issues weekly automobile accident bulletin containing statistics on fatalities in specified

large cities. Also issues an annual report on *Fatal Accidents in the United States*, the latest available copy of which is the report for 1935.

57. U. S. Department of Commerce, NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON STREET AND HIGHWAY SAFETY, Washington, D. C.

No longer active. Issued technical bulletins on street markers, uniform traffic codes, and standards for highway vehicles. These publications are now available thru the federal Bureau of Public Roads, 515 14th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

58. U. S. Department of Interior, OFFICE OF EDUCATION, Washington, D. C.

Has issued several publications dealing with safety, all of which are now out of print except *Safety and Health of the School Child*; a *Self-Survey of School Conditions and Activities*, which is sold at 10¢ per copy by the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

59. U. S. Department of Interior, BUREAU OF MINES, Washington, D. C.

Does work in field of first aid and prevention and treatment of carbon monoxide poisoning. Free publications available only for very limited distribution. Other publications must be purchased thru Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C. List of publications dealing with carbon monoxide free on request from Director, Bureau of Mines, Washington, D. C. The Bureau also has a number of safety films, including several dealing with highway safety, as well as those dealing with carbon monoxide. Films available from Bureau of Mines Experiment Station, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.

60. U. S. Department of Interior, NATIONAL PARK SERVICE, Washington, D. C.

Distributes one free publication, *Drive Right*, which contains lists of suggestions for safe driving.

61. U. S. Treasury Department, PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE, Washington, D. C.

Issues publications, such as *What to Do in Case of Accident*, dealing with first aid. Also has statistical studies of child accidents.

62. WESTERN ACTUARIAL BUREAU, Fire Prevention Department, 222 West Adams Street, Chicago, Ill.

Issues home inspection blank intended for general free distribution in central states. Small numbers of this blank will be distributed free of charge in other sections of the country.

63. WESTERN UNION, Local office.

Distributes, for small rental, sound-slide film "Death Takes No Holiday." Also rents visomatic projectors to schools.

B. NON-SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS DISTRIBUTING SAFETY FILMS AND SLIDES

In parts B and C of this list the films distributed by each organization have been classified as to type, size, and charge for use. Also under each organization is indicated what subject its films deal with: street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, or driver training. Under the heading "driver training" are included all films dealing with the construction and care of the automobile. Names of films are not given, except in the case of those produced by Hollywood companies. For complete information on available films, teachers should write individual organizations for catalogs and lists. In writing, be sure to specify whether films desired are 16 or 35 mm., silent or sound. In ordinary circumstances, films should be requested at least two weeks in advance of their showing.

In virtually all instances, the borrower is required to pay transportation charges both ways, although companies distributing films free of charge sometimes pay transportation to the borrower. Users of films are reminded that films sent by express may be returned by express at half rate.

The non-school organizations distributing safety films and slides have been separated into those whose distribution is nationwide, and those whose distribution is purely local.

Key to Abbreviations

16—16mm.	so—sound	f—loaned free
35—35mm.	l—lantern slides	c—service charge
si—silent	sos—sound slides	s—films for sale only
	r—rental charge	

National Sources

1. AETNA LIFE AFFILIATED COMPANIES, Safety Educational Department, 151 Farmington Avenue, Hartford, Conn.
16, 35, so, si, l, f
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, driver training
2. AMERICAN AUTOMOBILE ASSOCIATION, 17th and Pennsylvania Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C., or local club
16, so, si, sos, f
Street and highway safety, driver training
3. AMERICAN LEGION, Local posts
sos, f
Street and highway safety
4. AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY, Central Park West at 79th Street, New York, N. Y.
16, si, f
Street and highway safety, first aid, driver training
5. AUTOMOBILE CLUB OF SOUTHERN CALIFORNIA, Public Safety Department, Los Angeles, Calif.
16, 35, si, s
Street and highway safety
6. BELL AND HOWELL, Film Library Division, 1801-15 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
16, si, r
Bicycle safety
7. BRAY PICTURES CORPORATION, 729 Seventh Street, New York, N. Y.
16, si, r
Driver training
8. CHRYSLER CORPORATION, Plymouth Division, Detroit, Mich.
16, so, f
Street and highway safety
9. COCA-COLA COMPANY, Local office
sos, f
Street and highway safety
10. COLUMBIA PICTURES CORPORATION, Local distributor
35, so, r
Street and highway safety ("The Devil Is Driving," starring Richard Dix)
11. CYCLE TRADES OF AMERICA, Chanin Building, New York, N. Y.
16, so
Bicycle safety
12. WILLIAM M. DENNIS FILM LIBRARIES, 2506½ W. 7th Street, Los Angeles, Calif.
16, so, r
Bicycle safety (one picture)
13. WILLIAM H. DUDLEY VISUAL EDUCATION SERVICE, 736 South Wabash Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
16, si, r
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
14. EASTMAN KODAK COMPANY, Teaching Films Division, Rochester, N. Y.
16, 35, si, s
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, miscellaneous safety films
15. F. C. PICTURES CORPORATION, 505 Pearl Street, Buffalo, N. Y.
16 (sale), 35 (rental), si
First aid, general safety
16. FILM LIBRARY OF NEW ENGLAND, 239 Columbus Avenue, Boston, Mass.
16, so, r
Street and highway safety
17. FILMS, INCORPORATED, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.
16, so, r
Distributes Paramount Picture, "And Sudden Death"

18. FILMS OF COMMERCE, 21 West 46th Street, New York, N. Y.
16, 35, si, f
Distributes "Speaking of Safety," film sponsored by Department of Visual Instruction of the National Education Association
19. FIREMAN'S FUND INDEMNITY COMPANY, 116 John Street, New York, N. Y., 401 California Street, San Francisco, Calif., or local agent
16, 35, si, so, f
Street and highway safety
20. WILLIAM J. GANZ COMPANY, 19 East 47th Street, New York, N. Y.
16, si, so, f
First aid (Red Cross)
21. GENERAL ELECTRIC COMPANY, Visual Instruction Section, Schenectady, N. Y., or offices in Atlanta, Boston, Chicago, Cleveland, Dallas, Philadelphia, Portland, Ore., Salt Lake City
so, f
Street and highway safety
22. GENERAL MOTORS CORPORATION, Detroit, Mich.
16, 35, so, si, f
Street and highway safety, driver training
23. GENERAL TIRE AND RUBBER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio
16, so, si, f
Street and highway safety, driver training
24. GOODYEAR TIRE AND RUBBER COMPANY, Akron, Ohio
16, 35, si
Street and highway safety
25. WALTER O. GUTLOHN, INC., 35 West 45th Street, New York, N. Y.
16, so, r
Street and highway safety
26. HARCOL MOTION PICTURE INDUSTRIES, 600 Baronne Street, New Orleans, La.
16, 35, si, f
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
27. IDEAL PICTURES CORPORATION, 28 East 8th Street, Chicago, Ill.
16, so, r
Street and highway safety, driver training
28. INDUSTRAFILM, INC., 8634 Sunset Boulevard, Hollywood, Calif.
35, so, s
Fire prevention
29. INSTITUTE OF MAKERS OF EXPLOSIVES, Room 13451, Nemours Building, Wilmington, Del.
16, 35, si, f
Dangers of blasting caps
30. INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS OF POLICE and NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY TRAFFIC SAFETY INSTITUTE, 1827 Orrington Ave., Evanston, Ill.
16, so, si, sos, f
Street and highway safety, first aid
31. JOHN HANCOCK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, Boston, Mass.
16, 35, si, f
Street and highway safety
32. KEYSTONE VIEW COMPANY, Meadville, Pa.
l, s
Street and highway safety
33. LEWIS FILM SERVICE, 105 East First Street, Wichita, Kans.
16, so, r
Street and highway safety
34. METRO-GOLDWYN-MAYER, Local distributor
35, so, r
Street and highway safety ("Hit and Run Driver")
35. METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, Welfare Division, New York, N. Y.
16, 35, so, si, sos, f
Street and highway safety
36. NATIONAL CONSERVATION BUREAU, 60 John Street, New York, N. Y.
l, sos, f
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, miscellaneous safety lantern slides
37. NATIONAL COUNCIL, Y. M. C. A., Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y., or 19 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill.
16, 35, si, so, (annual registration fee)
Street and highway safety, driver training
38. NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION *See* Films of Commerce
39. NATIONAL FIRE PROTECTION ASSOCIATION, Visual Education Committee, 222 West Adams Street, Chicago, Ill.
16, 35, si, so, f
Fire prevention
40. NATIONAL MOTION PICTURES COMPANY, Mooresville, Ind.
35, so, r
Street and highway safety
41. NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL, Film Service, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.
16, 35, si, film strips, r
Street and highway safety, first aid
42. PARAMOUNT PICTURES, INC., Local distributor
16, 35, so, r
Street and highway safety ("And Sudden Death")

43. PENNZOIL COMPANY, Oil City, Pa.
16, so, f
Street and highway safety, driver training
44. ROCKWOOD SPRINKLER COMPANY, 38 Harlow Street, Worcester, Mass.
16, so, f
Fire prevention
45. SAFETY ENGINEERING MAGAZINE, 75 Fulton Street, New York, N. Y.
16, so, si, r
Street and highway safety
46. SOCIETY FOR VISUAL EDUCATION, INC., 327 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Ill.
16, si, film strips, r
First aid, miscellaneous subjects in film strips
47. TRAVELERS INSURANCE COMPANY, Hartford, Conn.
sos, f
Street and highway safety, vocational safety
48. ALAN B. TWYMAN, Sound Film Libraries, 29 Central Avenue, Dayton, Ohio
16, si, r
Driver training
49. U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, Division of Motion Pictures, Washington, D. C.
16, 35, so, si, l, f
Fire prevention (films prepared primarily for extension service, loaned to schools when copies are available)
50. U. S. BUREAU OF MINES, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.
16, 35, si, f
Street and highway safety, first aid, driver training
51. WARREN PROJECTION SERVICE, 605 American Building, Dayton, Ohio
16, 35, si, so, f, r
Street and highway safety
52. WELSH STUDIOS, 25th Street and Lehigh Avenue, Philadelphia, Pa.
16, si, so, r
Street and highway safety
53. WESTERN UNION, Local office
sos, r
"Death Takes No Holiday," available with necessary projection equipment.
54. WHOLESOME FILMS SERVICE, 48 Melrose Street, Boston, Mass.
16, si, s
Street and highway safety
- State and Local Sources, Excluding City School Departments of Visual Instruction*

In many instances local organizations do not lend films but will, upon request, furnish an operator and projector for showing them to schools.
55. ELWOOD BANCROFT, 67 South La Vista Boulevard, Battle Creek, Mich.
16, si (write for charges)
Street and highway safety
56. BUFFALO MUSEUM OF SCIENCE, Buffalo, N. Y.
l, f
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, miscellaneous safety slides
57. COLORADO SAFETY COUNCIL, Denver, Colo.
16, 35, so, sos, f (pictures shown by director in connection with safety talks)
Street and highway safety, fire prevention
58. COLUMBUS SAFETY COUNCIL, Columbus, Ohio
16, 35, si, so, f
Street and highway safety
59. CONNECTICUT STATE DEPARTMENT OF MOTOR VEHICLES, Hartford, Conn.
16, so, si (films distributed thru speakers' bureau)
Street and highway safety
60. GREATER SPRINGFIELD SAFETY COUNCIL, Springfield, Mass.
16, so, si, sos, l (showings arranged by council)
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, miscellaneous films and strips
61. ILLINOIS STATE DIVISION OF HIGHWAYS, Springfield, Ill.
16, so, sos (showings put on by division members)
Street and highway safety
62. ILLINOIS STATE DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH, Springfield, Ill.
16, si, f (projector also available)
Street and highway safety
63. IOWA STATE SAFETY COUNCIL, Des Moines, Iowa
16, si, so, sos, f
Street and highway safety
64. KEYSTONE AUTOMOBILE CLUB, Broad and Vine Streets, Philadelphia, Pa.
16, so, si, f
Street and highway safety
65. H. M. KUCKUK, Rufus King High School, Milwaukee, Wis.
16, si, f

66. NEW JERSEY STATE DEPARTMENT OF CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT, State House Annex, Trenton, N. J.
16, 35, si, l, f
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
 67. NEW JERSEY STATE COMMISSIONER OF MOTOR VEHICLES, Division of Safety Education, Trenton, N. J.
16, 35, so, f
Street and highway safety
 68. NEW JERSEY STATE MUSEUM, Trenton, N. J.
16, 35, si, l, f
Street and highway safety, first aid, fire prevention, driver training
 69. NORTH CAROLINA STATE DEPARTMENT OF REVENUE, Raleigh, N. C.
16, so, si, f
Street and highway safety
 70. OHIO STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Division of Visual Instruction, Columbus, Ohio
16, si, l, f
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training
 71. PENNSYLVANIA GOVERNOR'S HIGHWAY SAFETY COUNCIL, Room 355, State Capitol, Harrisburg, Pa.
so, si (films exhibited to schools by traveling unit)
Street and highway safety
 72. PITTSBURGH BETTER TRAFFIC COMMITTEE, 908 City-County Building, Pittsburgh, Pa.
16, si, so (projected by committee representatives)
 73. SOUTH CAROLINA STATE HIGHWAY DEPARTMENT, Columbia, S. C.
16, so, si, sos, l, f
Street and highway safety, first aid
 74. TOLEDO SAFETY COUNCIL, Toledo, Ohio
16, so, si (films exhibited to schools by Council representative)
Street and highway safety, first aid
 75. U. S. BUREAU OF MINES, Northwest Experiment Station, Seattle, Wash.
16, 35, si, f
Street and highway safety, first aid, driver training
 76. VIRGINIA STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, Richmond, Va.
l, f
Street and highway safety, play safety
 77. WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA SAFETY COUNCIL, 704 Empire Building, Pittsburgh, Pa.
16, so, si, l, f
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
 78. WISCONSIN STATE CONSERVATION DEPARTMENT, Madison, Wis.
16, si, f
Forest fire prevention
- C. UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENTS OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION DISTRIBUTING SAFETY FILMS AND SLIDES
- The following colleges and universities have departments of visual instruction which distribute films dealing with safety. Terms of distribution vary with the university, but in most cases films may be obtained for transportation costs, plus a small service charge or an annual registration fee. Catalogs containing complete information as to charges and film lists are available from all agencies listed.
1. UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA, Extension Division, Tucson, Ariz.
16, si, r
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
Distributes to adjoining states.
 2. BOSTON UNIVERSITY, School of Education, Boston, Mass.
16, si
Fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distributes to New England.
 3. BRIGHAM YOUNG UNIVERSITY, Extension Division, Provo, Utah
16, so, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
Distributes to Utah, Idaho, and parts of Nevada and Wyoming.
 4. BUCKNELL UNIVERSITY, Lewisburg, Pa.
16, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
Distribution limited to Pennsylvania.
 5. UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, Extension Division, Berkeley, Calif.
16, so, si
Fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distributes to California, Oregon, Washington, Utah, Nevada, New Mexico, and Arizona.
 6. UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO, Extension Division, Boulder, Colo.
16, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distributes to out-of-state schools.

7. UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA, General Extension Division, Gainesville, Fla.
16, si, l
Street and highway safety, fire prevention
Distribution limited to Florida.
8. UNIVERSITY SYSTEM OF GEORGIA, Division of General extension, 223 Walton St., Atlanta, Ga.
16, si, so
Street and highway safety, fire prevention
Distributes to states in South and Southeast.
9. UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS, Division of University Extension, Urbana, Ill.
16, so, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distributes to Illinois, Michigan, Mississippi, Tennessee.
10. INDIANA UNIVERSITY, Extension Division, Bloomington, Ind.
16, so, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distributes to out-of-state schools.
11. IOWA STATE COLLEGE, Ames, Iowa
16, 35, so, si, l
Street and highway safety, driver training
Distributes to out-of-state schools.
12. UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, Extension Division, Iowa City, Iowa
16, si
Street and highway safety, driver training
Distributes to middle-western states.
13. UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS, Extension Division, Lawrence, Kans.
16, so, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distributes to out-of-state schools.
14. UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY, Department of University Extension, Lexington, Ky.
16, si
Street and highway safety, forest fire prevention, driver training
Distributes to Kentucky, Tennessee, Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina.
15. LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY, General Extension Division, University, La.
16, si, so
Street and highway safety, fire prevention
Distribution limited to Louisiana.
16. MASSACHUSETTS STATE DIVISION OF UNIVERSITY EXTENSION, State House, Boston, Mass.
16, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distribution limited to Massachusetts.
17. UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, Extension Service, Ann Arbor, Mich.
16, si
Street and highway safety, forest fire prevention, first aid
Distributes to schools in adjoining states.
18. MILLERSVILLE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGE, Millersville, Pa.
16, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distribution limited to Pennsylvania. Films distributed on membership basis only.
19. UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA, General Extension Division, Minneapolis, Minn.
16, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
Distributes to adjoining states.
20. UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, Extension Division, Columbia, Mo.
16, 35, si
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid
Distributes to adjoining states.
21. UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, Extension Division, Chapel Hill, N. C.
16, si, so
Street and highway safety, first aid
Distribution limited to North Carolina.
22. UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA, Extension Division, Norman, Okla.
16, so, si, l
Street and highway safety, forest fire prevention, first aid, driver training
Distributes to Oklahoma and Arkansas.
23. OREGON STATE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, Corvallis, Ore.
16, 35, si, so
Street and highway safety, fire prevention, driver training
Distribution limited to Oregon.
24. PURDUE UNIVERSITY, News Bureau, Lafayette, Ind.
16, si
Street and highway safety
Distribution limited to Indiana.
25. UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA, Extension Division, Vermillion, S. Dak.
16, 35, si
Fire prevention
Distributes to adjoining states.
26. COOPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL FILM LIBRARY, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N. Y.
16, si, so
Street and highway safety, fire prevention
Distribution limited to New York.

27. UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS, Division of Extension, Austin, Texas

16, 35, so, si

Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid

Distributes to adjoining states not having visual instruction service.

28. UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, University Extension Division, Madison, Wis.

16, si, so

Street and highway safety, fire prevention, first aid, driver training

Distributes to adjoining states.

D. STATE DEPARTMENTS OF INSTRUCTION OFFERING COURSES OF STUDY IN SAFETY EDUCATION

This list of available safety courses has been prepared primarily for committees engaged in preparing courses of study. All publications listed have been issued by state boards of education. Courses have been classified under the following three sections: General Safety, Highway and Traffic Safety, and Fire Prevention.

General Safety, including courses in health and safety

1. ALABAMA. *A Course of Study in Safety Education for All Grades*. Bulletin, 1932, No. 15. Montgomery, 1932. 192 p.
2. ARIZONA. *Course of Study for Elementary Schools*. Bulletin No. 9, Health Education, Physical Education, 1935. Phoenix, 1935. 212 p.
3. IOWA. *Safety Education*. Des Moines, 1932. 125 p.
4. KANSAS. *Course of Study in Safety Education for Elementary Schools and Junior High Schools*. Topeka, 1937. 65 p.
5. KENTUCKY. *Safety Education*. Educational Bulletin, August 1937. Frankfort, 1937. 61 p.
6. LOUISIANA. *Course of Study in Safety Education*, August 1936. Baton Rouge, 1936. 79 p.
7. MAINE. *Suggested Outline for a Course of Study in Safety*. Augusta, 1936. 9 p. (Mimeo.)
8. MASSACHUSETTS. *A Course of Study in Safety Education for the Elementary and Junior High School Grades*. Boston, 1931. 66 p.
9. MICHIGAN. *Education for Safety*. Bulletin No. 303. Lansing, 1936. 84 p.
10. NEW HAMPSHIRE. *Report of Council Committee on Safety Education*. Concord, 1938. 80 p.
11. NEW JERSEY. *Standards in Health and Safety Education*. Trenton, 1932. 36 p.
12. NEW YORK. *Safety Education, a Section of Part III of a Guide to the Teaching of Health in the Elementary School*. Albany: University of the State of New York, 1937. 72 p.

13. NORTH CAROLINA. *Health and Citizenship Education: A Suggested Procedure for Teaching Safety and First Aid*. Publication No. 174. Raleigh, 1933. 63 p.

14. OHIO. *Safety Bulletin for Elementary Schools*, Columbus, 1937. 37 p.

15. PENNSYLVANIA. *Course of Study in Health Instruction and Physical Education*. Bulletins 12A, 12B, 12C. Harrisburg, 1934.

16. PENNSYLVANIA. *Safety Education in the Public Schools*. Harrisburg, 1935. 46 p.

17. RHODE ISLAND. *A Course of Instruction in Safety Education*. Providence, 1938. 150 p.

18. SOUTH DAKOTA. *Handbook and Guide to the South Dakota Elementary Course of Study*. Pierre, 1938. 112 p.

19. TENNESSEE. *Safety Education*. Nashville, 1933. 79 p.

20. UTAH. *Safety Education in the Elementary Schools*. Bulletin, 1935, No. E-18. Salt Lake City, 1935.

21. VIRGINIA. *Safety Education*. Richmond, 1936. 76 p.

22. WEST VIRGINIA. *A Teacher's Manual in Safety Education*. Charleston, September 1936. 152 p.

23. WYOMING. *Course of Study for Elementary Schools: Health Education, Including Safety*. Bulletin No. 16—Series CS. Cheyenne, 1937. 316 p.

Highway and Traffic Safety

1. ARIZONA. *Suggested Course of Study for a Class in Automobile Driving*. Phoenix. 7 p. (Mimeo.)
2. ARKANSAS. *Suggested Units on Sportsmanlike Driving*. Little Rock, January 1938. 134 p. (Mimeo.)
3. CALIFORNIA. *Manual of Traffic Safety for California Secondary Schools*. Bulletin No. 8. Sacramento, November 1936. 83 p.
4. COLORADO. *Course of Study in Traffic for Junior and Senior High Schools*. Denver, 1936. 63 p.
5. COLORADO. *Teacher's Lesson Plans for Use with Sportsmanlike Driving Series*. Denver, 1938. 131 p. (Mimeo.)
6. CONNECTICUT. *Intelligent Driving*. Hartford, 1936. 32 p.
7. DELAWARE. *An Outline of a Syllabus for the Training of Young Automobile Drivers*. Dover, 1936. 11 p. (Mimeo.)
8. ILLINOIS. *Traffic Safety in Secondary Schools*. Springfield, 1938. (Mimeographed but available in printed form by end of year.)
9. IOWA. *Car Owner's and Driver's Course*, Circular No. 633; *Plans for Teaching Highway Safety Education*, Circular No. 740. Des Moines. 10 p. (Mimeo.)
10. IOWA. *Instructional Units on Efficiency of Movement in Traffic and Automobile Operation*. Des Moines, 1938. 118 p.
11. LOUISIANA. *Suggested Lesson Plans for the Sportsmanlike Driving Series*. Bulletin No. 366. Baton Rouge, 1938. 132 p.

12. MASSACHUSETTS. *A Course of Study in Highway Safety Education for Junior and Senior High Schools*. Bulletin No. 10. Boston, 1935. 37 p.
13. MINNESOTA. *Traffic Safety Manual—for Use in Junior and Senior High Schools*. St. Paul, 1934. 46 p.
14. MONTANA. *A Traffic Safety Program for Montana High Schools*. Helena, 1936. 8 p.
15. NEW HAMPSHIRE. *An Elective Non-Unit Course in Automobile Driving in Secondary Schools*. Concord, 1936. 17 p.
16. NEW JERSEY. *Highway Safety*. Trenton, 1937. 110 p.
17. OHIO. *Highway Safety; a Manual for Secondary Schools*. Columbus, 1937. 81 p.
18. OKLAHOMA. *Tentative Instructional Units in Street and Traffic Education for Junior High Schools*. Oklahoma City, 1937. 40 p. (Mimeo.)
19. OREGON. *Traffic Safety Institute*. Salem, 1937. 8 p. (Mimeo.)
20. PENNSYLVANIA. *Course of Study in Highway Safety*. Bulletin No. 108. Harrisburg, 1935. 16 p.
21. RHODE ISLAND. *Traffic Efficiency and Automobile Operation for Rhode Island High Schools*. Providence, 1938. (Mimeo.)
22. TEXAS. *Traffic Safety; a Manual for Public School Teachers*. Bulletin No. 374, October 1937. Austin, 1937. 35 p.
23. VERMONT. *Course of Study in Highway Safety*. Montpelier, 1937. 56 p.
24. WISCONSIN. *Suggested Units on Sportsmanlike Driving*. Madison, 1938. 100 p. (Mimeo.)

Fire Prevention

1. NEBRASKA. *Fire Prevention Manual*. Lincoln, 1932. 92 p.
2. PENNSYLVANIA. *Protection Against Fire*. Harrisburg, 49 p.
3. RHODE ISLAND. *A Course of Study in Fire Prevention*, Providence, 1921. 30 p.
4. TEXAS. *Fire Prevention Handbook for Texas Public Schools*. Austin, 1935. 46 p.

FIGURE VII



Courtesy, Automobile Insurance Company
of Hartford, Connecticut



Courtesy, Aetna Casualty and Surety
Company

VII. Reviews of Safety Films and Slides

Persons intending to borrow films included in this list are advised to write to the distributor at least two weeks in advance of showing. Borrowers should make clear whether they wish 16 or 35 mm. films, silent or sound. An alternate date for showing should be included in case the film is already booked for the first date requested. Films listed as free are usually distributed on the condition that borrowers pay transportation charges both ways. Films sent by express may be returned via express at half rate. For a complete list of state and local distributors of safety films and slides, including university departments of visual instruction, see Part VI.

Films and slides are classified as follows:

Motion Pictures, Silent and Sound

- A. Street and highway safety
- B. Fire prevention
- C. Forest fire prevention
- D. First aid
- E. Driver training (background material)
- F. Miscellaneous

Sound-Slide Films
Film Strips, Silent
Lantern Slides

MOTION PICTURES

A. Street and Highway Safety

1. *America's Safest City for School Children*

Distributor: Warren's Projection Service, 605 American Building, Dayton, Ohio
16mm. sound and silent (2 reels); rental: \$2 per day
Level: Elementary and junior high

An account of what has been done to make Evanston, Illinois, safe for children. Opens with an illustration of incorrect pedestrian habits. The correct habits are then demonstrated. The picture is repetitious and tends to drag. Its length makes it unsuitable for auditorium showing, but it could be divided into several parts and shown in classrooms. No advertising.

2. *And Sudden Death*

Distributor: Films, Incorporated, 330 West 42nd Street, New York, N. Y.
16mm. sound (6 reels); rental: \$17.50 per day, with two short subjects on same reel
Level: Senior high and above

A Paramount feature production, starring Randolph Scott, Frances Drake, and Tom

Brown. Scott is a traffic policeman who establishes a school for delinquent drivers. Frances Drake, a spoiled rich girl, is sent to this school after four speeding offenses. Romance between the two results. Tom Brown, brother of the girl, drives while drunk and hits a school bus, killing a child. Emphasis is laid on the dangers of drunken driving and speeding. Its entertainment values overshadow its suitability for instructional purposes. There is one scene laid in the city morgue. The picture contains no advertising.

3. *Bicycling with Complete Safety*

Distributor: Cycle Trades of America, Chanin Building, New York, N. Y.
16mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Elementary grades thru senior high

Laid in Kansas City. This film presents an account of what the Kansas City police have done to prevent accidents. A boy on a bike is shown involved in an accident. Afterwards the way in which he could have avoided the mishap is illustrated. Police are shown inspecting bicycles, demonstrating the correct ways to ride, and cautioning those who are breaking the law. An adequate presentation of the danger involved in bicycling, with only a small amount of negative instruction.

4. *The Chance To Lose*

Distributor: Chrysler Corporation, Plymouth Division, Detroit, Mich.
16 and 35mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

Awarded prize as best safety film of 1937. Various chances taken by drivers are illustrated and compared to different types of gambling. Factory scenes of safety features built into the modern car conclude the picture. This film teaches its lesson with humor and should be valuable in both junior and senior high school. Advertising is confined to one brief shot of the Plymouth radiator insignia.

5. *The Devil Is Driving*

Distributor: Columbia Pictures Corporation, local representative
35mm. sound (7 reels); rates: See local agent of Columbia Pictures
Level: Senior high and above

A full-length feature picture starring Richard Dix and Joan Perry. The plot revolves around the use of perjured witnesses in the trial of a reckless driver. A campaign by the district attorney to end highway accidents is shown in detail. The picture has a strong emotional appeal and lays heavy emphasis upon the results of drunken driving. While the picture is rather long, its value in teaching community safety is excellent. Ticket-fixing is especially scored. The love interest is kept to a minimum.

6. *Everybody's Business*

Distributor: American Automobile Association, Washington, D. C.

16 and 35mm. sound (1 reel); free

Level: Junior high and above

Produced for Plymouth Division, Chrysler Motor Car Company. Shows scene of collision caused by faulty brakes. Two cars drive across town, one obeying all laws, the other taking all sorts of chances. The latter car covers the twelve-mile course only three minutes faster than the first car. The picture lays emphasis upon the responsibility of every driver and pedestrian in reducing the accident rate. Advertising confined to very brief shots of hubcap and radiator insignia.

7. *Follow the White Traffic Marker*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free

Level: Junior high and above

This picture was produced with the cooperation of the Atlas Cement Company, and consequently is more concerned with publicizing the use of cement as a traffic marker than it is with safety. The picture opens with several views of open highways and street intersections and shows how the use of permanent white lines makes them safe. It gives an account of the making of cement, and concludes with a review of the various uses of the white line in promoting traffic safety.

8. *Gambling with Death*

Distributor: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.

35mm. silent (1 reel); rental: \$2.50 daily

Level: Senior high and above

A railroad safety picture dealing primarily with grade crossing accidents. A series of collisions between trains and automobiles is shown. There are brief cartoon interludes interspersed thruout the picture. This film might be of interest to driver training courses, altho the old cars and the too obviously staged collisions negate much of its teaching value. No advertising.

9. *Goofs*

Distributor: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.

35mm. silent (1 reel); rental: \$2.50 daily. 16mm. prints sold by the Automobile Club of Southern California, Los Angeles

Level: Junior high and above

Produced for the Automobile Club of Southern California. Opens with a breakfast table scene, at which a father reads an account of the day's accident toll. One bad driving practice after another is shown and the blame fastened upon the children. Incorrect pedestrian habits are also demonstrated. Teaching is virtually all negative. Antedated cars serve to make the picture seem humorous. Frequent mention is made of the name of the Automobile Club of Southern California.

10. *Heedless Hurry—Endless Worry*

Distributor: American Automobile Association, Washington, D. C.

16mm. sound (1 reel); free

Level: Elementary and above

Emphasis is laid on pedestrian habits. Shows children playing in streets and adults misjudging speed of approaching cars, forgetting to look both ways, and stepping between parked cars. The danger of quiet, suburban streets is illustrated. The difficulties inherent in night driving are shown. This is one of the few safety films suitable for elementary showing, altho there are a number of crash scenes in the picture. Advertising is limited to mention of name of the AAA at beginning and end.

11. *Highway Mania*

Distributor: Walter Gutlohn, Inc., 35 West 45th Street, New York, N. Y.

16mm. sound (2 reels); rental: \$4 per day

Level: Senior high and above

Prepared for New Jersey State Highway Commission. Opens with interview of New Jersey officials by Lowell Thomas. The second reel is devoted to scenes of causes of automobile accidents. There is an interesting view of pedestrian traffic at Newark's main intersection, with and without police control. Correct methods of signaling for turns are demonstrated. The picture opens and closes with shots of a maniac driver. Thruout the film there are newsreel pictures of dare-devil stunts, floods, fires, storms, etc. The first reel is devoted almost entirely to talks by the Governor of New Jersey and state highway officials. The large amount of dialog tends to weaken the picture's effectiveness.

12. *Hit and Run Driver*

Distributor: Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer, local representative

35mm. sound (2 reels); rental: \$5 per day

Level: Senior high and above

One of the M-G-M "Crime Never Pays" series. The work of the police in apprehending a hit-and-run driver is shown in detail. The driver, a young college student, is finally caught, forced to confess, and sentenced to twenty years in jail. Emphasis is laid on the dangers of drunken driving, and particularly on the criminal aspects of hit-and-run driving. The picture has a strong emotional appeal and is very dramatically presented. There is a scene of the bloody crash victim appealing to the driver for help. There is no advertising.

13. *Horse Sense in Horse Power*

Distributor: American Automobile Association, Washington, D. C.

16 and 35mm. sound (1 reel); free

Level: Junior high and above

Produced for Plymouth Division, Chrysler Motor Car Company. Opens with amusing scenes of driving in early days of the horseless

carriage. An accident caused by the thoughtlessness of two drivers is shown. There are a number of scenes of incorrect driver practices, including one in which a man with the head of a pig is shown hogging the road. These are followed by shots of the testing of modern cars. Automobiles are driven over logs, are skidded, and turned over to show the safety in construction. A heavy emphasis is laid on the responsibility of the individual driver. The narration in this film is exceptionally good, and the lessons taught vivid and emphatic. This picture would be useful in driver training courses.

14. *Keep Up With Traffic*

Distributor: Portland Cement Association, district offices
16mm. sound (2 reels); free
Level: Senior high and above

The main thesis of this picture is that crowded highways are unsafe and that the way to make highways safe is to construct more and better roads. The making and use of concrete is depicted. Also shown are the various ways in which engineering has made highways safe: divided highways, underpasses, pedestrian sidewalks, and safe intersections and grade crossings. A large number of scenes taken from many parts of the country add to the picture's appeal. Its suitability, however, is restricted to high-school traffic clubs and adult civic organizations.

15. *Knights of the Highway*

Distributor: Chevrolet Motor Car Company, Detroit, Mich.
16 mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Senior high and above

Driver instruction given by showing safe driving habits of interstate truck drivers. The picture opens with a summary of the night driving problem by Highway Commissioner Van Wagoner of Michigan. The six main principles of night driving are illustrated by the truck drivers. The instruction is all positive. Advertising is limited to mention of the company's name at the beginning of the film.

16. *Learn to Live*

Distributor: Aetna Life Insurance Companies, Safety Education Department, Hartford, Conn.
16 and 35mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Senior high and above

A brief series of seven units illustrating various correct motorist and pedestrian practices. The following demonstrations are included: how to park a car, how to turn at an intersection, how to avoid skidding, how to pass a car, how to cross the street, when to cross the street, and how to walk on the highway. In each of these the wrong procedure is shown and then corrected. These films are available individually or as a complete set.

17. *Man on Horseback*

Distributor: Chevrolet Motor Car Company, Detroit, Mich.
16mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Elementary grades and above

The story of the mounted traffic policeman. The picture opens with scenes of Paul Revere. The selection and training of police horses are then shown. Then the horses are shown in action on the street correcting various unsafe pedestrian habits. Five safety rules for pedestrians conclude the picture. Advertising is limited to mention of the producer's name at the beginning.

18. *Once Upon a Time*

Distributor: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York, N. Y.
16 and 35mm. silent and sound, 35mm. sound technicolor (1 reel); free, including transportation both ways
Level: Elementary and junior high school

Animated cartoon picture, with a fairy-tale setting, showing what happens when Carelessness and Discourtesy motivate motorists. Familiar characters, such as the Mad Hatter, Simple Simon, Jack the Giant Killer, and Cinderella and her Prince, are shown in various safety situations. The picture attempts to show that accidents cannot be prevented until Carelessness and Discourtesy are replaced by Carefulness and Courtesy. The novelty of the manner of presentation tends to distract attention from the safety lessons taught. Advertising is restricted to mention of the company's name at the beginning and end of the picture. Supplementary teaching material and song sheets for teachers and pupils are distributed free.

19. *Over Here*

Producer: Goodrich Tire and Rubber Company; available from Y. M. C. A. Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York; and 19 South LaSalle Street, Chicago. Also from various state and local film depositories
16mm. sound (1 reel)
Level: Senior high and above

An appeal for safety by Eddie Rickenbacker. Opens with pictures of various gruesome war scenes and a description by Rickenbacker of the horrors of war. This is followed by a comment on the number of deaths resulting from highway accidents. Members of the American Legion and others are asked to cooperate in reducing the accident rate. Concludes with an account of what Goodrich dealers are doing to prevent accidents. Emphasis is laid on the Goodrich Silvertown Safety League.

20. *Pedal Your Way to Pleasant Places*

Producer: Lynn (Massachusetts) Public Schools
16mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

An amateur bicycle safety film, opening with scenes of incorrect handling of bicycles. The

city police start a safety campaign to end bicycle accidents. They take one careless rider to the station, show him a pile of bikes damaged in accidents, and then instruct him in the rules of safe driving. Bicycle registration and inspection by the police are shown. The picture concludes with color scenes of members of a bicycle club riding off to a picnic.

21. *Pedestrian Habits*

Producer: Elwood Bancroft, 67 South LaVista Boulevard, Battle Creek, Mich.
16mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: All school levels

Positive instruction in the building of correct safety habits. Shows how to cross the street, where to play, how to enter and leave automobiles, how to walk in icy weather, etc. This is an amateur production and is a trifle lengthy and repetitious. However, it states its points clearly and drives them home.

22. *The Penalty of Indifference*

Distributor: National Motion Pictures Company, Mooresville, Ind.
35mm. silent (2 reels); rental rates on application
Level: Junior high and above

The story of the change in attitude of Mr. Brown, who is arrested for speeding in the morning and whose young daughter is killed by a speeder in the afternoon. Emphasis is laid on the importance of obeying the Golden Rule. The picture is rather old (1929) and contains much extraneous material, such as a complete account of the working of a modern newspaper. There is no advertising.

23. *Readin', 'Ritin', and 'Rithmetic*

Distributor: American Museum of Natural History, New York, N. Y.
16mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Elementary and junior high schools

Prepared for the American Transit Association, this film deals with safety while riding buses and street cars. Correct methods of boarding and leaving street cars and of crossing streets are shown. The picture concludes with a summary of safety rules given by a classroom of elementary students. This film is particularly suited for elementary classes in an urban area.

24. *Remember Jimmy*

Distributor: Fireman's Fund Indemnity Company, 401 California Street, San Francisco; 116 John Street, New York; or thru local agent
16mm. silent; 35mm. silent and sound (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

Highway safety picture, placing emphasis on the results of automobile accidents. A family is shown taking a trip. They are forced into an

accident by a careless driver. The injured are taken to a hospital, where, too late, the other driver realizes the tragic consequences of speeding. Several months later the family is shown in reduced circumstances. With his father confined to a wheel-chair, the boy Jimmy, minus a leg, is shown selling newspapers on the street corner. He reads the headlines telling of his football heroes, and then is shown standing wistfully on the sidelines while his comrades play football. This picture makes its appeal thru sympathy and the emotions and presents its lesson rather forcefully. The sound version has the song "I Love Life" in the background. There is a brief bit of advertising at the end of the picture.

25. *Safety's Champion*

Producer: Firestone Tire and Rubber Company; available thru Y. M. C. A. Motion Picture Bureau, 347 Madison Avenue, New York, and 19 South LaSalle Street, Chicago
16 and 35mm. sound (3 reels)
Level: Junior High and above

A slight plot is used to show how Ab Jenkins, famous racing driver, drives slowly and safely on the highway. Most of the picture, however, is devoted to Jenkins' record-breaking runs on the salt flats of Utah. The cooperation necessary for Jenkins to drive 7000 miles in forty-eight hours is explained in detail. There are also several scenes showing Jenkins driving safely on the open highway and on city streets. Frequent mention of Firestone Tires is made.

26. *Safety Driving*

Distributor: Mogull Brothers, Inc., 1944 Boston Road, New York, N. Y.
16mm. sound (1 reel); rental: \$1 per day
Level: Senior high and above

A non-advertising version of *Horse Sense in Horse Power* (q. v.).

27. *Safety Patrol*

Distributor: Warren's Projection Service, 605 American Building, Dayton, Ohio
16 or 35mm. sound (1 reel); rental: \$2 per day. (A version of this picture containing advertising for the Chevrolet Motor Company is available free from the above.) The film *We Drivers* is sent free to borrowers of *Safety Patrol*
Level: Elementary and above

Opens with pictures of safety patrol at work at school. After all of the children have left, Pete, a ten-year-old patrolman, and a police sergeant walk along discussing their work. The boy mentions the fact that, while the children obey the rules, adult pedestrians are very careless. There are numerous scenes giving positive instruction in correct walking. This picture gives a novel handling of the problem of pedestrian safety and teaches its lesson effectively. There is no advertising.

28. *Safety at Sixty*

Distributor: Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company, Akron, Ohio
16mm. silent and sound (1 reel); free
Level: Senior high and above

Opens with an examination of the safety features built into the modern car. The importance and operation of four-wheel brakes, shatter-proof glass, and steel bodies is demonstrated. Particular emphasis is laid on the fact that no tire is blow-out proof. The last two-thirds of the picture is devoted to a detailed discussion of the features of Goodyear Life Guard Inner Tubes. This is primarily an advertising picture.

29. *Saving Seconds*

Distributor: Aetna Life Insurance Companies, Safety Education Department, Hartford, Conn.
16mm. silent and sound; 35mm. silent and sound (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

An attempt to teach better driving by showing the results of bad driving practices. A father goes driving with his son and shows the boy what will happen when a driver becomes careless or overconfident. There are many accidents, often staged artificially, and the cars involved are so antiquated as to cause a humorous reaction to the situations. Advertising is restricted to mention of sponsor's name at beginning and end.

30. *Speaking of Safety*

Producer: National Education Association and Highway Education Board
16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); distributed free by Films of Commerce, 21 West 46th Street, New York, N. Y.
Level: Elementary

Safety lessons taught thru use of cartooned faces superimposed upon automobiles. Picture shows children crossing in middle of street, hitching rides, riding bicycles recklessly, playing in streets, etc., and then has the automobiles speak to them and correct their errors. There is some emphasis placed on incorrect habits, but the picture's novelty helps make it particularly valuable for elementary-school use. Supplementary material for teachers is distributed with this picture.

31. *Spinning Spokes*

Distributor: H. M. Kuckuk, Rufus King High School, Milwaukee, Wis.
16mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high

Jack, a high-school boy, rides his bicycle carelessly and has it smashed in an accident. His father refuses to buy him a new one until he learns to ride more safely. Jack enters a safety contest and begins to take a new interest in accident prevention. He sees other cyclists riding on the wrong side of the street, weaving in and

out of traffic, refusing to slow down at intersections, and performing other bad bicycle practices. He also sees the correct procedure illustrated in each instance by one or two riders. Jack then draws up a set of bicycle rules which win the prize. The picture closes with an exhibition of trick bicycle riding and races.

32. *Street Safety for Advanced Grades*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.
16mm. silent (1 reel); sold at \$24 per reel. Available on rental basis from various local depositories
Level: Junior and senior high school. Also of value in elementary schools

This picture gives positive instruction, showing correct safety habits. Among these are the right ways in which to cross the street and to alight from street cars, the right places in which to play, and the correct manner in which to walk on roads which have no sidewalks. There is a review of all correct practices at the end of the picture, which is particularly adapted for classroom instruction.

33. *Street Safety for Primary Grades*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.
16mm. silent (1 reel); sold at \$12 per reel by Eastman Kodak Company. Available on rental basis from various local depositories
Level: Elementary

Demonstration of various correct pedestrian habits for younger children. Shows particularly where to cross the street, how to obey street lights and signs, and where to play. In some scenes a dog illustrates the correct habits to the younger children. The positive approach is used thruout.

34. *The Truck and the Driver* (long version)

Distributor: Safety Engineering, 75 Fulton Street, New York, N. Y.
16mm. sound and silent (2 reels); rented at \$15 per day
Level: High school and above

Prepared especially for professional truck drivers. First reel shows correct city driving practices, such as driving on one-way streets, approaching intersections, parking, making turns, and others. The second reel depicts correct driving practices in the country, such as those involved in passing cars, taking curves, and following cars. The results of incorrect habits are shown. The picture could be shown to advantage in driver training courses.

35. *The Truck and the Driver* (short version)

Distributor: Aetna Life Insurance Company, Hartford, Conn.
16mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Senior high and above

An abbreviated version of the longer film distributed by *Safety Engineering* magazine. Deals

with truck safety in town and on the highway. Concludes with a short subject entitled *How To Park Your Car*, which gives a brief illustration of the right and wrong methods of parking.

36. *The Verdict*

Distributor: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.

16 and 35mm. silent (2 reels); \$5 for one night showing

Level: Junior and senior high school

An attempt to present a safety lesson thru a professionally planned and acted story. A traffic court judge is shown at home, warning his son to drive more carefully. He is then shown in court sentencing various persons, whose offenses are illustrated in the picture. Meanwhile, his son has borrowed the judge's car and has gone on a party with three friends. Starting home later than he had expected, he tries to make up for lost time. He is stopped by a speed cop but let off with a warning. When he arrives near home, he becomes particularly reckless. When he passes a street car on the wrong side, he runs down and kills his father, who has gone out to look for him. The verdict: The son is sentenced to a lifetime of remorse. Virtually all of the driver practices illustrated in this picture are incorrect. The automobiles and the women's clothes are out of date.

37. *We Drivers*

Distributor: General Motors Corporation, Detroit, Mich.

16 mm. silent and sound, 35mm. sound (1 reel); free

Level: Senior high and adult

This picture offers positive instruction in correct driving procedures. Thruout the picture Reckless Rudolph and Sensible Sam, cartoon figures, offer conflicting advice to the driver of a car. The better advice is always taken. There are scenes showing the effect of Old Man Momentum on cars rounding curves or going down hill. Correct driving practices in passing cars, crossing intersections, driving on wet or icy roads, driving at night, and driving when tired are illustrated. There is also a graphic portrayal of the importance of obeying various road markers. There are no crashes or gruesome scenes in the picture. Advertising is restricted to mention of sponsor's name at beginning and end.

38. *Why Be Careless?*

Distributor: John Hancock Life Insurance Company, Boston, Mass.

16mm. silent (1 reel); free

Level: Senior high and above

This picture shows the results of careless driving. It gives accidents resulting from inattention, cutting corners, passing on hills and curves, driving too fast on slippery roads, and not giving careful attention to children in the streets. Its instruction is practically all nega-

tive. The picture was produced about ten years ago. Consequently, its accident statistics are incorrect, and the old model cars tend to invoke a humorous response from the audience. The distributor plans to withdraw this film from circulation within the next year.

39. *Why Be a Goose?*

Distributor: Automobile Club of Southern California, Los Angeles, Calif.

35mm. silent (1 reel); 16 and 35mm. prints sold by producer. Rental copies from National Safety Council, Chicago, Ill.

Level: Elementary and junior high schools

The picture opens with a flock of geese running in front of an automobile. Following this is a series of scenes showing children taking various chances. The careless children are compared with the geese. There is a particularly good scene warning against hitch-hiking. The simple set of safety rules presented by this picture makes it especially suitable for elementary-school children. The name of the Automobile Club of Southern California appears frequently in the picture.

40. *Wisconsin Schoolboy Patrols*

Distributor: Wisconsin State Highway Commission, Madison, Wis.

16mm. silent (1 reel); free

Level: Elementary and junior high

Shows in some detail the various activities of the schoolboy patrol. Members are pictured directing pedestrian traffic at street intersections and railroad crossings, regulating pupils in entering and leaving school buses, and escorting younger pupils to and from school. The picture is too long and there is much repetition of similar scenes. The use of specific town and school names gives this picture an interest to Wisconsin students that it would not have elsewhere.

B. Fire Prevention

41. *Approved by the Underwriters*

Distributor: Underwriters Laboratories, 307 East Ohio Street, Chicago, Ill.

16mm. sound (3 reels); free

Level: Senior high and above

A technical picture, depicting the work carried on in the Underwriters Laboratories. Various testing procedures are shown. Objects examined range from electric plugs to safes. The appeal of this film is limited to high-school science classes or to adult civic groups.

42. *The Bad Master*

Distributor: The Aetna Life Insurance Companies, Safety Education Department, Hartford, Conn.

16 and 35mm. silent and sound (1 reel); free

Level: Junior high and above

Deals with causes and effects of various types of fires occurring in the home. Different mem-

bers of the family are shown leaving a hot iron, overloading a set of wires, smoking in bed, placing hot ashes in a wooden box, etc. The large number of these incidents tends to weaken the total effect of the picture, which is, on the whole, good. This film will be of interest to adults as well as to older children. Most of the instruction involved is negative. Advertising limited to mention of sponsor's name at beginning and end.

43. *The Danger That Never Sleeps*

Distributor: Department of Visual Instruction,
Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa
35mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Elementary and above

A fire prevention film prepared by the National Board of Fire Underwriters. Columbia, carrying the sword of Carefulness, drives away the figure of Carelessness, with the aid of two small children. The children are shown various fire hazards around the house and are asked to assist Carefulness in cleaning them up. This picture is old, with antedated costumes; but its positive instruction is valuable, particularly for the elementary grades.

44. *Fire Prevention*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.
16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); sold by producer at \$24 per reel. Available from most state depositories
Level: Junior high and above

Deals with methods of fire prevention and is divided into two parts. The opening half shows methods of constructing buildings so that they will resist fire. The work of the Underwriters Laboratories in testing electrical appliances, matches, etc., is also shown. The second half is concerned with the prevention of fires at home. The correct ways of cleaning with gasoline, disposing of hot ashes, and removing of rubbish are shown.

45. *Fire Protection*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.
16mm. silent (1 reel); sold by Eastman Kodak Company at \$24 per reel. Available on rental basis from various local depositories.
Level: All levels

A sketch of the history of fire fighting in this country. It shows various types of fire-extinguishing apparatus and tells how to operate them. The correct procedure in turning in an alarm is demonstrated, as is the method of training firemen. There is a brief exhibition of artificial respiration. The picture concludes with

a school fire drill, in which pupils demonstrate correct method of leaving the building.

46. *Fire Safety*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.
16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); sold by Eastman Kodak for \$24 per reel. Available on rental basis from various local depositories.
Level: All levels, particularly good for elementary and junior high school

Deals with the general subject of fire safety, showing how to avoid fires, particularly around the home. Demonstrates correct methods for starting and extinguishing campfires, striking matches, and discovering source of leaking gas. Shows how to use fuse box, where stove should be placed, how chimneys are cleaned. Has an actual fire set by a careless boy, who is burned in putting it out. His burns are treated by his mother, with ample comment on the correct procedure in the subtitles. The picture concludes with demonstrations of how school children can prevent fires at home.

47. *Modern Magic in Fire Protection*

Distributor: Rockwood Sprinkler Company, 48 Harlow Street, Worcester, Mass.
16mm. sound (3 reels); free
Level: Senior high and above

Prepared primarily for building superintendents and factory owners. A rather technical presentation of modern methods of preventing fires. The construction and function of various types of sprinkling systems are illustrated in detail. There is a good deal of advertising for the Rockwood products in the picture, but the explanation of technical problems is unusually clear and easy to follow. This film should be particularly suitable for showing in high-school science classes.

48. *Sounding the Alarm*

Distributor: Aetna Life Insurance Company, Hartford, Conn.
16 and 35mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

An argument against the sending of false alarms. After giving an illustration of the proper method of turning in an alarm, the picture shows a group of high-school boys and girls sending in a series of false alarms. The final alarm results in an accident and the death of a fireman. The culprits are apprehended and shown in jail overcome with remorse. Most of the instruction is negative, and there are detailed pictures of the accident, culminating in a shot of the coroner's truck. The advertising is limited to the name of the company at the beginning and end of the reel.

C. Forest Fire Prevention

49. *Chaparral*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.

16 and 35mm. silent (2 reels); free
Level: Junior high and above

A Forest Service film showing the importance of forest fire prevention in general conservation programs. The first reel gives a story of the conservation of water in Southern California, placing particular emphasis on the Los Angeles water supply. The second reel shows how forest fires lead to soil erosion and help cut down the water supply. This picture will be of interest chiefly to schools on the Pacific Coast.

50. *The Enemy of the Forest*

Producer: Canadian National Government
16mm. silent (1 reel); distributed by Visual Instruction Service, Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa, at small rental
Level: All levels

A Canadian publicity picture, laid in the woods of British Columbia. A camping party of youngsters is shown carefully extinguishing a campfire. Then a careless party of tourists leave their campfire burning and scatter cigarettes, starting a fire. The Canadian forest rangers are shown in action extinguishing the blaze by means of back-firing, gasoline engines, etc. The picture is rather old, and the clothes worn are antedated, but the point of the film is made effectively.

51. *Fire Weather*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
16 and 35mm. sound (2 reels); free
Level: Senior high and above

A factual description of the cooperation between the Weather Bureau and the Forest Service. Activities of both departments during hot, dry weather are shown. Second reel contains description of location of actual fire and use of radio truck in fighting the fire. This picture is largely technical in nature, and is of particular value only in areas having large forest acreage. Most of the scenes in the picture are laid on the Pacific Coast.

52. *Forest Fires or Game?*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
16 and 35mm. sound and silent (1 reel); free
Level: Elementary schools and above

A simple direct appeal for care in the use of forests. The effect of fire upon various types of game is illustrated. The picture concludes with shots of a careful woodsman making and extinguishing a campfire. Useful in teaching wild life, conservation, and care of the forest.

53. *Friends of Man*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
16 and 35mm. silent (4 reels); free
Level: Junior high and above

This is a Forest Service picture designed to show the bad results coming from the practice of "burning off." There is a plot built around the romance of Jeff and Molly. Jeff's father spreads a fire started by Molly's father and then collects \$50 for reporting the latter to the forest ranger. The ranger suspects Old Jeff and embarks upon a program of education, designed for Old Jeff and the neighbor he accused. Together with the county agent and the game warden, the ranger demonstrates the dangers of "burning off." Then he makes Old Jeff help fight every fire that occurs. Old Jeff, weary of fighting fires, realizes that fires do no one good. He makes friends with his neighbor, Molly's father. Young Jeff and Molly, who have been estranged during their parents' difficulties, make up their quarrel. The picture ends with the young couple gazing happily at the trees and the old pair vowing never to "burn off" again. The picture teaches its lesson well and manages to sustain audience interest.

54. *Good Turns for Our Forests*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high

A rather old picture dealing particularly with the part played by the Boy Scouts in forest fire prevention work. This first half of the picture shows the value of the forest to man, both for business and for pleasure. The second half of the picture is concerned with a Boy Scout Jamboree in Washington, where President Coolidge is shown reviewing the Scouts. The picture concludes with a pageant in which the Demon Forest Fire is defeated and destroyed by the Scouts.

55. *It Might Have Been You*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: All school grades

Shows how a careless ranch hand caused a fire that destroyed over 23,000 acres of timber, burned twenty-five ranch houses, and rendered over 100 people homeless in a period of seven hours. The picture tells what the Forest Service is doing to prevent the recurrence of such catastrophes.

56. *Prevent Forest Fires*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
16mm. sound (3 reels, each five minutes in length); free
Level: Junior high and above

Trailers, prepared primarily for distribution during summer months. Following subjects are

dealt with: (1) a good woodsman in the woods; (2) the careful fisherman; (3) how to build a campfire. Each reel, tho short, gives an adequately clear treatment of its subject. Excellent for school use.

57. *Smoke*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. 16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: All levels

A Forest Service picture which gives a practical lesson in forest fire prevention. A man and his son come upon two campers whose carelessness has started small fires. The man and boy extinguish the fires and then demonstrate to the campers the correct procedure in starting and putting out campfires.

58. *Stop Forest Fires*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. 16mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Fifth grade and above

An assembling of the best shots from other forest films into a new film with a musical accompaniment played by the Marine Band. With a minimum of comment the value of the forests as a source of wealth, for recreation, and for conservation is shown. There are scenes of the devastating effects of fire upon the woods, followed by an appeal for care in the use of campfires and cigarettes in the forests. There are excellent scenic shots of different regions of the country and appropriate music by the Marine Band in the picture. The lesson is taught easily and simply thruout, and the film is particularly suitable for geography classes.

59. *Unburned Woodlands*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. 16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: All levels

This picture is laid largely in the forests of North Carolina. It deals with the results of forest fires, showing a forest and its inhabitants before and after a fire. Disastrous effects of the fire are shown in soil erosion, dead game and fish, polluted water, etc.

60. *What Price Fire?*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. 16 and 35mm. silent (2 reels); free
Level: Junior high and above

A fictionalized account of a forest fire's damage to the tourist business of mountain dwellers. It tells the story of a man who goes into business as a guide, has a successful season, and then loses his means of livelihood thru fire. The careless smoker who causes the fire is apprehended and punished. The picture is slow in getting under way and tends to be a little lengthy.

D. First Aid

61. *Artificial Respiration*

Distributor: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.
35mm. silent (1 reel); rental: \$2.50 per day
Level: Junior high and above

A clear presentation of artificial respiration as applied to victims of asphyxiation, electrocution, and drowning. The demonstrations of approved methods are excellently presented, and the correct procedures are shown in detail. This picture is particularly suitable for showing to first aid classes but also has a general appeal. There is no advertising.

62. *Carbon Monoxide*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.
16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

Sources of carbon monoxide poisoning and methods of resuscitation are carefully shown in this picture. The film opens with a scene of a man who is overcome while starting his car in a closed garage. Prompt application of artificial respiration by his Boy Scout son saves the man's life. Similar scenes of carbon monoxide escaping from gas ranges, faulty heating connections, etc., are shown. The emphasis is laid on dangers from carbon monoxide about the home. Consequently, this picture should be of interest in home economics classes, as well as in hygiene and automobile training courses. The film is rather old, and the old styles in women's hats and in automobiles serve to date the picture.

63. *Emergency Treatment of Fractures*

Distributor: Aetna Life Affiliated Companies, Hartford, Conn.
16mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Senior high and above

A highly technical discussion of the application of various types of prepared splints to leg and arm fractures. Made primarily for distribution to trained first aid workers in factories. Appeal limited to advanced first aid classes.

64. *First Aid—Care of Minor Wounds*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.
16 and 35mm. silent (1/4 reel); sold by producer at \$6 per reel. Available from various state and local depositories
Level: Junior high and above

A short presentation of the treatment of cuts. A properly equipped medicine cabinet is illustrated, followed by a demonstration of the correct method of washing, disinfecting, and bandaging a wound. The picture closes with a chart showing how an infection may spread thru the body.

65. *First Aid—Carrying the Injured*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); sold by Eastman Kodak Company at \$6 per reel. Available thru various state and local depositories

Level: Junior high and above

Four Boy Scouts demonstrate the correct methods of making and using a stretcher in an emergency. Also illustrated are the various procedures for carrying an injured person without a stretcher. The picture gives brief and to-the-point instruction.

66. *First Aid—the Control of Bleeding*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); sold by producer at \$18 a reel. Available from various state and local depositories

Level: Junior high and above

This picture shows the procedure for stopping bleeding at various places on the body. Animated drawings of the body are used to show how correctly applied pressure will stop bleeding. The picture concludes with a demonstration of how to dress a wound and what to do after summoning the doctor in case of serious bleeding.

67. *First Aid—Life Saving and Resuscitation*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); sold by Eastman Kodak Company at \$24 per reel. Available on rental basis from various local depositories.

Level: Junior and senior high school and adult

Demonstrates with scenes in and out of the water the correct procedure in rescuing a drowning person. Describes the following steps: approach, carrying in, breaking death grips, breaking two other persons apart, and carrying ashore. The second part of the picture is devoted to a demonstration of the prone pressure method of resuscitation, both after drowning and after asphyxiation. Adapted particularly for physical education classes.

68. *Learn and Live*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, Pittsburgh, Pa.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free

Level: Junior high and above

The importance of a knowledge of artificial respiration is emphasized by this film. A family visits a mine and watches a demonstration of the correct methods of giving first aid. After leaving the mine, the three children go for a swim. The girl swims out beyond her depth and goes down three times before she is rescued. Her younger brother then uses the prone pressure method of resuscitation and revives her. Old-fashioned hats and cars serve to date this picture, and a too obvious staging of certain scenes helps destroy the film's effectiveness.

E. Driver Training (background material)

69. *Automobile Lubrication*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free

Level: Senior high and above

Produced in conjunction with the Standard Oil Company, this picture shows the correct method of lubricating an automobile. Animated cartoons are used to illustrate the effect of oil or grease in various parts of the car. The importance of regular lubrication is also emphasized. There is some indirect advertising for the Standard Oil Company, altho its name is actually mentioned only at the beginning and at the end.

70. *Curb Control*

Distributor: Chevrolet Motor Car Company, Detroit, Mich.

16mm. sound (1 reel); free

Level: Senior high and above

Discusses one phase of automobile construction. Picture opens with illustration of device controlling the smoothness of the flight of an airplane. Similar principles in automobile safety are illustrated, showing the gradual development from the one-wheeled vehicle to the knee-action wheels and shockproof steering of today. The advertising is negligible, being limited to mention of the sponsor's name at the beginning.

71. *Facts Behind the News*

Distributor: Pennzoil Company, Oil City, Pa.

16mm. sound (3 reels); free

Level: Senior high and above

An advertising picture, laying stress upon the "extra margin of safety" given by the producer's oil. Recent speed tests in the air, on the speedway, and at sea are pictured in detail. This film is interesting for its record of the latest developments in transportation, but the large amount of advertising makes its value for school use questionable.

72. *Farther, Faster, and Safer*

Producer: Pennzoil Company, Oil City, Pa.

16mm. sound (2 reels); free; distributed also by Y. M. C. A. Motion Picture Bureau

Level: Junior high and above

Using newsreel technic, this picture shows the making of speed records. Ab Jenkins sets new records on a tractor and in an automobile; the Union Pacific streamline train and Eddie Rickenbacker break the transcontinental records for railroad and airplane; the Pan American clippers and the New York-to-Miami Condors are shown in action. The picture concludes with a shot of a young boy assembling a model airplane. The part of Pennzoil in record-breaking performances is constantly emphasized, and the Pennzoil used for model airplane engines is illustrated.

73. *Highway Beautification*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, U. S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C. 16 and 35mm. silent and sound (2 reels); free Level: Junior high and above

This picture is suitable chiefly for driver training courses or for classes where community safety is being studied. It is concerned primarily with demonstrating how highways can be made more sightly and, incidentally, more safe.

74. *Human Mileage*

Distributor: General Tire and Rubber Company, Akron, Ohio 16mm. silent and sound (1 reel); free Level: Senior high and above

Prepared primarily for use by General Tire salesmen, this picture opens with an incidental discussion of the traffic safety program by Lowell Thomas. Various shots of accidents are used to drive home the lesson: "The brakes stop the wheel, but the tires stop the car." Fully two-thirds of the picture is devoted to advertising General Tires.

75. *Making a V-Type Engine*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa. 16mm. silent (2 reels); free Level: Senior high and above

A matter-of-fact technical presentation of the construction of an engine. The film begins with the mining of the ore and carries the process of construction thru the installation of the engine in the car. Suitable only for showing to driver training and physics classes.

76. *Modes and Motors*

Distributor: General Motors Corporation, Detroit, Mich. 16mm. sound (1 reel); free Level: Senior high and above

Pictures the development of the designs of various General Motors products. The process by which a drawing becomes a finished product is followed step by step. There is a good deal of indirect advertising in the picture.

77. *The Power Within*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa. 16mm. silent (2 reels); free

A silent version of *Where Mileage Begins* (see item 83). There is no advertising in this copy of the film.

78. *Progress on Parade*

Distributor: General Motors Corporation, Detroit, Mich. 16 and 35mm. sound (3 reels); free Level: Junior high school and above

Edwin C. Hill, Lowell Thomas, John B. Kennedy, and John Young discuss the various

phases of General Motors research work, all of which are illustrated in the film. Primarily an advertising film, this picture should be of interest as background material in driver training courses or in high-school science courses. Frequent mention is made of various General Motors products.

79. *The Story of a Spark Plug*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa. 16 and 35mm. silent (2 reels); free Level: Senior high and above

Opens with scenes of various types of vehicles using spark plugs in their engines. The rest of the picture is devoted to a detailed explanation of the process by which sillimanite is changed from ore into a finished plug. The picture concludes with suggestions on proper operation of spark plugs. There is no advertising.

80. *The Story of a Storage Battery*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Mines, 4800 Forbes Street, Pittsburgh, Pa. 16 and 35mm. silent (2 reels); free Level: Senior high and above

Opens with scene of Alexander Volta, who discovered that dissimilar metals in contact produce electric current. Most of the picture is devoted to an explanation of the construction of a storage battery. The concluding part deals with the correct method of caring for a storage battery.

81. *This Moving World*

Distributor: General Motors Corporation, Detroit, Mich. 16mm. sound (2 reels); free Level: Junior high and above

A history of transportation from the invention of the wheel to the present time. Emphasis is laid on the fact that each important new invention in the history of transportation has come from the dreams of youth. There are scenes of a young boy in the Stone Age, the Middle Ages, and the present time. This picture is excellent as background for driver training courses. There is a small amount of advertising in the picture.

82. *Tough Friends*

Distributor: Chevrolet Motor Car Company, Detroit, Mich. 16 mm. sound (1 reel); free Level: High school and above

The story of iron from the mine until its ultimate transformation into steel. The process of making steel is given in detail. Examples of the 80 different alloys of steel used in making an automobile are given. Construction of different parts of the automobile is shown. The picture gives a good summary of one phase of auto construction.

83. *Where Mileage Begins*

Distributor: General Motors Corporation, Detroit, Mich.
16 and 35mm. sound (2 reels); free
Level: Junior high and above

An explanation of the construction and operation of an internal combustion engine. Engine is compared to old-fashioned muzzle-loading cannon, and operation of both is demonstrated. The latter part of the picture is devoted to an extremely interesting demonstration of the construction of the engine. As the commentator describes the various parts, each jumps into its own place as if it were obeying his commands. The clarity of this picture makes it especially valuable for driver training course background material.

F. Miscellaneous

84. *Ask Daddy*

Distributor: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.
35mm. silent (2 reels); rental: \$5 daily to members of the National Safety Council; \$10 to non-members
Level: Elementary and above

A picture dealing with home safety. A father describes to his two children the dangers of the age of the caveman as compared to those of today. Afterwards the young boy borrows his father's gun, and his sister is accidentally shot. The children of the neighborhood then form a safety club. The activities of the club are compared with the chivalrous deeds of the medieval knights. This picture is old and attempts to teach much in a short space of time. It is suitable for showing to upper elementary-school pupils and contains no advertising.

85. *The Beneficent Reprobate*

Producer: National Women's Christian Temperance Union
16mm. silent and sound (4 reels); distributed by the Y. M. C. A. Motion Picture Bureau, New York, N. Y., at small rental
Level: Senior high and above

This picture is concerned directly with the effects of alcohol on man, and only very indirectly with its effects on his driving ability. Half of the picture is devoted to a history of alcohol and a portrayal of its uses in science and industry. The effects of alcohol are shown in a prolonged series of tests given at Northwestern University, and there are a number of complicated charts used in the picture.

86. *Dangerous Dusts*

Distributor: Division of Motion Pictures, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
16mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Senior high and above

Deals with cause, effect, and cure of dust explosions. Opens with highly emotional scene of

women watching a burning building. Scenes of various explosions during the past quarter-century are shown, followed by an account of the work being done by the Bureau of Chemistry and Soils in preventing such explosions. The appeal of this picture is restricted to science and vocational classes.

87. *Factory Safety*

Distributor: Chevrolet Motor Car Company, Detroit, Mich.
16mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Senior high and above

A complete resume of factory safety. The film shows in order: the planning for safety by company engineers, safety meetings for shop foremen, the use of various safety devices, and the necessity for having clean shops. The emphasis, however, is laid upon the importance of the individual in the safety program. This picture is excellent for demonstrating to school shops the part played by safety in the great factories. Advertising is limited to mention of the sponsor's name at the film's beginning.

88. *The Hand of Fate*

Distributor: Liberty Mutual Insurance Company, Boston, Mass.
16 and 35mm. silent (2 reels); free
Level: Junior high and above

An industrial safety film, containing a heavy dose of romance. Despite the emphasis placed upon the need for shop safety and the results of carelessness in the factory, the age of this film, as well as its love scenes, makes it undesirable for school use. Advertising is limited to mention of company name at beginning and end.

89. *The Handicap*

Distributor: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.
35mm. silent (1 reel); rental: \$2.50 daily
Level: High school and above

Industrial safety. A young worker, about to be married, loses his arm in an accident. The picture deals with his inability to take adequate care of his family and drives home the lesson that his trouble was caused solely by carelessness. This is an old picture, containing much sentiment and shots of an amputation in a hospital. It is suitable for showing in shop safety classes, altho it deals with results of shop accidents, rather than with prevention. Contains no advertising.

90. *Health and Safety at Coney Island*

Distributor: American Museum of Natural History, Central Park West at 79th Street, New York, N. Y.
16mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Elementary and junior high schools

Steps taken by the New York City government to keep Coney Island clean and safe. Various amusements at the beach and in Luna Park are

shown, followed by illustrations of the right and wrong way to use the beach. The dangers of leaving broken glass are particularly emphasized. Lifeguards on the shore and attendants at the first aid station are shown in action. This picture is technically poor, the photography being particularly bad, and its appeal is limited to schools in the Greater New York area.

91. *How Jimmy Won the Game*

Distributor: Institute of Makers of Explosives, Room 13451, Nemours Building, Wilmington, Del.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); free
Level: Junior and senior high

This picture is designed particularly to show the dangers of blasting caps. It tells the story of a small boy who prevented several of his companions from setting off a blasting cap. In this manner, he saved the star baseball pitcher from possible injury and thus won the championship game for his team. The picture makes its appeal thru the team element and is suitable only for those communities in which blasting caps are in common use.

92. *The Outlaw*

Distributor: Liberty Mutual Insurance Company, Boston, Mass.

16 and 35mm. silent (2 reels); free
Level: Senior high and above

An industrial safety film dealing with the outlaw, King Carelessness, and his tribe of mischievous working imps. A series of factory accidents caused by the imps is shown in detail. Finally, a safety engineer, with the aid of the workers, routs the trouble-makers. This film is old, and its acting, direction, and photography are distinctly of a 1920 vintage. It is not suitable for general school use, altho it might be shown in shop classes or evening schools for industrial workers. Advertising is limited to mention of company name at beginning and end.

93. *Railroad Safety*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); sold by Eastman Kodak Company at \$24 per reel. Available thru various state and local depositories
Level: Junior high and above

First part gives scenes of railroad construction. These are followed by shots of track maintenance. The picture concludes with illustrations of the various safety devices used to prevent railroad accidents. Crossing signals, semaphores, automatic brakes are shown. This picture has no direct safety value for the average person, but it is an interesting account of the progress made in railroad safety work.

94. *Safety on the Federal Skysways*

Distributor: U. S. Bureau of Air Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C.

16mm. silent (4 reels); free
Level: Senior high and above

A detailed presentation of the functions of the Bureau of Air Commerce. Its work in obtaining weather reports, maintaining beacons, establishing landing fields, inspecting pilots, etc., is shown. This is a factual account of what has been done to make air travel safer and is suitable for showing to classes studying the history of transportation. Its value for teaching safety is negligible.

95. *Safety at Sea*

Producer: Eastman Kodak Company, Rochester, N. Y.

16 and 35mm. silent (1 reel); sold by Eastman Kodak Company at \$24 per reel. Available on rental basis from various local depositories
Level: All levels

Built around the work of the Coast Guard. Shows lighthouses and bell buoys in operation and concludes with a dramatic rescue carried out by means of the breeches buoy. This picture is particularly useful to demonstrate the work of the Coast Guard, but the safety situations depicted are not those in which the average person is likely to be involved.

96. *Sentinels of Safety*

Distributor: Aetna Life Insurance Company, Hartford, Conn.

16 and 35mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

Opening with shots of the national and local agencies of protection, such as the police and fire departments, the army and navy, etc., the picture draws a comparison by emphasizing the need for guardians in the home. A long series of potential causes of home accidents, such as loose wires, crowded stairways, weak chairs, and others, is shown. The emphasis is placed upon the bad habit rather than on the correct procedure. Advertising is confined to mention of sponsor's name at beginning and end.

97. *Stop Silicosis*

Distributor: U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, Washington, D. C.

16mm. sound (1 reel); free
Level: High school and above

An industrial safety picture, presenting a fairly comprehensive study of the problem of silicosis. Hazardous conditions resulting in the disease are shown, and followed by illustrations of the correct method for avoiding each specific hazard. The appeal of this film is limited to shop classes in which the dust problem is discussed.

98. *Under Control*

Distributor: Pennzoil Company, Oil City, Pa.
16mm. sound (2 reels); free
Level: Junior high and above

A Pennzoil advertising film. Deals with importance of control over fire, machines, etc., as a safety factor. There are many shots of different types of machines using Pennzoil under various conditions.

99. *Why Not Live?*

Distributor: William J. Ganz Company, 19 East 47th Street, New York, N. Y.
16mm. sound and silent (1 reel); free
Level: Junior high and above

Prepared for the American Red Cross as an account of its activities. Reviews the work of the Red Cross in highway first aid, home accident prevention, and farm safety. The picture abounds with accidents and lays emphasis, not on prevention, but on first aid. It is suitable for showing in connection with the annual Red Cross drives, but its value for safety purposes is limited.

SOUND-SLIDE FILMS

1. *America's Fatal Streets*

Distributor: General Electric Company, 1 River Road, Schenectady, N. Y.
Length of film: 25 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

The importance of street lighting in the general safety program. The picture opens with a number of charts giving statistical information showing that night accidents are worse than day accidents. A comprehensive plan for reducing night accidents is outlined, and results of such a program in certain cities are cited. This film is of particular interest to high-school civics classes and adult community organizations.

2. *Death Takes No Holiday*

Producer: National Conservation Bureau
Length of film: 15 minutes; distributed by Western Union at moderate rental charge
Level: Senior high and above

A vivid presentation of the present accident situation, its causes and possible remedies. Accident statistics are graphically presented, and the results of careless driving shown. There are brief talks by Florence Nelson of the National Safety Council and George Wellington of the American Association of Motor Vehicle Administrators, giving the progress of safety education and the need for uniform legislation. This picture has many gruesome scenes and is prepared particularly for use by civic organizations. It may be of value to classes of older children.

3. *The Fall Guy*

Distributor: National Safety Council, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Ill.
Length of film: 15 minutes; rental: \$2.75 per week to council members
Level: Senior high and above

A skeleton, representing death, talks to a typical careless worker. Together, they tour a factory, where they see various types of hazards causing falls. Death explains how these falls could be avoided, and the worker resolves to take no chances in the future. Altho a brief portion of the film discusses falls in the home, most of the picture is devoted to factory scenes. This film is primarily for vocational schools. However, its general arguments against carelessness make it suitable for showing in other safety classes.

4. *Inertia*

Distributor: American Legion. Local post or Americanism Commission, Indianapolis, Ind.
Length of film: 15 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

Opening with an illustration of the law of inertia as applied to bowling, this picture then shows how inertia affects an automobile. The importance of slowing up for curves and starting slowly is emphasized. Inertia's effect upon the mental reactions of the driver is also illustrated. The picture concludes with a summary of correct driving practices in relation to inertia. The positive instruction and simplified psychology of this film make it particularly effective, and the explanation of the force of inertia makes it very good for science classes.

5. *Lady Luck's Husband*

Distributor: Travelers Insurance Company, Hartford, Conn.
Length of film: 30 minutes; free
Level: Junior high and above

An "Ozzie" picture showing the adventures of the factory worker who refuses to take safety precautions. Ozzie is involved in numerous mishaps, from which he always emerges smilingly unscathed, confident in the power of his good-luck charm. The film closes with a summary of Ozzie's mistakes and how they could be avoided. This picture is intended primarily for vocational school or for shop classes, and is of small general interest. Advertising is confined to mention of sponsor's name at beginning and end.

6. *Life Savers of the Highway*

Distributor: Northwestern University Traffic Safety Institute, 1827 Orrington Avenue, Evanston, Ill.
Length of film: 10 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

Prepared primarily for police accident investigation bureaus, this film deals with the correct

methods of giving first aid to highway accident victims. The mistakes made by well-intentioned but uninstructed officers are shown and contrasted with the right procedure of treating a person injured in an accident. This picture is one of the very few safety films that cover highway first aid, and as such is particularly desirable for showing to driver training classes.

7. *Live Longer with Light*

Distributor: General Electric Company, 1 River Road, Schenectady, N. Y.
Length of film: 20 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

An argument in favor of more and better lighting for our highways. Statistics on night accidents are given, and the importance of good lighting in reducing accidents is emphasized. The whole film is an indirect advertisement for General Electric products. However, there is little specific mention of the various services and materials offered by the company.

8. *Night Driving*

Distributor: American Legion. Local posts or Americanism Commission, Indianapolis, Ind.
Length of film: 15 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

This film was prepared primarily for showing to adult groups. However, it is also suitable for use in high-school driver training courses. Charts and statistics on night driving accidents are shown. A woman, a young man, and a bus driver describe the precautions they take while driving at night. The following three-point safety program for night driving is emphasized: (1) Inspect and adjust your headlights regularly. (2) Use meeting lights when passing cars coming in the opposite direction. (3) Do not overdrive your headlights.

9. *The Other Fellow*

Distributed by local American Legion posts
Length of film: 15 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

This film emphasizes individual responsibility for community safety. It presents a fifteen-point safety program for use by cities and towns and gives examples of what has been done to make Evanston, Ill., safe. This picture is particularly good for driver training courses and for civic and club groups. Prepared primarily for an adult audience, it is suitable only for the upper classes in high school.

10. *Safe Seeing—Safe Driving*

Distributor: General Electric Company, 1 River Road, Schenectady, N. Y.
Length of film: 25 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

A lengthy and highly technical presentation of the night accident problem. The causes of night accidents are discussed, and a brief is presented for improved highway lighting as the

best means for preventing these accidents. The picture concludes with a discussion of various types of lamps, proper adjustment of headlights, and ways of avoiding night accidents. Designed as propaganda for highway lighting, this film might be of interest in connection with a study of community safety or in driver training courses. There is a good deal of direct and indirect advertising thruout the picture.

11. *Safety in Numbers*

Distributor: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York, N. Y.
Length of film: 10 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

Outline of a plan for community safety. Emphasis is placed upon the importance of group action. The picture is designed primarily for adult groups, and is suitable for showing at P. T. A. and similar meetings. There is no advertising.

12. *Safety for Sale*

Distributor: General Electric Company, 1 River Road, Schenectady, N. Y.
Length of film: 20 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

An account of the work of the Ohio Safety Council. Emphasis is laid on the economic values of safety. This picture is designed particularly to stimulate interest of civic groups. A comprehensive plan to be followed by these groups is outlined. The film has some value for use in driver training courses, but its general appeal is limited to Ohio civic organizations.

13. *Stop! Look! and Live!*

Distributor: American Legion. Local post or Americanism Commission, Indianapolis, Ind.
Length of film: 15 minutes; free
Level: Junior high and above

A demonstration of correct pedestrian habits is given in this film strip. The audience accompanies a postman along his route. He introduces a city policeman and a highway patrolman, both of whom describe examples of correct and incorrect walking. Most of the examples shown are those of incorrect procedures, altho several persons are shown crossing streets, walking on highways, and obeying traffic lights correctly. The picture is made particularly convincing by the naturalness of its performers.

14. *The Wheel of Chance*

Distributor: Local Coca-Cola Bottling Company
Length of film: 15 minutes; free
Level: Senior high and above

Scenes of gambling at Monte Carlo are compared with chance-taking by automobile drivers. A series of near-accidents and correct driving practices involving a Coca-Cola truck is shown. Much emphasis is laid on the three yardsticks of safety: preparedness, carefulness, and courtesy. This film was prepared for the instruc-

tion of Coca-Cola truck drivers. Consequently there is in it advertising in the form of views of company trucks and constant emphasis upon building goodwill for the company. However, this is one of the better films of its kind and could be used to advantage in driver training courses.

15. *Willie Worry vs. Safety Sam*

Distributor: Chevrolet Motor Company, Detroit, Mich.

Length of film: 15 minutes; available at \$3 per record and film from above, or loaned free by local dealer

Level: Senior high and above

This is a picture prepared primarily for use by General Motors salesmen. While General Motors products are not mentioned by name, the cars are easily identifiable. The picture gives a detailed presentation of the safety features of the modern car and should be of particular interest in a driver training class, altho it tends to place emphasis on the car rather than on the driver.

16. *You Bet Your Life*

Distributor: Travelers Insurance Company, Hartford, Conn.

Length of film: 25 minutes; free

Level: Junior high and above

The adventures of Ozzie on the highway. Ozzie goes for a drive in a defective car, breaks numerous traffic laws, and ends up being fined by the traffic court judge. Next day he goes out again, is careless again, and has an accident

this time. He is sentenced to a year in jail for his various misdemeanors. The moral has a sugar-coated covering of humor that tends to obscure its point. Also, it tries to cover too many phases of traffic violation in too short a space of time. There is no advertising other than mention of the sponsor's name at beginning and end.

FILM STRIPS, SILENT

(These strips are distributed by the Education Division, National Safety Council, 20 N. Wacker Drive, Chicago. Most of the strips are very short and in every case the title is self-explanatory. All strips are suitable for showing in junior and senior high schools.)

Automobile Fleet Maintenance
Child Accidents in the Home
Condition of the Car
Driving Safely Between Intersections
First Aid
Home Safety
Make It Safe
Methods of Safety Teaching
Preventable Automobile Accidents
Safe Driving at Intersections
Safe Electrical Equipment for the Home
Safe Heads and Good Eyes
Safe Housekeeping Practices
Safety in Bicycle Riding
School Boy Patrol
Taking Chances
To Drive Without Accidents
Traffic Signals

LANTERN SLIDES

<i>Title</i>	<i>Level</i>	<i>Source</i>
Fire Prevention	Elementary and junior high	National Conservation Bureau, 60 John St., New York, N. Y.
Home Safety	All levels	"
Learning Skills of Road	Junior and senior high	"
Let's Be Skilful	High school	Aetna Life Insurance Companies, Hartford, Conn.
Primary Play Safety	Elementary	National Conservation Bureau
Safety in Aviation	High school	"
Safety in Baseball	Elementary and junior high	"
Safety on the Highway	High school	Keystone View Company, Meadville, Pa.
Safety in Parks and Playgrounds	High school and adult	National Conservation Bureau
Safety Patrols	High school and adult	"
Safety in Play and Recreation	Elementary and junior high	"
Safety in Railroad Transportation	High school	"
Safety in Water Transportation	High school	"
Street and Highway Safety	Elementary	"
Swimming and Water Safety	High school and adult	"
Upper Grades—Play Safety	Elementary	"
Vocational Safety	High school and adult	"
What Price Accidents	Elementary	"

(The slides of the National Conservation Bureau are also available from a number of state and local depositories. For a complete list, write the New York office.)

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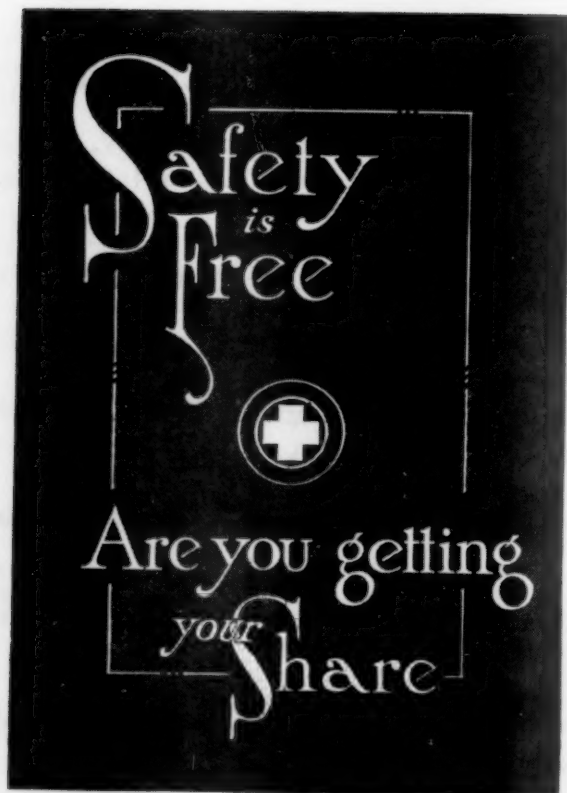
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